

ADDRESSING SEXUAL HARASSMENT AMONG STUDENTS AT A DURBAN UNIVERSITY

SAHARA JAGATH

APRIL 2023



ADDRESSING SEXUAL HARASSMENT AMONG STUDENTS AT A DURBAN UNIVERSITY

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements of the
degree of Master of Management Science
Specialising in
Public Management (Peacebuilding)
in the
Faculty of Management Sciences
at the Durban University of Technology

SAHARA JAGATH

APRIL 2023

FINAL SUBMISSION

APPROVED FOR FINAL SUBMISSION

Supervisor: Dr. Vijay Hamlall

Date: 12 APRIL 2023

DECLARATION

Student Number: 21959528

I, Sahara Jagath, hereby declare that the thesis herewith submitted for the Masters in Public Administration – Peace Studies at the Durban University of Technology (DUT) is my original work and has not been previously submitted for a degree at any other university. All work from other sources is cited as such.

12 APRIL 2023

Sahara Jagath

APPROVED FOR FINAL SUBMISSION

12 APRIL 2023

Dr. Vijay Hamlall (PHD)

ABSTRACT

Sexual harassment and gender-based violence have become pervasive and normal within South African society and is a matter of grave concern at colleges and universities. This study seeks to address sexual harassment among students at a Durban university. The study explores the understanding and perceptions that students attach to sexual harassment. The nature, cause and consequences of sexual harassment, and student suggestions on ways to reduce it, were examined. Ultimately a participatory action plan was implemented to tackle sexual harassment at the university.

Drawing on Lorber's (2000) social construction of gender theory approach, this study explored the lived experiences of students at the university. The theory is based on the premise that gender is constantly created and recreated during social interaction (Lorber, 2000). This allowed for the understanding of students' experiences within a social context. The literature reviewed showed that gender relations and patriarchy contributed enormously to sexual harassment.

The study adopted the Interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methods to answer the research questions. These approaches enabled data generation based on the participants' interpretation and lived experiences. The non-purposive sampling method was employed to select twenty undergraduate students: twelve females; five males; one queer; and two bisexual participants. Data was generated using individual interviews and focus group discussions.

The interpretive thematic analysis process of recognising, examining and identifying similarities and differences and thereby finding themes within the data was used. Three broad themes emerged, including *who* mainly perpetrated the sexual harassment; the *nature* of sexual harassment; *causes* of sexual harassment (embedded in subscription to violent forms of masculinity and socio-economic factors, confronting patriarchal discourses and resisting victimhood). The study argued that it was within the broader context of violent forms of masculinity and patriarchal power context that challenged and effectively silenced victims.

Data generated revealed that the participants held a diverse range of understanding of sexual harassment and GBV. It was evident that sexual harassment was prevalent on campus. Female students are exposed and the main victims of such, with the male students, the main perpetrators. Students who are LGBTQIA⁺ were found to be vulnerable to sexual harassment mainly due to their sexual orientation.

The study revealed the need to create better awareness on what constitutes sexual harassment and gender-based violence and participants suggested that victims, perpetrators and university staff have to work collaboratively to tackle the scourge. Participants all concurred that there is a need for focussed and ongoing education and awareness campaigns on campus.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to Mundhir Moorley.
Hoping that you are looking down on us proudly.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to:

Dr. Vijay Hamlall; associate lecturer Department of Peace Studies, Durban University of Technology, for his endless patience with me. Without his expert guidance, supervision and meticulous work ethic, this study would not have been possible.

Ms Sury Bisetty; editor, for the long hours spent editing and under such short notice. Much appreciation and thanks.

All students who participated in this study. Thank you for taking the time to participate in the study and for sharing your experiences.

My mother, Umwathy Maharaj, for her endless sacrifices and unconditional love.

LISTS OF FIGURES AND TABLES

FIGURES

Figure 4. 1 A circle of Action research steps	76
---	----

TABLES

Table 4. 1 Biographical Information	85
Table 4. 2 Structure of the Focus Groups.....	89
Table 4. 3 Summary of the six-phase thematic analysis process which was undertaken.....	91
Table 6. 1 Biographical information of participants in the intervention campaign	122
Table 6. 2 Steps and time frames of the intervention programme	124
Table 6. 3 Plan of action	133

ACRONYMS

CSVR	Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation
DCL	Dear College Letter
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
EEOC	Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
GBV	Gender- based Violence
HEAIDS	Higher Education HIV and AIDS Programme
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
LGBTQIA+	Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, intersex
MEC	Member of the executive council
PSET	Post School Education and Training System
SAPS	The South African Police Services
SRC	Student representative council
TLA	The Liberation Agents
WHO	World Health Organization

CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LISTS OF FIGURES AND TABLES	vi
ACRONYMS.....	vii
CONTENTS	viii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 CONTEXT.....	1
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND MOTIVATION FOR STUDY	4
1.4 AIM:	5
1.5 THE STUDY OBJECTIVES:.....	5
1.6 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS:.....	5
1.7 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS.....	6
1.7.1 GENDER	6
1.7.2 GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE	6
1.7.3 SEXUAL HARASSMENT	7
1.7.4 QUID PRO QUO.....	7
1.7.5 PATRIARCHY	7
1.8 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	8
1.8.1 RESEARCH DESIGN.....	8
1.8.2 SAMPLING	8
1.8.3 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION.....	9
1.8.4 PROCESS OF DATA ANALYSIS.....	10
1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS:	11
1.10 CHAPTER OVERVIEW	11
1.10 CONCLUSION	12
CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	13
2.1 INTRODUCTION	13
2.2 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM	13
2.3 THEORIES OF MASCULINITY	17

2.3.1 HEGEMONIC MASCULINITY	18
2.3.2 MASCULINITY AND VIOLENCE	20
2.3.3 MASCULINITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA	22
2.4 CONCEPTUALISING PEACE.....	23
2.4.1 PEACEBUILDING APPROACHES.....	24
2.4.2 RESTORATIVE JUSTICE	26
2.4.3 THE TRANSCEND METHOD	29
2.4.4 THE TREE OF LIFE	30
2.5. CONCLUSION	31
CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW	32
3.1 INTRODUCTION	32
3.2 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT DESCRIPTIONS.....	32
3.3 FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT.....	37
3.3.1 FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE WORKPLACE	37
3.3.2 FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS.....	38
3.4 PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AND SEXUAL HARASSMENT	44
3.5 SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT UNIVERSITIES.....	46
3.5.1 INTERNATIONAL STUDIES.....	47
3.5.2 NATIONAL STUDIES	48
3.6 CAUSES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT	51
3.6.1 POWER AND PATRIARCHY	51
3.6.2 ORGANISATION CLIMATE	53
3.6.3 SOCIAL FACTORS.....	54
3.7 CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE	56
3.7.1 CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT UNIVERSITIES.....	60
3.8 APPROACHES TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT UNIVERSITIES	61
3.9 POLICY MANDATES AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK.....	68
3.9.1 INTERNATIONALLY.....	68
3.9.2 GENERAL LEGISLATIVE AND POLICY CONTEXT IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	69
3.10 CONCLUSION	72
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH APPROACH.....	73
4.1 INTRODUCTION	73
4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM/DESIGN	73
4.3 METHODOLOGY.....	76
4.4 POPULATION/TARGET POPULATION.....	79

4.5. SAMPLING METHOD.....	79
4.6 MEASURING INSTRUMEN.....	81
4.7 RECRUITMENT PROCESS.....	83
4.8 PARTICIPANTS.....	84
4.9 DATA COLLECTION METHOD	86
4.9.1 INTERVIEWS.....	86
4.9.2 FOCUS GROUPS	87
4.10. DATA ANALYSIS	90
4.11 RESEARCH QUESTIONS:.....	94
4.12 DELIMITATIONS/SCOPE	94
4.13 LIMITATIONS	94
4.14 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY	94
4.15 ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY	96
4.16 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	97
4.16.1 INFORMED CONSENT	97
4.16.2 VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION.....	98
4.16.3 NO DECEPTION	98
4.16.4 NO HARM TO PARTICIPANTS.....	98
4.16.5. PRIVACY/CONFIDENTIALITY	98
4.17 CONCLUSION	99
CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND FINDINGS.....	99
5.1 INTRODUCTION	100
5.2 NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT	100
5.2.1 VERBAL HARASSMENT.....	100
5.2.2 NON-VERBAL HARASSMENT.....	102
5.2.3 PHYSICAL HARASSMENT	103
5.3 CAUSES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT	105
5.3.1 SUBSCRIPTION TO VIOLENT FORMS OF MASCULINITY	105
5.3.2 NON-REPORTING OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT	107
5.3.3 SOCIAL-ECONOMIC FACTORS.....	110
5.4 EFFECTS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT	113
5.4.1 DIFFICULTIES IN STUDENTS SUCCESSFULLY COMPLETING THEIR ACADEMIC PROGRAMMES	113
5.4.2 EMOTIONAL AND RELATED PHYSICAL HEALTH CHALLENGES	114
5.4.3 LABELLING AND STIGMATISATION	116
5.5 MEASURES TO ADDRESS SEXUAL HARASSMENT ON CAMPUS	118

5.6 CONCLUSION	120
CHAPTER SIX: INTERVENTION PROGRAMME	121
6.1 INTRODUCTION	121
6.2 SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS.....	121
6.2.1 THE INTERVENTION SAMPLE.....	121
6.3 THE INTERVENTION CAMPAIGN.....	122
6.3.1 THE ACTION PLAN	123
i. Focus Group Discussions	123
6.4. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS	125
6.4.1 NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV	126
6.4.2 CAUSES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV.....	127
6.4.3 EXTENT OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV	127
6.4.4 CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV.....	128
6.5 DISCUSSION ON HOW THE UNIVERSITY RESPONDED TO GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE	128
6.6 PLANNING THE ACTION.....	130
6.6.1 BRAINSTORMING.....	130
6.7 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ACTION	132
6.7.1 CAMPUS WALKABOUT	134
6.7.2 STUDENT PLEDGE	134
6.7.3 INFORMATION PAMPHLETS	134
6.7.4 TEAMS MEETING	135
6.8 EVALUATION OF THE CAMPAIGN.....	135
6.9 REFLECTION	137
6.10 CONCLUSION	137
7.1 INTRODUCTION	139
7.2 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND THE CHAPTERS	139
7.3 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN STUDY FINDINGS	141
7.3.1 WHAT DO STUDENTS AT THE SELECTED UNIVERSITY PERCEIVE TO BE SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV	141
7.3.2 WHAT WAS THE NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY?.....	141
7.4 HOW CAN A PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH PROGRAMME BE USED TO PREVENT AND REDUCE THE PREVALENCE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY?	144
7.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS.....	144
7.5.1 COVID-19 PANDEMIC	145
7.5.2 SAMPLE SIZE	145
7.5.3 SENSITIVE NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV	145

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS	145
7.7 CONCLUSION	146
REFERENCES	147
APPENDICES	175
APPENDIX A: LETTER OF INFORMATION	175
APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT CONSENT	178
APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – FOR PARTICIPANTS	180
APPENDIX D FOCUS GROUP SCHEDULE – FOR PARTICIPANTS.....	184
APPENDIX E: GATEKEEPER’S PERMISSION	186
APPENDIX F: IREC APPROVAL	187
APPENDIX G: TURNITIN REPORT	188
APPENDIX H: EDITOR’S REPORT	189

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Sexual harassment and gender-based violence have become endemic and have reached alarming levels in South Africa. This study seeks to address sexual harassment among students at a Durban university, hereafter named Yasethekwin. Students' understanding of sexual harassment and their suggestions for ways to reduce it, will be explored. The rationale, background and focus of the study will be outlined in this chapter. The chapter will also include the objectives and the methodological approach of the study. Finally, an outline of the chapters and a conclusion completes the chapter.

1.2 CONTEXT

Over the past five years, both internationally and locally there has been an increasing number of incidences of sexual harassment of university students both between peers and by faculty members as noted by Goh, et al. (2021) in Washington, as well as Haurwitz (2018) in Austin in the USA. Harvard University in 2021 stripped a prominent anthropological chairperson as a result of sexual harassment findings after persistent sexual harassment and unwelcome sexual conduct with students and employees (Gibbons, 2021). Smiley (2017) stated that the University of Melbourne in Australia needed to institute a blanket ban on sex between faculty members and students. In many cases, as affirmed by Durbach (2018) the assault was not reported and universities did not have any new guidelines to address these assaults. It is therefore not surprising that the fear of sexual harassment and violence is widespread. Internationally, in almost every university on every continent, there were reports of sexual harassment and assault on women students as noted by Valentine-French (1989) in Canada, Wood (2018) in Utah and Yellapantula (2018) in Delhi, India. Similar reports are evident from Donnelly (2019) in Ireland and Durbach (2018) in Australia.

In South Africa, the awareness and campaigns against sexual harassment have intensified. President Cyril Ramaphosa (2021) in his Women's Day address, celebrated the resolve of women to determine their own destiny and to live in a society where women feel and are safe. In his 2020, New Year's address to the nation, President Cyril Ramaphosa lamented

We have had to confront the darkest forces of our nature. As a nation, we have witnessed the brutality perpetrated by men against women and children. We have seen

lives both young and old ended with brutal violence. We have seen fear in our homes, schools and streets. Yet as a nation, we have stood as one in our determination to end the crimes perpetrated by those men who have no respect for the lives, the rights, dignity of women and children.

He further added that there was a “need to turn the tide on this national shame” (South African Department of Government Communication and Information System, 2021).

Less than 24 hours after President Cyril Ramaphosa addressed the nation on 6 September 2019 on the high incidences of femicide at least two more women were murdered in Cape Town. Daniels (2019) reported on the silent protest over the graduation of an alleged rapist at the Nelson Mandela University. The protestors in a letter handed to the university alleged that in 2019 alone there had been ten reported cases of sexual harassment and assault at the university. They alleged that no investigation or docket had been opened at the university and that victim and perpetrator were in constant contact.

The rampant abuse faced by women at higher learning institutions included intimidation and harassment by male colleagues and males in positions of authority, was reported by Moagi (2018).

Garnering local and international favour was a study, by Swartz, et al. (2018), conducted over five years that tracked the experiences of black students at various South African universities and detailed their perceptions of sexual assault and sexual harassment. Their findings and reports of sexual harassment at South African universities are alarming.

At Rhodes University, a student, 23-year-old Khensani Maseko committed suicide, allegedly after being sexually assaulted on campus, as reported by Sobuwa (2018). The Durban University of Technology, HIV/AIDS centre hosts an annual Silent Protest, to raise awareness of the escalating epidemic of gender-based violence.

The focus of this study is to investigate the experiences, perceptions, attitudes and beliefs of a sample of university students regarding gender-based violence and then to plan and implement interventions to address this mounting problem.

This study is located at Yasethekwin University in Yasethekwin. Yasethekwin is a coastal city within the eThekwin Metropolitan Municipality in the province of in the KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. The latest Community Survey (2016) estimated eThekwin population at 3.7 million, and in terms of gender, the municipality's population comprises 49% males and 51% females. Most of the population comes from the African community (74%) followed by the Indian community (17%), White community (7%), Coloured community (2%) and other nationals (0.4%). The university has a diverse population of both day and resident students.

Benya (2019) argued that the most common form of gender harassment was sexual harassment. She added that this takes the form of demeaning jokes or comments about women, including comments that women do not belong in leadership positions, or are not smart enough to succeed in a scientific career. She further added that this can also include sabotaging women's work or careers, and denigrating them, often with crude language based on their gender. Barling and Cooper (2008) argued that sexual harassment is a form of hostility and aggression toward women, while Fiske and Glick (1996) postulated that sexual harassers are motivated by sex roles and sexual hostility based on the nature perspective theory. According to Bem (1981), gender schema theory focuses on the basic cognitive processes that appear to underlie sex typing. In particular, he begins by suggesting that the sex typing phenomenon was based on the development of a clear-cut gender schema of societal expectations and beliefs about the differences between males and females. On this note, gender schema influenced their perception and understanding of a wide range of behaviour towards the opposite sex. Jordan (2018) postulated that it was power and not gender that drives sexual harassment. Despite sexual harassment awareness campaigns, sexual harassment is prevalent and rampant across universities.

This study draws from Judith Lorber's theory of social construction of gender. Lorber (1994, 2000) maintained that gender was continuously constructed and reconstructed out of human interaction and social life. Lorber (1994, 2000) further added that gender was a part of the stratification system, which unevenly positions men above women. Thus, it may be extrapolated from the theory that sexual status and behaviour may reflect gender status.

The restorative justice model (Fogel, 1974) approach to addressing sexual harassment has been examined by a few researchers including Koss (2014) and Wemmers and Cyr (2016) and the authors found that this approach changed the narrative from the victim to taking control and

accountability and promoted social change. The New Zealand Law Commission is implementing restorative justice to implement reform in the criminal justice system (Wemmers, 2018).

Griner (2018) and Shackford-Bradley (2018) argue that with the advent of the #MeToo movement, restorative justice was regarded as a better approach to dealing with sexual violence. The study will therefore use the restorative justice approach and draw on Lorber's theory of construction of gender.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND MOTIVATION FOR STUDY

As a society gender-based violence and sexual harassment have reached an unprecedented height. University students are a dynamic evolving microcosm of society at large. With the advent of the #MeToo movement in 2017, the widespread prevalence of sexual assault and harassment cases have been highlighted on social media. The South African Parliament enacted the Constitution of 1996, The Criminal Law Amendment Act, 2007, and the Protection from Harassment Act 17 of 2011, all to protect students and others from acts of violence.

Smit and Du Plessis (2011) believed that these laws are ineffective and not enough to stem the tide of violence against women. Cortina (2002) added that sexual harassment remained the most prevalent form of violence against women.

The study is imperative due to the danger of society normalizing sexual harassment. The African Women's League Chairperson Bathabile Dlamini (2019) stated that sexual assault was a serious societal problem. MEC Mchunu (2010) announced that the values and behaviour that lead to rape were a threat to all of us as a society. He added that when the most vulnerable of our society are not safe, then we are all at risk. President Cyril Ramaphosa (2020) stated in the State of the Nation address to the Parliament, that there was a dark and heavy shadow across our land. He added that gender-based violence was just too vague and simplistic a term and should be called male-perpetrated violence (South African Department of Government Communication and Information System, 2020).

The motivation for this research study emanates from the #MeToo movement reports both locally and internationally. This included an article titled, NWU 'could be liable for harassment damages', due to its failure to address allegations of senior staff sexually harassing 14 women.

(News24 correspondent online 2016). Durbach (2018) reported that in Australian Universities, guidelines to assist students with sexual assault and harassment failed to address the experiences of students. Simelane (2001) indicated that all forms of sexual harassment were evident at the University Of Natal, South Africa. Professor Thandwa Mthembu (2018) expressed his concern at DUT, that violence had become second nature. Another article by Fengu (2018) reported that many South African Universities and colleges had no policies to deal specifically with sexual and gender-based violence. Tilley and Dey (2018) reported that crime statistics showed an increase in sexual offences and gender-based violence in South Africa. Mtshali (2019) in an open letter stated that universities must get serious about security. The greatest motivator was the report by Daniels (2019) on allegations of ten sexual offences reported in the first four months of 2019 at the Nelson Mandela University and not one had been properly investigated by 05 April 2019.

1.4 AIM:

The main aim of this study is to address sexual harassment among students at Yasethekwin University.

1.5 THE STUDY OBJECTIVES:

The objectives of the study are:

- a) To explore students' understanding and perceptions of sexual harassment at Yasethekwin University.
- b) To assess the nature, causes and consequences of sexual harassment at the university.
- c) To explore ways to reduce sexual harassment on campus.
- d) To use participatory action research to plan and implement a programme aimed at creating a safe positive environment.
- e) To evaluate the short-term outcome of the programme.

1.6 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

- a) What do students at the selected University perceive to be sexual harassment and GBV?
- b) What are the nature, causes and consequences of sexual harassment at Yasethekwin University?
- c) What are some of the ways to reduce sexual harassment at Yasethekwin University?

- d) How can a participatory action research programme be used to prevent and reduce the prevalence of sexual harassment at Yasethekwin University?

1.7 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS

A definition of key concepts that appears in the research study is presented below:

1.7.1 GENDER

According to Thompson (2011), gender refers to socially constructed differences between men and women. Bell, Turchik and Karpenko (2014) added that gender being a social construct had various masculine and feminine behaviour, roles and activities associated with it that defined what is 'male' and 'female' Renzetti, et al. (2012) further asserted that it is through social interaction that a set of beliefs are created, reproduced and become important components of our personalities.

1.7.2 GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

The universal human rights framework on which the South African Constitution (Act No 108 of 1996) is based, regards gender-based violence (GBV) as one of the serious crimes that violates the right to life, equality, human dignity, freedom and security of the person. The right to human dignity, in particular, is violated in all cases of GBV.

In the Policy Framework to address gender-based violence in the Post School Education and Training System (2020), by the Department of Basic Education, the term gender-based violence emanated to recognise the manifestation of violence that shapes gender. The Policy Framework (2020) suggested that when this violence is targeted at someone on the basis of their sexual orientation and or gender identity, then this may be defined by law as a hate crime. According to Mashiri (2013), gender-based violence encompasses a wide range of abuses that range from sexual threats, exploitation, humiliation, assaults, molestation, domestic violence, incest, involuntary prostitution, torture, insertion of objects into genital openings to attempted rape. Mashiri (2013) further added that female genital mutilation and other harmful traditional practices, including early marriage, which substantially increases maternal morbidity and mortality, are also forms of gender-based violence against women that cannot be overlooked nor justified on the grounds of tradition, culture or social conformity.

1.7.3 SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Sexual harassment may be defined in many ways. The definition promulgated by Skoog, et al. (2019), is extensive and defined sexual harassment as improper behaviour that has a sexual dimension or unwanted sexual attention. This definition includes a range of verbal, physical and visual direct or indirect behaviour. Snyman-Van Deventer and De Bruin (2002) stated that sexual harassment in South African law was seen as an *animus iniuriandi* (the consciousness of wrongfulness), an infringement of a person's personality and a form of unfair discrimination.

1.7.4 QUID PRO QUO

Editorial Staff Teecycle (2021) on their website defined quid pro quo as a Latin term meaning "this for that". The Editorial Staff Teecycle (2021) added that quid pro quo sexual harassment in its most basic definition would be "if you provide sexual favours, I will provide you a benefit". As mentioned, sexual harassment comes in many forms to exert power over another person and quid pro quo sexual harassment is common.

On the Stop Violence against Women (2019) website, it was stated that quid pro quo occurs when:

- 1) Job benefits, including employment, promotion, salary increases, shift or work assignments, performance expectations and other conditions of employment, are made contingent on the provision of sexual favours, usually to an employer, supervisor or agent of the employer who has the authority to make decisions about employment actions. Or,
- 2) The rejection of a sexual advance or request for sexual favours results in a tangible detriment, or a loss of benefit as described above.

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

1.7.5 PATRIARCHY

Swartz, et al. (2018) saw patriarchy as a social system that perpetuated male dominance and advantage in every sphere of life and they believed that patriarchy has a real and deeply operational influence on campus life. According to Napikoski (2020), a patriarchal society

consisted of a male-dominated power structure through organised society and individual relationships.

1.8 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A summary of the research design and methodology is provided below:

1.8.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

Thomas (2017) and De Vos, et al. (2019) defined a research design, as a blueprint or plan of a study. Dastile (2004) added that this includes the: who, what, where, when and how of the subject matter. The researcher of this study used a qualitative approach to examine sexual harassment and gender-based violence in its natural setting on campus without any manipulations, to attain data rich in terms of the meaning that the subjects bring to them.

Hammarberg, Kirkman and De Lacy (2016) indicated that qualitative research study methods are used to answer questions about experience, meaning and perspective, most often from the standpoint of the participant. This type of data, they added, does not lend itself to counting or measuring. Qualitative research techniques, according to Hammarberg, Kirkman and De Lacy (2016), included small-group discussions for investigating beliefs, attitudes and concepts of normative behaviour; semi-structured interviews that seek views on a focussed topic; in-depth interviews to understand a condition, experience, or event from a personal perspective; and analysis of texts and documents.

Recent studies by Oni, Tshitangano and Akinsola (2019) in South Africa also suggested that quantitative study is more suited to sexual harassment and victimisation of students in higher institutions in South Africa. The research sought to find understanding and meaning in the shared experiences of the sample. The focus will be on the interpretation and negotiation of meaning that the subjects bring to their social world.

1.8.2 SAMPLING

The study adopted the non-probability purposive sampling method. Davies and Hughes (2014) postulated that purposive sampling allows the researcher to choose individuals who are deemed typical of the population. Patton (2002) added that the benefit of purposive sampling is that the patterns that emerge are of interest and value in capturing the core experiences and shared issues of the setting. The selection of a purposive sample is often accomplished by

applying expert knowledge of the population to select in a non-random manner a sample of elements that contain the most characteristics and typical attributes and represents a cross-section of the population. This sampling method enabled the choice of subjects that contain the characteristics, and representation of the population who would most likely have an informed opinion on the topic either having experienced and/or been exposed to sexual harassment in one form or another to provide rich data.

Purposive sampling enabled the generation of rich data from a small sample and provided a detailed analysis of their understating of sexual harassment on the chosen university campus.

Twenty undergraduate students of Yasethekwin University in KwaZulu Natal participated in the study. The sample consisted of twelve females, two bisexual, one queer and five male participants, between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five. The group was diverse in terms of culture, language, ethnicity, race and socio-economic status. All together 20 students formed the participants in this study.

1.8.3 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

The study utilised intensive individual interviews and focus group discussions for data generation. One-to-one interviews were conducted with all participants, so as to ascertain personal experiences and opinions on the sensitive study topic of sexual harassment and GBV. Open-ended, semi-structured questions in approximately 45 minutes per interview session per participant was used. All interviews were transcribed. According to Dastile (2004), an advantage of interviews is the face-to-face interaction between the interviewer and interviewees can prevent misunderstandings or confusion the research participants may have in interpreting the questions. Probing is also possible in order to get research participants to answer in more detail and with greater accuracy. Semi-structured interviews also make it possible to observe the overt and covert body language in the responses of the participants. This was extremely useful in allowing a complex interpretation of the perspective on sexual harassment and how this relates to the research context.

There were three focus groups, one with five female participants, one with four male and one queer participant and one with one queer, one bisexual, one male and two female participants. All focus groups were of approximately a 45-minute duration. The same interview schedule was used in all focus groups. The focus groups were less structured than the interview, and the aim

was to glean rich data on perceptions of sexual harassment and GBV from the group interaction and discussion. The focus group participants were able to build on each other's ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view and thus add value to the study.

1.8.4 PROCESS OF DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis in the study was ongoing from the beginning of data generation and commenced from the first interview. De Vos, et al. (2005) maintained that the qualitative researcher must make sense of the data collected by bringing order, structure and meaning to gain insight and understanding. Neuman (2006) believed that this was done by categorising data based on themes, concepts or similar features. He also added that the qualitative researcher may develop new concepts, formulate conceptual decisions and examine relationships among concepts.

The researcher used the interpretive thematic analysis process of recognising, examining, identifying similarities and differences and finding themes within the data. Construct mapping was used to map themes in sequential order. Transcripts verbatim from interviews and focus groups enabled a clearer and greater understanding of data. The transcripts were repeatedly read, and recordings were listened to frequently, for the researcher to become familiar with the gathered data. The researcher then, transcribed, classified and interpreted the data gathered. This, therefore, led to the identification of loose patterns and recurring themes across individuals and focus groups. The researcher concentrated on the whole data then took them apart to make comparisons and contrasts between patterns and threads. Definition of codes and themes took place, to refine and arrange into a logical and consistent manner.

The themes were structured around the following broad bands.

1. Understanding and perceptions of sexual harassment on campus: *WHAT and WHO of sexual harassment?*
2. Nature, causes and consequences of sexual harassment at the Yasethekwin University: *WHY of sexual harassment?*
3. Ways to reduce sexual harassment on campus. *How to reduce?*
4. Restorative justice and participatory action research to plan and implement a programme aimed at creating a safe positive environment: *PAR!*
5. Short-term outcome of the programme: *Support!*

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS:

It is paramount to observe ethics when conducting research. The study only commenced after obtaining clearance from the ethics committee of the Yasethekwin University. The ethical principles that guided the study included: informed consent, no deception, voluntary participation, no harm to participants, no violation of privacy, respect, confidentiality and anonymity will always be observed. All participants were allowed to influence the work, and the wishes of those who did not want to participate were respected. The whole process of the study was explained in clear, concise unambiguous, simple language. Pseudonyms were given to each participant to protect their identity, gender and place from where the participants come.

1.10 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

CHAPTER 1 presents an overview of the study. It includes the context, research aim and objectives of the study, the significance of the study, an overview of the research design and methodology and limitations, assumptions and scope.

CHAPTER 2 reviews international and national literature and studies of sexual harassment. The chapter further presents and explores the theoretical and conceptual framework that will inform this study.

CHAPTER 3 reviews relevant literature and empirical studies on the nature, causes, extent and consequences of sexual harassment at universities. Different approaches to dealing with sexual harassment at universities will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 4 details and justifies the research approach and paradigm. The research design is explained. Sampling procedures, measuring instruments, data analysis, delimitations and limitations, validity and reliability of data collected, and ethical considerations are included.

CHAPTER 5 presents, discusses and analyses the data into various themes and sub-themes using thematic analysis. Direct quotations from the interviews with participants are presented and analysed.

CHAPTER 6 outlines the development and implementation of the action plan to eradicate sexual harassment.

CHAPTER 7 draws conclusions and makes recommendations

1.10 CONCLUSION

The intention of this chapter was to present a general overview of the study. The context of the study was explored. The statement of the problem and the motivation behind the study were examined. The site of the study was also described. This chapter focused on important concepts of the study which would be highlighted and expanded on in the subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a review of the literature and theoretical models used in the conceptualisation of the existence of sexual harassment and gender-based violence and approaches to tackling gender-based violence from both victim and perpetrator perspectives.

There is a need for interventions of sexual harassment and gender-based violence to be comprehensive and community-based, so as to deal with the multi-levels of risk influences. There is no single cause of sexual harassment nor is there a single theoretical framework that best explains sexual harassment and gender-based violence. Gender scholars have argued that there is a lack of generally agreed upon operational definitions of sexual harassment. With this in mind, I studied and reviewed a few widely accepted theories or models that attempt to explain sexual harassment from different angles and perspectives and decided that Lorber's Theory on the Construction of Gender and Masculinity Theory would best inform this particular study.

2.2 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM

The social construction of the gender approach as developed by Lorber (1994, 2000) was largely based on the work of West and Zimmerman (1987). Lorber (1994, 2000), maintained that gender was created and recreated out of human interaction, out of communal life and was the texture of social life. Yet gender, Lorber (1994, 2000) added, was like culture; a human production that depends on everyone 'doing gender' constantly. Gender, Lorber (1994, 2000) stated, was a familiar part of daily life and that it was only a major disruption of our expectations that makes us notice how it is produced. Lorber (1994) proposed that gender construction starts with the assigning of a sex category on the basis of what the genitalia looks like at birth. Thereafter babies are dressed to display the category assigned to them. Both Bourdieu (1977) and Lorber (1994; 2000) are in consensus that the gender status assigned by parents and then society at large is 'female' or 'male'.

A sex category then becomes a gender status through naming, dress, and other gender markers. Further to this Lorber (1994) posited that once the child's gender is evident, society at large treats those in one gender differently from those in another gender. Children respond to the differential treatment and behave accordingly. According to Lorber (1994) sex, does not

become an issue until puberty. However, by then sexual feelings, desires and practices have been gendered according to society's norms and expectations. Parenting is, therefore, gendered. Babies therefore learn through socialisation. Parents, reinforce gendered stereotypical parenting styles. Becoming a male or female is therefore a social process that is learned through culture. Gender is therefore socially constructed rather than genetically determined. This acknowledged that people perform gender in compliance with social norms. This is evident in societies that regard certain tasks as masculine and or feminine. Everyday activities then reinforce the gendered nature of people's lives. Gender is then something that is done, and not something that just exists.

The theory is based on gendered norms forming the basis of the stratification system that positions men and women unevenly and men are above women even if race and class are the same. Lorber (1994) added that gendering is done from birth, and continuously thereafter by every member of society. Parents, Lorber (1994) suggested have different expectations for their children and therefore parenting is gendered. This reinforces gender norms on how to be a man or a woman.

As a result, men and women may act in particular ways that they think are crucial to their gender despite the consequences. Gender signs and signals are prevalent everywhere that we usually fail to notice them unless they are missing or unclear. Then we are uncomfortable until we have successfully placed the other person in a gender status, or we feel socially dislocated. In society today, in addition to man and woman, the status can be *transvestite* (a person who dresses in opposite-gender clothes) and *transsexual* (a person who has had sex-change surgery). Transvestites and transsexuals carefully construct their gender status by dressing, speaking, walking, and gesturing in the ways prescribed for women or men. Lorber (2000) argued that most of those who cross gender boundaries, either by passing as the opposite gender or via a sex-change operation, want to be "normal" men or women.

Social constructionism focused mainly on explaining and clarifying the ways in which people come to describe, explain and make sense of the world in which they live (Gergen and Davis, 2012). It also tries to make common forms of understanding relevant as they exist in the present, as well as the way they have existed in past historical eras and might still exist in the future. Lorber (1994, 2000) believed that gender was a process of creating distinguishable social statuses for the assignment of rights and responsibilities. Therefore, gender is a major building

block in the social structures built on unequal statuses. She added that gender creates the social differences that define what it is to be a 'woman' and a 'man'. During social interaction, an individual learns what is expected, sees what is expected, acts and reacts in an expected way and in so doing constructs and maintains the gender order.

Lorber (1994, 2000) was emphatic when she stated that human beings produce gender and behave in the way that they learned to be appropriate for their gender status and rarely resist or rebel against these norms. She insisted that when resistance and rebellion occur it does not erode the status quo. As part of the stratification system, Lorber (1994, 2000) suggested that gender ranks men above women of the same race and class. She continued that society then views one gender (male) as the touchstone, the normal, dominant one and the other (woman) as different, deviant and subordinate.

Delphy (1993) argued that if men are defined within a gender framework, they are regarded as dominants with characteristics that enable them to remain dominants. Delphy (1993) added that to be dominant one must have someone to dominate. Lorber (1994) believed that the dominant social groups or institutions reinforce the idea that women need to be compliant and protect themselves as opposed to men. In this stratification what men do, is therefore valued more than women, even when their activities are similar or even the same. Lorber (1994) cited Mencher (1988) in that when a task is done by a woman it is considered easy and when it was done by a man it is considered difficult. Palmer (1989) also cited by Lorber (1994) stated that in a hunter-gatherer society foraging for nuts, grubs and small animals was necessary for survival, but it was a man's successful hunt that was deemed a cause for celebration.

From a theoretical perspective, social constructionism has traditionally been related to and connected to the sociology of knowledge. In essence, it believes that cultural knowledge and representations of reality are interactionally constructed, socially transmitted, historically entrenched and frequently institutionally solidified, and finally communicatively reproduced on-site (Gunnarsson, Linell and Nordberg, 2014). The binary divisions of gender are deeply rooted in every aspect of social life. The social constructionist framework further argued that race and class are significant stimulations in the construction of multiple masculinities and femininities which are not equal, hence gender inequalities are displayed (Paechter, 2003). In 2000, Lorber indicated that women's status has improved but men and women are still not equal. She argued that the reason is that gender divisions still deeply bifurcate the structure of modern society.

Lorber (2000) added that whilst feminists want men and women to be equal, very few if any want to do away with gender divisions altogether. She was vehement when she added that it was from a gender constructionist structural perspective that leads to a ubiquitous division of people into two unequally valued categories that underpins gender inequality.

Gender as a social construction has huge implications for the organisation of social power. Masculine dominance is communicated through sexuality. The way to be manly and to have more social power is to be dominating and physically oppressive. Cortina (2002) and Kabaya (2016) concurred that violence emanated from social constructions of gender and power, Peer sexual harassment then becomes a tool that constructs and sustains the gender hierarchy. Bourdieu (2002) highlighted that gender construction and social power made it possible to analyse power dynamics that make gendered violence such as sexual harassment effective. Gendered roles have changed over recent times, with fathers and male members of society taking care of little children, clothing styles have also evolved to unisex lines, educational and job opportunities are also unisexual. So, for some societies, gender stratification is blurring and with this comes even more identity confusion.

According to Lorber (2000), gender encompassed the social construction of masculinities and femininities and the structural power imbalances of modern society. Lorber (1994, 2000) stated that sexuality is socially constructed and gendered. She opinionated that the sexual source of oppression is a symptom of the gendered social order. Lorber (1994, 2000), Sanday (1990) and Scheff (1990) all agreed that sexual violence was gendered since they are moulded by masculine and feminine norms. The separation of boys from their mothers and the identification with their father, Lorber (2000) believed, leads to them entering into the dominant world repressing their emotional longings. She further maintained that the continued identification of girls with their mothers reproduced the gendered family structure.

Lorber (2000) agreed with Collins (1990) that all men have a patriarchal dividend of privilege and entitlement. According to Kabaya (2016) and Jewkes, et al. (2015) the abuse of power and power disparities are drivers of sexual harassment. They concurred that men perpetrate rape as a declaration of their authority over and control of women. Furthermore, they added that aggression becomes a vehicle for communicating their power. Fineran and Bennet (1999) showed that peer sexual harassment was an instrument that produces and upholds gender stratification.

According to Wood (2009), stereotyping women as sex objects contributed to sexual harassment. Wood (2009) further reported that female students in a study on sexual harassment and discrimination revealed that male students constantly taunt them, make lecherous suggestions and touch them without invitation, whilst academics at higher learning institutions treat the female students in gender-stereotyped ways from compliments to offering grades for sexual favours. Renzetti, et al. (2012) agreed with Barker and Ricardo (2005) that sexual behaviour can be due to gender roles and norms. Maphosa (2018) in a study among Zimbabwean youth revealed that social and cultural norms associated with gender, perpetuate violent attitudes and behaviour. 97% of the boys in the study believed that “a man should always be respected by his wife and children”.

It is hoped that Bems' (1993) vision of utopia, in which gender polarisation can be dismantled and that the distinction between male and female no longer organises both culture and the psyche. This theory will be helpful in analysing and interpreting the gendered perceptions and behaviour of participants in this study. The social constructionism theory may account for the paradoxical inequalities that exist. It is an important theory in understanding the underlying reasons for behavioural patterns such as sexual harassment, which would allow for better preventative intervention. In addition, socially constructed preferences occur in real-life scenarios, like university campuses, and choices tend to occur within social life and in interdependence. It will also be a useful lens in the study at the particular university, as an understanding of the construction of gender is key to understanding gender-based violence and sexual harassment. Interventions should not be confined to isolated individuals but should promote collective and coordinated change.

2.3 THEORIES OF MASCULINITY

The definition of masculinity has attracted much debate. The Australian sociologist Raewyn Connell's theory on masculinity is one of the influential theories in the study of men and masculinities. Connell (1987, 1994) referred to masculinity as various ways of 'doing male' or a practice to engage in gender. According to Messerschmidt (2018), masculinity is not a fixed entity but the configuration of practice that occurred in social action, and thus can differ according to gender relations in particular settings. Messerschmidt (2018) continued that masculinity was defined as a configuration of actions organised in relation to the structure of gender relations. Messerschmidt (2018) substantiated this claim by maintaining that human

social practices create gender relations. Masculinities, Messerschmidt (2018) added, were constructed, unfolded and changed over time.

Connell (1987, 1994); Warren (2001) and Connell and Messerschmidt (2005), argued that there are multiple masculinities in society. They added that masculinities are fluid and dynamic and may be seen as positions that are occupied situationally, and that values upheld in one context may differ in another context. Barker, et al. (2007) elucidated on this adding that masculinity referred to the multiple ways that manhood was socially defined. Further adding that masculinity and gender are socially constructed and vary across historical and local contexts and interact with other factors such as poverty and globalisation. Connell (2005) suggested that there are four categories of masculinity: dominant; submissive; complicit and oppositional. The idea was that men are supposed to act in a specific way according to each definition and those that diverged from the definition are seen as less masculine than the other. Common to the above, is the notion that the ideal man is physically strong, with a large penis; he protects and defends the honour of his family and friends; he defends and sticks to strong opinions; he takes part in masculine activities such as sports and drinking; he is sexually virulent and is successful in all that he attempts.

The above definitions of masculinity resonate with the previous two theories of social constructionism and patriarchy.

2.3.1 HEGEMONIC MASCULINITY

October (2020) stated that although there are many different kinds of masculinities, there is a form of hegemonic masculinity which is the dominant form of masculinity in society. October (2020) added that this hegemonic masculinity dominates society and marginalises other masculinities. Hegemonic masculinity, according to Connell (1987; 1995), was a historical and social-wide social setting that legitimises unequal gender relations between men and women, between masculinity and femininity, and among masculinities. Messerschmidt (2018) argued that hegemonic masculinity does not occur in a vacuum but was situationally influenced by and reproduced by the gendered relational social structures in particular settings. Connell (1987; 1995); Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) and Messerschmidt (2018) in a similar vein added that hegemonic masculinities are configurations of social practice and are culturally significant as they shape what is acceptable and unacceptable gendered behaviour in specific situations. Connell (1995) saw gender relations as structured through power inequalities.

Connell and Messerschmidt (2005), viewed hegemonic masculinity as normative, as did Haider (2016) and Kirby (2019) and believed that it embodied the way of being a man and legitimises the global subordination of women by men. They found that whilst hegemonic masculinity was not underlined by violence it could be supported by force and means of ascendancy over women through culture, institution and persuasion. Martino (cited in Connell and Messerschmitt, 2005), used the concept of hegemonic masculinity to understand the patterns of resistance and bullying among boys. October (2020) stated that hegemonic masculinity leads to misogyny, homophobia, racism, compulsory heterosexuality, and sexism. Hong (cited by October, 2020) revealed that hegemonic masculinity is reinforced by societal institutions such as political power, mass media and corporate culture. Rivers and Duncan (2013); Kabaya (2016); Gavidia (2019) and Heilman and Barker (2018) concurred that a strong link existed between sexual harassment and conforming to masculine peer norms. Heilman and Barker (2018) added that male identity and masculine norms are undeniably linked to violence.

Morrel, et al. (2013) stated that hegemonic masculinity was initially adopted to explain and analyse the gender relationships under colonialism, apartheid and post-apartheid to explain the elevated levels of violence in South Africa. According to Morrel, et al. (2013) by using hegemonic masculinity the understanding of gender inequality has been broadened. Hamlall (2013) found hegemonic and counter-hegemonic masculinity in a study on conflict among high school boys in South Africa. In this study, Hamlall (2013) revealed that boys who resisted violence had a set of masculine values independent from the school's peer hegemony, which stresses dominance, competition and violence. More importantly, this study revealed that identities did not always conform to hegemonic versions of masculinity and offered an alternative (autonomous) version in the configuration of masculinity.

In a study by Carlsson (2019), male students looked upon themselves as superior to female students and hegemonic masculinity was the theoretical framework used to explain this finding. Swartz, et al. (2018) proposed that males exploit gender by abusing their power as educators, tutors or lecturers so as to manipulate less powerful female students for sexual favours. Obiozor and Osuala (2018) revealed similar findings in Zimbabwe, Ghana and Nigeria. Power differentials were found to exist between the male and female students. Female students in the study by Swartz, et al. (2018), indicated that they found it difficult to fight back or empower themselves because biases about females' gender roles are cemented and perpetuated in society.

Jewkes, et al. (2015) suggested that to enable change, it was imperative to examine the social construction of hegemonic masculinity. This study supports the view that if masculinity is a result of social processes as opposed to nature, then it can be changed. Interventions can show how the behaviour is transgressed and reveal new possibilities with positive outcomes. Central is whether it is possible to deconstruct gender. Jewkes, et al. (2015) were of the view that the concept of hegemonic masculinity is predicated on the subordination of women. It is women themselves who are needed to create an environment to enable and sustain change. Jewkes, et al. (2015) revealed that gender interventions in South Africa that addressed the insecurity of women and their gendered subordination have enabled women to protect themselves from intimate partner violence two years after the intervention. In Sweden, a study by Lundqvist, et al. (cited in Jewkes, et al., 2015) entitled Macho Factory was developed to challenge and change masculinity norms when working with violence prevention.

According to Connell and Messerschmidt (2005), only a minority of men might enact hegemonic masculinity. They believed that it embodies ways of being a man. Patterns of aggression, accordingly, were associated with hegemonic masculinity.

2.3.2 MASculinity AND VIOLENCE

Maphosa (2018) suggested that masculinity is associated with access to status, power and perceptions of privilege and violence. According to Messerschmidt (2018) power is an important feature of sex, gender and sexual relations. A study by Maphosa (2018) found that 60% of the boys held the view that they should be the head of the household; those men should be in charge of relationships and should use aggression to maintain the status quo. Most of the boys believed that women were to blame for gender-based violence. Hunt and Gonsalkorale (2013) revealed in studies in Italy that a threat to male supremacy may result in sexual harassment. October (2020) posited that among youth in South Africa there was a prevalent need for young men to control women in intimate relationships as this was considered essential in affirming their masculinity.

Barker and Ricardo (2005) stated that for young men in sub-Saharan Africa, sexual experience was associated with initiation and attaining socially recognisable manhood. Kabaya (2016) revealed that women sometimes construed violence as a sign that a male partner was passionately devoted. Leach (2000) revealed in a study in South Africa among 30 000 young people, that one in every four young men stated that they had coerced a girl to have sexual

intercourse. Pettifor, et al. (2004), in another study in South Africa revealed that 98% of men in the study initiated their sexual encounters. According to Barker and Ricardo (2005), such aggressive masculinity revealed that women were forced to engage in sex, have no power and were not in a position to negotiate a non-sexual relationship.

Heilman, et al. (2017) found in a study across three countries, that when young men were compared to those who had harassed to those who had not harassed, the strongest factor was their attitudes about what it meant to be a man. These were measured using a Man Box scale of 17 attitude statements, including: "Guys should act strong even when they feel scared or nervous inside." and "A real man would never say no to sex." The study revealed that young men who believed in these toxic ideas of manhood most strongly were the most likely to have perpetrated sexual harassment. Heilman, et al. (2017) posited that the drivers of young men's harassment, more than any other factor surveyed was, how much they believed in, or have internalized toxic ideas about masculinity. Haider (2016) argued that masculinity was constituted through violence in patriarchal cultures, and stated that if violence was constitutive of masculinity, then violence became the vehicle to assert masculinity, and turned toxic. Haider (2016) added that within patriarchy the female was observed as an object of weakness to assert masculine power and authority and subjugated into gendered norms resulting in private violence such as domestic violence, and public violence. Violence and gender, Haider (2016) added, are intimately connected.

While it is important that research draws attention to the oppressive ways in which masculinities are constructed, it also needs to be attentive to the ways, contexts and times in which men inhabit alternative (not necessarily subordinate) masculinities. For much of this century there has been a gradually increasing awareness of the possibility of change in gender (Connell, 2020). The popular commentators on masculinity such as Morrell (2020), and Ruiz-Eugenio et al. (2021) have made substantial contributions to the new generation of social research on masculinities and change in masculinities. Although this study is not about gender politics per se it is important and useful to have some conception of where the politics is heading and what impact it is having on male behaviour.

In the last 20 years a new 'male role', began to emerge. It is not hard to show that there is some connection between gender and violence and that men in general gain the patriarchal dividend; however, not all men are corporate executives or mass killers. According to Connell (2020)

specific groups of men gain very little from it. For instance, working class youth, economically dispossessed by structural unemployment, may have no economic advantage over the women in their communities. Other groups of men pay part of the price, alongside women, for the maintenance of an unequal gender order. Gay men are systematically made targets of prejudice and violence. Effeminate and wimpish men are constantly put down. Black men in the in South Africa suffer massively higher levels of lethal violence than white men. Morrell (2020) argue that men have a vested interest in gender change because they, along with women, also suffer the consequences of the present gender order.

2.3.3 MASCULINITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

In South Africa, Morrel (1998) found that gender transformation was linked to Apartheid, with segregated and competing patriarchy. Hearn (cited by Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005) introduced power and domination as strong factors that affect masculinity. Swartz, et al. (2018) in a longitudinal study on eight universities in South Africa found that the participants understood gender differences through a lens of patriarchy. The participants saw patriarchy as a social system that perpetuated male dominance and advantage in every sphere of life both on campus and in society at large. Participants in the study believed that patriarchy was manifested not only in leadership choices but also in the attitudes of who should lead. The study revealed that males were given preferential treatment over women and attitudes towards female university leaders were improper. According to most participants in the Swartz, et al. (2018) study, patriarchal practices are learned through culture and perpetuated through socialisation processes. The home is the biggest incubator of patriarchy. The students revealed that the power to make career choices and general decisions are limited in comparison to their male counterparts. The students further added that it is not fair to choose between safety and their academic performance. Bathabile Dlamini (2019) the ANC Woman's League President stated that patriarchal consciousness dominates the means of production, and male domination is only advanced. Suttner (2019) agreed with this in his report and added that the scourge of violence in South Africa, especially violence against women and children is due to patriarchy and violent masculinities.

Most masculinities, according to Morrell, et al. (2013) are bound by their domination over women. Hegemonic masculinity is one of the major reasons for gender-based violence. October

(2020) believed that assault and rape are regular features in South African township life, adding that this was due to unequal power differentials, between men and women. She further added that the link between toxic masculinity and rape was caused by the male need for power, control, dominance and punishing women for emasculating them.

In light of the above contentions, gender is constructed more by people than by biology. Gender construction is shaped by historical, cultural and psychological factors. Also, from the above theories, the researcher can highlight that masculinity is not fixed, coherent or static. No person is simply exclusively male or female. Not all men or women are the same. Masculinity and femininity should not be seen as polar ends of a spectrum. It is necessary for gender identity to be formed in the dialogue between men and women. October (2020) opined that too often the focus of intervention programmes has been on women and how they can protect themselves from violence and then take control of their sexual lives. According to October (2020) and Morrel, et al. (2013) that since men dictate the timing of sex and movements of women, interventions need to involve men and boys so as to end gender-based violence and change attitudes and behaviours. Interventions that include victims and perpetrators could significantly decrease incidents of violence, sexual harassment and gender-based violence. Heilman and Barker (2018) believed that men must be included in the conversation on gender equality to counter violence against women.

Kabelo Chabalala in 2015 launched the Young Men Movement in Pretoria South Africa. The Movement runs projects across Pretoria in an attempt to educate men against violence toward women. Chabalala (2015) believed that there was a crisis of masculinity at present due to societal norms around sexuality that demand conflicting behaviours from men. Wikström (2019) suggested that to keep the dignity of all people intact we need social change. She posited that to change society we need to work with both victims of harassment and intrusion as well as those who harass and intrude. According to Wikström (2019), we need to fight toxic masculinity, by teaching men to process and express their emotions, so that they will be less likely to resort to harassment as a coping mechanism.

2.4 CONCEPTUALISING PEACE

The Kroc Institute of Peace Studies (2020) defined Peace Studies as an interdisciplinary academic field that draws on political science, sociology, history, anthropology, theology, psychology, philosophy, and other fields to:

- understand the causes of armed conflict,
- develop ways to prevent and resolve war, genocide, terrorism, gross violations of human rights, and
- build peaceful and just systems and societies.

According to Kaye (2017), in the peace building context, the goal is to promote transformation and change and to generate solutions that will cease hostility and conflict and lead to harmony and peace.

The University for Peace (UPEACE) has established itself as a leading institution in building capacity for peace in Africa, through its Africa Programme based in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Over the last ten years, UPEACE has organised short courses, developed MA Programmes with partner universities across the continent and has supported doctoral research through awards and fellowships to African PhD students registered with universities in sub-Saharan Africa and specialising in the areas of peace, conflict, governance, security and development.

2.4.1 PEACEBUILDING APPROACHES

According to Andales-Escano (2015), peace building was a never-ending effort to create a peaceful environment that challenged people and sectors at all levels. It is often context-bound and can vary among people. Different people pursued different practices and approaches to peace building as revealed in various works of literature that frequently do not agree on the path to follow which produces further confusion. Despite the experiences in using different models and approaches, it still has major gaps.

Alternatives to Violence Project (AVP) is an organization in South Africa since 1995 and is active in Gauteng, Eastern and Western Cape, as well as KwaZulu Natal. AVP workshops change mindsets dramatically. Participants, especially those from violent communities, frequently talk of never realizing that alternatives to violence exist. The programme's workshops create community and trust through sharing stories of physical or emotional violence. In a workshop, you may find rival gangsters who have occupied the same cells for years sharing stories of growing up in homes with domestic violence, or broken family relationships that have never been spoken out aloud, let alone to each other (Saferpaces, 2020)

Gender Equity and Reconciliation (GER) is a similar but more intense process that brings ordinary people together in a carefully facilitated space to reflect on their gender conditioning and share stories within and across gender groups. In so doing, it tackles the very roots of patriarchy. They transform perceptions of 'otherness' and build empathy as people speak about and hear each other's pain, fears, and hopes. They help people develop a capacity for emotional awareness that extends into their lives, initiating a healing process that is vital to stopping violent or discriminatory behaviour.

Zulani, Porter and Christians (2019) reporters with the Mail and Guardian suggested that a series of Alternatives to Violence Project and Gender Equity and Reconciliation workshops and other such approaches should be rolled out across the country in local communities, police and law enforcement, businesses and corporates, tertiary education institutions, and prisons, together with impact evaluations.

Intervention with Microfinance for Aids and Gender Equity (IMAGE) is a joint initiative between Johannesburg's University of the Witwatersrand, the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, and a microfinance provider called the Small Enterprise Foundation, the project targets disadvantaged women and their households. IMAGE emphasised the importance of the environment in which sexual behaviours, gender-based violence and HIV infections are occurring. Women participating in the programme registered half the level of sexual violence than a control group of women from villages not involved. The research showed evidence of changes in women's empowerment --greater self-confidence, more influence over household decisions, and the challenges of traditional gender norms. IMAGE is primarily concerned with preventing gender violence through empowering women, but it stretches beyond the individual to whole communities. Individual women participate directly in IMAGE through involvement in income-generating activities, loan centre meetings, and the Sisters for Life training sessions conducted during fortnightly meetings. Households participate in IMAGE since economic activities almost always involve household members beyond the loan recipient. Furthermore, individuals in the household might experience the effects of the training indirectly through communication, role modelling or mentorship. Communities are the central unit in which the intervention operates (Knight, et al. 2020)

2.4.2 RESTORATIVE JUSTICE

Restorative justice, according to van Ness (2019) from the Centre for Justice and Reconciliation is a theory of justice that emphasizes repairing the harm caused by criminal behaviour. He believed that it was best accomplished through cooperative processes that allow all willing stakeholders to meet, although other approaches are available when this is impossible. He added that this can lead to the transformation of people, relationships and communities. Restorative justice relies on reconciliation rather than punishment. The theory premise was that a well-functioning society operated with a balance of rights and responsibilities. When an incident occurs that upsets that balance, methods must be found to restore the balance, so that members of the community, the victim and the offender can come to terms with the incident and carry on with their lives. (Western Cape Department of Social Development, 2019).

In essence, McCold and Wachtel (2003), suggested that restorative justice is a new way of looking at criminal justice that focuses on repairing the harm done to people and relationships rather than on punishing offenders. Others including, Koss, Wilgus and Williamsen (2014), Koss and Achilles (2008) concurred with the above view, in that harm has been done and someone is responsible for repairing it. They alleged the harm had ripple effects on:

- Family and friends of victims who suffer distress over the incident and also by their inability to protect the victim;
- Family and friends of responsible persons who may experience shame, anger, and other emotions from being part of a context that includes a person responsible for sexual misconduct, and
- Community members who experience less safety and social connection when they perceive high levels of offence.

Van Ness (2019) believed that with restorative justice, crime was seen as more than breaking the law – it also causes harm to people, relationships, and the community. So, a just response must address those harms as well as the wrongdoing.

Howard (2018) stated that restorative justice is based on respect, compassion, and inclusivity, and provides an opportunity for all affected parties to heal and move forward in their relationships. Universities and colleges, according to Howard (2018), were ideal settings for restorative justice. In such small communities, the impact of interpersonal harms like sexual

harassment or violence almost inevitably extended beyond the respondent-complainant relationship. For example, sexual harassment in a student residence can create a climate of fear or uncertainty in the entire residence. Other approaches were available if they were unable or unwilling to meet. Sometimes those meetings led to transformational changes in their lives. Cooperative engagement was a critical element of restorative justice.

Keenan and Zinsstag (2014) believed that restorative justice, may prove to be a much more efficient avenue for redress and achieving justice for sexual offences. Keenan and Zinsstag (2014) suggested that mediation and dialogue are the common restorative justice programmes that were successful with sexual violence. It helped the affected parties achieve a new perception of their relations and the harm caused. Keenan and Zinsstag (2014) were emphatic when they indicated that by its specific characteristics and nature of sexual violence on its victims, mediation has been seen as a safe environment that resulted in feelings of empowerment and autonomy. MacDougal (cited in Keenan and Zinsstag, 2014) opined that stranger-rapes were characterised by a greater degree of violence and aggression than other types of sexual abuse and in these cases, risk assessment of the offender and careful preparation of the victim are crucial so as to avoid further abuse. Keenan and Zinsstag (2014) further maintained that distortions of power in all sexual violence cases were addressed when restorative justice programmes aligned closely with restorative values and principles.

One well-known example of restorative justice in a university context took place in 2015 at the Faculty of Dentistry in Dalhousie University. Llewellyn, Macisaac and Mackay (2015) compiled a report on the incident. Male students in the dentistry programme made sexually violent comments on Facebook about their female classmates. In the face of great resistance from fellow students and other stakeholders, the female students opted for a restorative justice process to address the behaviour, rather than simply expelling the students. The process involved a robust and formal investigation in addition to circle conferencing. The process examined the Facebook incident and the broader cultural and social context that contributed to it. During circles, the female students shared the impact the Facebook comments had on them with the male students and other community members. For their part, the male students accepted responsibility for their actions, listened, learned from the women, and presented their own findings to the faculty. In the end, participants arrived at a plan to ensure this behaviour would not happen again. The programme was regarded as a success. The restorative process ran for almost five months, concluding on 6 May 2015. The sexual harassment complaints were

dealt with to the satisfaction of the participants, and the study concluded that the 12 former Facebook group members had successfully remediated their behaviour and met the professional standard required for graduation from the university.

On the Dalhousie University (2019) website, it stated that most of their policies that address behaviour, and sexual harassment and the Student Code of Conduct provide for informal and formal routes. Restorative justice is an example of an informal route. An informal route only proceeds if all the parties involved agree to it. The website added that while restorative justice is part of an informal process, it results in significant outcomes

Koss and Lopez (2018) in a report on universities in Minneapolis suggested that restorative justice provided victims with broader choices in meeting their self-perceived justice needs, helped victims and communities seek accountability while also rebuilding autonomy and empowerment. The process, they added was already widely being implemented with sexual misconduct and other sexual assault. Koss and Lopez (2018) found that Association for Student Conduct Administration in Minneapolis had endorsed its application for campus sexual misconduct. They added that Senator Patrick Leahy intended to create a National Restorative Justice Centre.

They did however also find that colleges and universities were understandably hesitant: any policy change regarding such a sensitive and pervasive problem must be carefully considered and suited to meeting the needs of victims and campus communities without precluding criminal prosecution. The models needed to be consistent with what many victims desire.

The Dear Colleague Letter (Ali, 2011) guidance permitted the use of restorative justice in student sexual misconduct cases, according to Koss, Wilgus and Williamsen (2014), in at least four ways: as a resolution process, as a victim impact process, as a sanctioning process, and a re-integration process.

Victims of sexual harassment may, according to Short (2019), have things that they want to say to the perpetrator and questions that they want to ask. A restorative meeting can be an opportunity to do this in a safe and structured environment. Short (2019) added that it can also be an opportunity to ensure that the perpetrator understood the impact of their actions – an opportunity to educate those people who think this sort of behaviour was harmless fun when it was clearly not. Things said or done in the heat of the moment, perhaps in front of others, may

no longer seem so funny or harmless when one was facing an upset recipient. Wexler and Robbennolt (2019) concurred and added that those affected by sexual harassment and other forms of sexual violence often want, the wrongdoer to acknowledge and own the action and take responsibility.

Koss, Wilgus and Williamsen (2014) suggested that sexual assault victims need to tell their own stories, obtain answers to questions, experience validation, observe offender remorse, receive support, and above all have a choice and input in the resolution of the violation that they experienced.

No woman should be subjected to sexual harassment in the workplace, at university campuses or anywhere else for that matter. Current levels of prevalence are a disgrace. But where it does occur, we need an effective response, and restorative practice can form a central part of that. As researchers demonstrated (Keenan and Zinsstag, 2014; Koss, Wilgus and Williamsen, 2014; Wexler and Robbennolt, 2019; Short, 2019) victims of sexual violence and perpetrators of sexual offences experience positive outcomes by participating in restorative justice programmes.

2.4.3 THE TRANSCEND METHOD

The Transcend method is a strategy developed by Galtung (2011) that is aimed at Conflict Transformation. The method viewed peace as the ability to handle conflict through empathy, non-violence and creativity. Conflicting parties are brought together with the assistance of a facilitator. The transcendence model, according to Galtung (2011) was unlike compromise, where the incompatible becomes acceptable. The Transcend method uses dialogue to loosen and unlock conflict. According to Galtung (2011), the emphasis was placed on identifying shared roots and responsibilities rather than apportioning blame and guilt. Dialogue played a significant role in this method and was based on the following:

- Conflict is a source of violence.
- Mutual and shared responsibility, and
- There is intrinsic value in emphatic and respectful dialogue (Galtung, 2004).

Muchemwa (2017) found in a study on reconciliation between Ndebele and Shona relations in Zimbabwe, that the Transcend method created a platform to explore alternatives to violence.

The intervention created a platform for dialogue to enable social cohesion. Ultimately the responsibility for transformation lies with each individual and their individual responsibility and decisions to act and promote peace rather than violence. The two tribes had to submit to a common goal and take concrete responsibility. The study, by Muchemwa (2017) examined polarised groups and the Transcend method aimed to create a platform for dialogue and resolution. Muchemwa (2017) was of the opinion that the method allowed a shift in pessimism to cautious optimism and was a good start to dialogue, adding that creating spaces and platforms for dialogue will make a difference. The dialogue created had no end. The Transcend Method would transform the conflict upwards, by finding positive goals for the two tribes, and enabled ways of achieving these goals without violence.

2.4.4 THE TREE OF LIFE

Reeler, et al. (2009) stated that the Tree of Life was a healing and empowerment workshop that combined the concepts of storytelling, healing of the spirit, reconnecting with the body and re-establishing a sense of self-esteem. Weller (2020) suggested that the Tree of Life was an exercise to claim your identity and direction of life through a story. Every day, narrative therapy was used to draw inspiration and transform experiences. The process does not require trained counsellors and is cost-effective. The Tree of Life is simple and uses a visual metaphor in which a tree represents your life and various elements that make up the past, present and future. By labelling the parts, self-discovery takes place and traumatic experiences of the past are highlighted and contextualised and alternative paths are discovered.

Ngwenya (2016) used this method to heal the wounds of violence in Zimbabwe and revealed that it was possible for traumatised communities to attain relief from their psychological and emotional wounds. The approach was based on a survivor-to-survivor model. The participants were able to discover non-clinical self-healing methods. Negative, memories that resulted from their experiences of Gukurahundi (the attempted genocide of the Ndebele people in Matabeleland in western Zimbabwe) were highlighted, power inequities were identified, and active dialogues took place with resultant healing. Participants in the study by Ngwenya (2016), agreed that the approach offered them a measure of relief however holistic healing was still needed. The participants however did add that some relief was achieved. Traumatized individuals came together as a group to seek healing. The workshop was far better than a lifetime of painful memories that they have. Ngwenya (2016) found that healing was necessary

not just for the relief of the wounded but for the prevention of future violence caused by survivors taking revenge.

2.5. CONCLUSION

Koss, Wilgus and Williamsen (2014) suggested that sexual assault victims need to tell their own stories, obtain answers to questions, experience validation, observe offender remorse, receive support, and above all have a choice and input into the resolution of the violation that they experienced. Participation involves negotiation, co-operation and collaboration, and shared problem resolution. Lasting peace needs mutual respect and understanding. This chapter aims to provide a lens to understand the historical existence of sexual harassment and gender-based violence. These theories will be helpful in analysing and interpreting the gendered perceptions and behaviour of participants in this study. The social constructionism theory may account for the paradoxical inequalities that exist. Masculinity that focuses on male privilege from a patriarchal social order, and hegemonic masculinity is an important lens to secure changes in social norms and create an environment conducive to a positive learning environment. The theories raised will provide an understanding of the underlying reasons for behavioural patterns such as sexual harassment, which would allow for better preventative intervention.

In addition, socially constructed preferences occur in real-life scenarios, like university campuses, and choices tend to occur within social life and in interdependence. It will also be a useful lens in the study at the particular university, as an understanding of the construction of gender is key to understanding gender-based violence and sexual harassment. It is also crucial that in order to eliminate unequal gender relations they be made visible. Interventions should not be confined to isolated individuals but should promote collective and coordinated change. The approaches to tackling gender-based violence discussed in this chapter served to inform the intervention strategies that I employed to tackle sexual harassment at the study university which is discussed in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on sexual harassment and gender-based violence to gain insight into the impact of sexual harassment at tertiary institutions. It seeks to understand sexual harassment and examines and suggests redress.

There is a dearth of research on sexual harassment at South African universities. Research on sexual harassment has been concentrated in the global north with little emphasis on countries in sub-Saharan Africa and other developing countries. In this chapter, I review research that has been conducted in both the northern and southern countries. Whilst there is growing awareness, research and discussion on sexual harassment on university campuses in South Africa, sexual abuse is escalating at an alarming rate.

Despite both national and international efforts to eliminate sexual harassment, there is no single definition of what constitutes prohibited behaviour. Generally, international instruments define sexual harassment broadly as a form of violence against women and as discriminatory treatment, while national laws focus more closely on illegal conduct. It is for this reason that I start this review with a discussion of the various definitions offered on sexual harassment and how these definitions are contested and debated.

3.2 CONCEPTS

Any meaningful discussion of peer sexual harassment requires a workable definition of sexual harassment. The main issue of concern is the actual definition of sexual harassment and assault. Many of the problems arising from the issue of sexual harassment stem from the fact that there is no clear, concise, widely accepted definition of the term. Many researchers offer definitions of sexual harassment and the perception of what constitutes sexual harassment and agree that a concise definition is a major stumbling block to intervention and programmes (Skoog, et al., 2019; Mayekiso and Bhana, 1997; Reilly, et al., 1982; Simelane, 2001; Gidhar and Rajput, 2019). Mayekiso and Bhana (1997) stated that students need more clarity on what constitutes sexual harassment.

Among the earlier definitions of sexual harassment, the definition of gender-based violence was expanded at the 1995 Beijing Platform of Action, to include a violation of the rights of women in

situations of armed conflicts, such as systematic rape, sexual slavery, forced pregnancy, forced sterilisation, coerced or forced use of contraceptives, prenatal sex selection and female infanticide. Boland (2002) defined sexual harassment as obnoxious behaviour that involves a range of conduct from minor offensive words or acts to forced sexual activity and even rape. Mamaru, Getachew and Mohamed. (2015) expanded on the definition and Bursik and Geftter (2011) were in agreement with this definition to include unwelcome and undesirable sexual behaviour which affects physical and psychological behaviour. They concurred that it refers to any act, attempt or threat of a sexual nature that results or is likely to result in physical, psychological or emotional harm.

On 4 April 2011, the US Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights (OCR) issued a "Dear Colleague Letter" (DCL) focussing on the epidemic of sexual violence on college campuses (Ali, 2011).

Ali (2011) added that the DCL was a reminder to United States Educational institutions that sexual violence and sexual harassment are forms of sex-based discrimination that needed to be addressed. Koss et al. (2014) further elaborated on the DCL, indicating that it had played a role in enhancing restorative justice processes at universities. The guidelines defined sexual harassment as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when (1) submission to such conduct is made either explicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, (2) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individual, or (3) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

These are the very same guidelines and definitions proposed by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC, 1997). Most universities in America use the above guidelines when detailing university sexual harassment policies, including Yale, the University of Utah, the University of Michigan, Virginia Commonwealth University, the University of Arizona and Stanford University.

An expanded definition of sexual harassment and gender-based violence used by the United Nations Office for the co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (2003), indicated that violence against women should be understood to encompass but not limited to the following:

- Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children, dowry-related violence, rape, genital mutilation and other traditional practices that are harmful to women.
- Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment, intimidation, tracking of women and forced prostitution either at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere.
- Physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the State, wherever it occurs.

More recent scholars have offered a more inclusive definition of sexual harassment, focussing on the behaviour and its effects as well. Sexual violence they reported is a form of gender-based violence. Luzon (2017) proposed a definition of sexual harassment as conduct by which one person (the harasser) disturbs another (the harassed) from a sexual point of view. The definition promulgated by Skoog, et al. (2019) was extensive and defined sexual harassment as improper behaviour that has a sexual dimension or unwanted sexual attention. This definition included a range of verbal, physical and direct or indirect visual behaviour in the definition. According to the International Development Hub (IDH): The Sustainable Trade Initiative (2018), gender-based violence is an umbrella term that refers to any harm that is perpetrated against a person's will that results from power inequalities based on gender roles.

Sexual harassment is a particular form of sex discrimination. Johnson, Widnall and Benya (2018) pointed out that sexual harassment constituted discrimination. They promulgated a three-part classification system that divided sexual harassment into distinct related categories.

- **Sexual coercion:** which entails sexual advances and makes the conditions for students contingent upon sexual co-operation
- **Unwanted sexual attention:** which also entails sexual advances, but it does not add professional rewards or threats to force compliance. Romantic expressions or sexual interest is unwelcome, unreciprocated and offensive and can include assault.

- **Gender harassment:** refers to a broad range of verbal and non-verbal behaviours not aimed at sexual co-operation but convey insulting, hostile and degrading attitudes. Johnson, Widnall and Benya (2018) further divided gender harassment into:
 - Sexist hostility: demeaning jokes or comments,
 - Crude harassment: insults examples; slut, pussy.

In South Africa, the definition of sexual harassment has also evolved from earlier definitions of the concept. South Africa ratified the Beijing Platform of Action in 1995, the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (2003) and other international instruments. Snyman-Van Deventer and De Bruin (2002) stated that sexual harassment in South African law is seen as an *animus iniuriandi* (the consciousness of wrongfulness), an infringement of a person's personality and a form of unfair discrimination. The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000 (PEPUDA), referred to sexual harassment as prohibited.

Saferspaces (2019) indicated that in South Africa there are many different definitions of gender-based violence but it can be broadly defined as the general term used to capture violence that occurs as a result of the normative role expectations associated with each gender, along with the unequal power relationships between genders within the context of a specific society. The South African Labour Relations Act 1995, Section 4 of the Code of Good Practice defined sexual harassment as unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature that violated the rights of a person and takes the following factors into account:

- Whether the harassment is on the prohibited grounds of sex, and/or gender and/or sexual orientation;
- Whether the sexual conduct was unwelcome;
- The nature and extent of the sexual conduct, and
- And the impact of sexual conduct.

The University of KwaZulu Natal's Sexual Harassment Policy (2019) is in line with the South African legal definition of sexual harassment as "unwanted conduct of a sexual nature". The policy states that the distinguishing characteristic of sexual harassment is that it is conducted with a sexual component, which is unwelcome, unsolicited and unreciprocated. The policy further states that sexual attention becomes sexual harassment if:

- The behaviour is persisted, although a single incident of harassment can constitute sexual harassment, and/or
- 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. It is not only the intention of the alleged harasser that is the issue, but also the complainant's reasonable perception and experience of the alleged harassers.

The University of Johannesburg (2021/2022) in its Sexual Harassment policy uses an almost similar definition of sexual harassment which is any form of unwanted or unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature, whether physical, verbal or non-verbal, by a person of the same or opposite sex towards another which:

- has a negative impact on the complainant;
- persists in spite of the complainant's clear indication that such behaviour is unwelcome and
- even if it is a single incident of harassment, it can be deemed to constitute sexual harassment because of its seriousness.

South African President, Cyril Ramaphosa (2019) at a joint sitting of parliament stated that gender-based violence is just too vague and simplistic a term and it should be called male-perpetrated violence. The South African Labour Guide's (2020) definition is the latest and most relevant definition of sexual harassment. It is comprehensive, expansive and all-encompassing as follows:

(1) Sexual harassment is unwanted conduct of a sexual nature. The unwanted nature of sexual harassment distinguishes it from behaviour that is welcome and mutual.

(2) Sexual attention becomes sexual harassment if:

(a) The behaviour is persisted in, although a single incident of harassment can constitute sexual harassment; and/or

(b) The recipient has made it clear that the behaviour is considered offensive; and/or

(c) The perpetrator should have known that the behaviour is regarded as unacceptable.

While I have tried in this section to map how the definition of sexual harassment has changed internationally and nationally there is no consensus on what constitutes sexual harassment. The lack of a perfect widely accepted definition is the main challenge in the research of sexual harassment and gender-based violence.

While earlier definitions of sexual harassment defined sexual harassment as obnoxious behaviour that involved offensive words or acts to forced sexual activity, more recent definitions include any unwanted and uninvited behaviour, and or attention that is sexual in nature and is intimidating and/or threatening to the victim, irrespective of whether the behaviour was once-off or persistent. This study adopts the three-part classification of sexual harassment promulgated by Widnall and Benya (2018) which includes sexual coercion, unwanted sexual attention and gender harassment.

The above surfeit of sexual harassment definitions that have been advanced reveals a general concern for the academic environment and society at large, but little consensus on the substance that defines the boundaries of sexual harassment.

3.3 FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Sexual harassment is a persistent and pervasive problem. It is not confined to one demographic or geographic location. According to Zevallos (2020), every one in five women experiences sexual harassment at work. Zevallos (2020) added that in academia, from 2010 to 2016, 575 cases of sexual assault were reported in Australian universities. However, she noted that this led to only six expulsions. Women students are three times as likely to be assaulted and twice as likely to be harassed as men. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students as well as disabled people experience a disproportionate level of sexual harassment and sexual assault, as do lesbian, gay, bisexual people and especially transgender students, who experience up to twice the rate of harassment as heterosexual students. Anwar, et al. (2020) noted that sexual harassment hindered freedom and mobility. Sexual harassment flourishes all over and manifests itself in numerous forms.

3.3.1 FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

The South African Labour Guide (2020) lists the following forms of sexual harassment:

(1) Sexual harassment may include unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct, but is not limited to the examples listed as follows:

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

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

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

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

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

3.3.2 FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

According to the Policy Framework to address Gender-Based Violence in the Post-School Education and Training System (2019) released by the then Minister of Higher Education, Dr Pandor for public comment, GBV manifests on campuses and other places of learning in the following ways:

- i) Grading or rating of appearance by verbal comment, wolf-whistling, or other noises;
- ii) Stalking and repeated, unwanted requests for dates;
- iii) Derogatory comments, about people's gender non-conformity;

- iv) The use of work (either academic or administrative) as an excuse for inappropriate, private meetings;
- v) Rape;
- vi) Sexual assault, and
- vii) Physical assaults by intimate partners, or against individuals perceived as gender nonconforming.

The University of Johannesburg's Sexual Harassment Policy (2021/2022) added that sexual favouritism exists if a person who is in a position of authority rewards only those who respond to her/his sexual advances, whereas other deserving employees who do not submit themselves to any sexual advances are denied promotion, merit ratings or remuneration increases. The policy further states that occasional compliments of a socially acceptable nature do not constitute sexual harassment and nor do acceptable teaching methods aimed at eliciting debate and discussion. Mutual attraction between people also does not constitute sexual harassment and should be treated as a private concern. The University of Johannesburg's Sexual Harassment Policy (2021/2022) uses this guide and lists the following as examples of sexual harassment:

(a) Physical conduct of a sexual nature, which includes all unwanted physical contact, ranging from touching to sexual assault and rape or frisking or strip searches by another person.

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

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

(d) Any form of communication of a sexual nature, including exerting pressure on a person for dates and sexual favours.

(e) Quid pro quo harassment, which occurs if the employer, line manager, member of management or co-employee, undertakes or attempts to influence the process of employment, promotion, training, discipline, dismissal, salary increments or other benefits of an employee or applicant, in exchange for sexual favours.

(f) Sending or viewing jokes, pictures or other information by e-mail or the internet in which the information is sexually explicit or ridicules a person's sexual orientation.

The University of KwaZulu Natal's Sexual Harassment Policy (2019) includes the Labour Guide and lists the following as forms of sexual harassment, 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 displays of sexually explicit written or audio-visual materials; transmission or display of offensive email, screensavers 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 exists where a person who is in a position of authority favours those who respond to his/her sexual advances, whilst other deserving employees and students who do not respond to sexual advances are disadvantaged or denied opportunities for example promotions, nominations for merit awards, training opportunities, grading of assignments and practical's. Some forms of sexual conduct which are considered innocuous by some people may be considered offensive by others. In addition, different social or cultural backgrounds may lead persons to perceive the same conduct differently. All staff and students are expected to respect the sensitivities of others, especially where there may be variations in the interpretation of acceptable behaviour and accordingly, cultural differences may not be used as an excuse or justification for sexual harassment.

Dhirania and Chawla (2019), Steenkamp (2010) and Wanyane (2012) seem to concur on the list of behaviours regarded as sexual harassment at universities and institutions of higher learning. These include:

- Unwanted sexual advances
- Receiving unwelcome sexual suggestions or invitations
- Offering employment benefits in exchange for sexual favours
- Leering, staring, ogling
- Making sexual gestures
- Displaying sexually suggestive objects or pictures, cartoons, posters
- Making derogatory comments, about a person's body, or dress, slurs, sexually suggestive jokes
- Written communication of a sexual nature distributed in hard copy or via network computer or on social media, suggestive or obscene letters or texts, notes or invitations
- Physical; conduct such as unwanted touching, assault, impeding or blocking movements
- Being forcefully kissed, hugged or touched
- Having someone expose their private parts or repeatedly stare at a person's body parts
- Making or threatening retaliation after a negative response to sexual advances or for reporting or threatening to report sexual harassment
- Eve-teasing
- Sexually tinted remarks, whistling, sexually slanted jokes and obscene jokes, jokes causing awkwardness or embarrassment
- Subtle innuendoes or open taunting regarding perfection, imperfection, or physical appearance of body or shape
- Displaying pornographic or other sexually offensive or derogatory material
- Forcible invitations for dates
- Forcible physical touch or physical assault or molestation
- Suggesting or implying that failure to accept a request for a date or sexual favour will adversely affect the individual with respect to performance or grading, or job allocation
- Physical confinement against one's will and any other act that violates one's privacy.

Till (1980) suggested five types of sexual harassment, namely: gender harassment (generalised sexist remarks and behaviour); seductive behaviour (inappropriate and offensive

but essentially sanction free); sexual bribery (solicitation of sexual activity); sexual coercion (coercion of sexual activity by promise or reward) and sexual imposition or assault (sexual crimes and misdemeanours, including rape and sexual assault). Mansfield, et al. (2017) condensed these to three dimensions: sexual coercion, unwanted sexual attention and gender harassment.

Other researchers (Ekore, 2012; Kabaya, 2016; Luzon, 2017; Gawali, 2019; Ngidi and Moletsane, 2015; Onoyase, 2019; Girdhar and Rajput, 2019) divided sexual harassment into:

- Quid Pro Quo and
- Hostile Working Environment.

Quid Pro Quo is a Latin word for 'this for that'. It manifests itself when a person demands sexual favours for getting or keeping a benefit. A harasser is usually a person of authority who demands sexual favours for getting or keeping benefits or grades and threatens if the conditions are not met. Taiwo, Omole and Omole (2014) revealed that at Nigerian institutions of higher learning, sex for grades is a reality and male supervisors perceive themselves as gods and unprofessional behaviour is perpetuated unchecked, and almost 98.8% of female respondents studied reported being victims of educators for academic marks. Quid pro quo harassment occurs when an employer, supervisor, member of management or co-employee, undertakes or attempts to influence the process of employment, promotion, training, discipline, dismissal, salary increment or other benefits of an employee or job applicant in exchange for sexual favours.

Joseph (2015) indicated that sexual favours for grades were common in medical schools in the Netherlands. Leach (2013) stated that this is a global issue and added that in the Middle East sexual harassment of students by their professors is evident at universities in Lebanon and Tunisia. Students select between agreeing to the advances and giving up on their studies. The penalty for refusal is high. The student may find lower grades or failure as a consequence of the refusal of advances. In a study conducted by Dastile (2004) at the University of Venda, it was revealed that single female students between the ages of 18 and 25 and in their first year of study were subjected to quid pro quo sexual harassment after being invited to lecturer's, financial administrator's and/or supervisor's offices.

Hostile Environment arises when a colleague, supervisor or superior creates a work environment through verbal or physical conduct that interferes with another person's ability to work or study or creates an environment that is intimidating, hostile, offensive or humiliating and is experienced as an attack on personal dignity (Girdhar and Rajput, 2019). This not only creates an insecure environment but also impedes the ability to deliver in today's competing world (Dhirania and Chawla, 2019). Kabaya (2016) believed that the behaviour was adequately serious, pervasive and persistent to reduce the student's capability to participate in or gain from an educational programme or activity by creating an intimidating educational environment.

Lee (2020) conducted a study at Cheongju University in Korea. The study participants included 195 college students majoring in physical therapy in Gyeonggi and Chungcheong provinces who responded fully to the survey questionnaire. Lee (2020) found that the most common types of sexual harassment were verbal, visual, and physical.

Saferspaces (2019) suggested in a thematic paper on gender-based violence at higher education institutes in South Africa, the following forms which enabled and exacerbated sexual harassment and violence:

1. **Domestic Violence:** this entails physical abuse; sexual abuse; emotional, verbal and psychological abuse; economic abuse; intimidation; harassment; stalking; damage to property; entry into the complainants' residence without consent; controlling or abusive behaviour where such conduct harms, may cause imminent harm to the safety, well-being or health of the complainant.
2. **Intimate Partner Violence:** this encompasses any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship. Such behaviour includes acts of physical aggression [slapping, hitting, kicking, beating]; psychological abuse [intimidation, coercion, forced intercourse, constant belittling]; various controlling behaviour [isolating a person from family and friends, monitoring their movements, restricting access to information or assistance].
3. **Rape:** all forms of sexual penetration without consent irrespective of gender.
4. **Sexual Assault:** encompasses all forms of sexual violation, without consent.
5. **Sexual Harassment:** entails unwelcome sexual attention from a person who knows or ought to know that such attention is unwelcome; unwelcome explicit or implicit behaviour, suggestions, messages or remarks; implied or expressed promise of reward for

complying with a sexually-oriented request; implied or expressed threat of reprisal for refusal to comply with a sexually-oriented request.

6. Harassment: refers to direct or indirect engagement of conduct that causes harm or inspires the reasonable belief that harm may be caused; following, watching, pursuing or accosting the complainant; engaging in verbal, electronic or other communication; sending, delivering, letters, telegrams, packages, electronic mail or other objects.

7. Homophobic Bullying: is a specific form of bullying that occurs and is motivated by prejudice against LGBTQIA+ people.

An examination of the various forms clearly reveals that there is a lack of consistent labelling of sexual harassment experiences. It becomes extremely difficult to compare types from one study to another. Some forms are too broad, some too narrow whilst others have too few categories.

3.4 PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AND SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Girdhar and Rajput (2019); Paquette, et al. (2019); Moore and Warton (2019) and Vanska (2019) are in consensus in that there are gender differences in the perception of sexual harassment and that women are more likely than men to find certain forms of behaviour as harassing. Earlier researchers, Steenkamp (2010); Kabaya (2016); Akpotor (2013) and Gouws (1995) are also in agreement. Men are less likely than women to include social-sexual behaviours like jokes, teasing remarks of a sexual nature and unwanted suggestive looks or gestures as a form of sexual harassment (Gutek, Morasch and Cohen, 1983; Steenkamp, 2010; Kabaya, 2016). Gutek, et al. (1983) found that men and women consistently interpret behaviour that forms sexual harassment differently. Ribeiro and Bastos (2019) strongly suggested that perception and perspective play an integral role in the definition of what constitutes sexual harassment.

Men find themselves physically attractive when they receive the same behaviour from women. According to Gutek, et al. (1983), men see the behaviour as 'ego-enhancing'. Gutek (1985) found that female students perceived sexual harassment to exist more than their male counterparts at universities.

Ekore (2012) in a study revealed that women see sexual advances as upsetting whilst men see the behaviour as just good fun or even complimentary. Women, it was noted in the study found sexual teasing, jokes, looks and gestures as well as remarks from lecturers and fellow students

to be harassing behaviour whilst their male counterparts felt that the women should not be so quick to take offence when a person expresses sexual interest in them. Akpotor (2013) added punching and grabbing to the list that women find more unpleasant than men.

According to Wikström (2019), although individuals of all genders are at risk of sexual harassment, certain marginalised groups are statistically at a greater risk. Hill and Silva (2005) proposed that lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender students (LGBTQIA+) were more likely to experience increased sexual harassment than heterosexual students. Boyle and McKinzie (2018) substantiated this posit in that there exists a higher rate of sexual harassment, coercion and stalking among lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, multiracial, asexual students and women. They further revealed that the LGBTQIA+ community are also more likely to experience a range of forms of sexual harassment at higher learning institutes. Gawali (2019) found in their study that twice as many women were pressurised, lied to and coerced into unwanted sex. Paquette, et al. (2019) concurred with their findings, in that single, never married students were more likely to be targeted by stalking, threats, and unwanted messages and or gifts. Cassino and Besen-Cassino (2019) and Mazur (2019) added that women of colour and less powerful people -- minorities, youth and young adults' -- are vulnerable to harassment. Welsh, et al. (2006) included citizenship status and race, whilst Berdahl and Moore (2006) added ethnicity to the list.

Men, it seems see violence as a normal rite and as a means of exerting control (Ngidi and Moletsane, 2015). Men viewed women in general as sex objects (Luzon, 2017). Kayuni (2009) surmised that sexual harassment and gender-based violence are more than the act for men. It is the tone, the feeling and the consequences of the event. Kayuni (2009) strongly felt that men and women are not purely objective about sexual harassment and suggested that regarding a particular behaviour as sexual harassment is dependent on the individual's perceptions. Men tend to regard the behaviour as innocent flirtation. Benya (2018) also found that women are more likely to experience sexual harassment and at higher frequencies across all two categories, especially from faculty and staff members at institutions of higher learning.

Arya, Kaushi and Arya (2019) promulgated that sexual harassment is the most prevalent of all and affects women in some form or the other regardless of age, race, class, caste or location. Touching, whistling and staring seemed to be so common at institutions of higher learning that it is dismissed as normal. In many societies they added, girls seem to accept violence as an

extension of what they face at home with their families and is, therefore, nothing to complain about.

Stats SA (2019) reported that in general crime impedes the action of women more than men. This was evident in a four-year study conducted at Rhodes University that highlighted the gendered nature of fear for safety. Four times more female than male students indicated feeling unsafe at the university (Safer Spaces 2019). The policy framework to address gender-based violence in the Post-School Education and Training System (DHET, 2019) is similarly premised on the dominant view of gender-based violence as male-on-female violence.

Braine, et al. (1995) conducted a study on the University of Natal Pietermaritzburg campus and concluded that sexual harassment was found to be higher among female students. This study found that an estimated 65% of female students included in the sample reported having experienced sexual harassment and 24% of these were harassed during social events such as parties and sporting events, 24% had been harassed in their residences whilst another 15% were harassed during student meetings. In another study undertaken at Rhodes University, Maurice (1991) reported that 60% of 100 female students included in his sample had been subjected to sexual harassment.

3.5 SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT UNIVERSITIES

Kabaya (2016) stated that university campuses have an obligation to provide and maintain a safe environment for students and workers. However, sexual violence is pervasive and rife in institutions of higher learning, globally. Hill and Silva (2005) concluded that sexual harassment is widespread among college students after analysing findings from a national survey of undergraduate college students at American College Campuses. They revealed that more than a third of the students encountered sexual harassment during their first year of study. They noted that sexual harassment was pervasive all over the campus including in student housing and classrooms. According to Freyd (2016), sexual harassment of graduate students on US campuses was almost identical to those found nearly 30 years ago when a third of female graduates experienced sexual harassment.

According to Rosenthal and Banks (2018), a National Student Survey of over 30 000 students across 39 universities in Australia revealed that:

- 51% of all university students were sexually harassed at least once in 2016;
- 6.9% of students were sexually assaulted on at least one occasion in 2015 or 2016;
- Women were 2-3 times more likely to be targeted for sexual assault and sexual harassment;
- Overwhelmingly, men were the perpetrators of both sexual assault and sexual harassment;
- Most victims/survivors knew the perpetrator, who was most likely to be a fellow student at the university;
- Postgraduate students were almost twice as likely as undergraduate students to have been sexually harassed by a lecturer or tutor from the university;
- Rates of sexual harassment were significantly higher for students who identified as bisexual (44%), or as gay, lesbian or homosexual (38%) compared to students who identified as heterosexual (23%);
- Trans- and gender-diverse students were more likely (45%) to have been sexually harassed in a university setting than women and men in 2016;
- Domestic students were slightly more likely (27%) than international students (22%) to have been sexually harassed in 2016;
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students and students with disability were more likely to have been sexually harassed in 2016 than others;
- Undergraduate students were more likely (28%) than postgraduates (19%) to have been sexually harassed in 2016, and
- The vast majority of students who were sexually assaulted or sexually harassed did not make a formal report or complaint to their university for reasons including that they did not know how or where to make the report.

3.5.1 INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

A total of 173 individuals completed a survey by D'Agostino, et al. (2019) regarding harassment experienced by plastic surgery students in the United States. 39.2% reported verbal abuse, 19.9% experienced sexual harassment and 3.6% reported being physically abused during their training. Of those individuals who were sexually harassed, 72.7% were females. In many of the cases (64.5%), the instigator was a supervising physician. Most of the participants did not feel comfortable reporting the abuse (74.19%).

The findings in the above studies parallel almost all research conducted at other universities in other countries including sub-Saharan Africa. According to Dela Cruz, et al. (2016), the Philippine Commission on Higher Education (CHED), had received 42 complaints of sexual harassment in state universities and colleges and 49 in private higher education institutions. Simelane (2001) maintained that all forms of sexual harassment exist on university campuses, the most common being sexually loaded comments, staring, wolf-whistles, unwelcome touching and fondling. Other studies, including Onoyase (2019) and reports by Daniels (2019), found that sexual harassment included rape and physical assault on university campuses.

3.5.2 NATIONAL STUDIES

Crime statistics in South Africa for 2018/ 2019 revealed that South Africa has a notably high rate of violent crime when compared to most other countries. Rotherham (2019) stated that South Africa has one of the world's highest gender-based violence rates, comparable to a country at war. President Cyril Ramaphosa echoed the very same sentiments in his address to the nation in 2019. Rape and sexual assault are found to be at the top of the list. For the year ending 2018, Crime Stats SA reported that there were 49991 reports of sexual offences. One in three of the 4000 women questioned by Community of Information, Empowerment and Transparency indicated that they had been raped during 2018. For the 2018/2019 year SAPS crime statistics revealed that total sexual offences (rape/sexual assault, attempted sexual offence, contact sexual offence) were up by 4.6% from the previous year. There are however many more incidences that remain unreported. The statistics alone reveal that young women and adolescent girls are at a heightened risk of sexual abuse at home, at school, within communities and in public spaces.

The Council for Higher Education (2019) report indicated that during the 2019 academic year, some high-profile incidents of GBV were reportedly perpetrated within the spaces of higher education institutions in South Africa, or within their vicinity and became national headline news. These incidents have taken place despite South Africa having a constitution and a number of pieces of legislation that protect human rights and outlaw acts of human rights abuses, including GBV. Furthermore, the South African government ratified and adopted a number of regional and international conventions and protocols that are focussed on eradicating GBV. These include:

- The Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) (1995);

- The UN Resolution 1325 on Women;
- The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003);
- The SADC Declaration on Gender and Development, and
- The UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and other international instruments (UN, 1993) (Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR, 2016).

According to Gordon and Collins (2013), increased levels of sexual harassment and gender-based violence exist in South African Universities. Wanyane (2012) revealed in a study at the University of Johannesburg that men make sexual advances toward women and expect women to handle such advances. Disturbingly the study found that the female students accept such behaviour as normal all over the campus.

Singh, et al. (2015) maintained that sexual assault is a serious and urgent concern at the University of KwaZulu Natal where the fear of sexual assault is widespread and experienced almost exclusively by women. Bennet (2011) argued that feminist activism in South Africa needs to decrease theory and challenge the overt and covert forms of sexual harassment at South African institutes of Higher Education.

Higher Education HIV and AIDS Programme (HEAIDS) (2010) found that transactional sex was prolific in South African institutes of higher learning and ranged from prostitution to relationships where sex was exchanged for gifts, favours, and recreation and travel opportunities. Many students engaged in this behaviour so as to pay for accommodation and meet basic needs. According to the HEAIDS (2010) study, academic staff misuse their power over female staff. Whilst rape was found to be common on campuses, many victims do not report the incidents. The HEAIDS (2010) study was crucial, as it revealed that students do not feel safe on campus. Wanyane (2012) concluded that students are likely to be harassed in classrooms, lifts, toilets and student residences.

Deputy Minister, Buti Manamela (2018) during the African Rising Dialogue address at the Tshwane University of Technology, Ga-Rankuwa campus (2018) stated that in a recent study

in South Africa it was found that 62% of students surveyed felt that female students would be sexually harassed on campus. He added that about 28% of males and 27% of females (aged 15 - 19) believed that a girl did have the right to refuse sex with her boyfriend. Sadly enough, he further stated that an alarming 55% of male students think that sexual violence does not include forcing sex with someone you know. Manamela (2018) revealed that he was not revealing the statistics to shock students but to face them with reality and take action. He went on to add that the reality is that girls and women are dying at the hands of men, and men are silent.

A News24 correspondent (2016) reported that the North-West University could be liable for harassment charges due to its alleged failure to address the sexual harassment of 14 students. In Kabaya's (2016) study at the University of KwaZulu Natal, it was revealed that sexual harassment was prevalent on campus. Kabaya (2016) proposed that female students faced sexual harassment from men who were perceived to have more power over them. Some men it was revealed also face sexual harassment from both other men and women. Gay and lesbian students were also vulnerable due to their sexual orientation. The study concluded that men were the main perpetrators whilst the victims were both men and women.

Ngcai (2016) reported that in South Africa, academia was regarded as an integral part of our society and yet suffers from the scourge of sexual harassment and gender-based violence. Women are increasingly anxious and stories of harassment abound. She vehemently believes that South African institutions are seen to be hostile to women. She added that policy alone is insufficient and that there needs to be a deliberate and practical endeavour for the institutional cultures to change. Ngcai (2016) further went on to report on the thirteen sexual violence cases reported at the University of Cape Town in the first four months of 2016 alone. Sobuwa (2018) reported on the suicide of Khensani Maseko in 2018, allegedly after being sexually raped on campus and after she posted on social media "No one deserves to be raped". Mokati (2019) was quite vocal in her condemnation of men in South Africa stating that the raping of varsity students does not only rob them of their lives but also their ability to access further education which is meant to see them progress in life.

Wanyane (2012) postulated that within African universities, namely Lesotho, Tanzania and South Africa, there is a practice of 'sugar daddies' which involved students having sexual relationships with older men who have power and money in exchange for cell phones, cash and

cars. Young (2009) indicated that women students are subjected to violence, intimidation, discrimination, hostility and subtle control from men on university campuses.

Most studies of sexual harassment have examined and mostly reported on the extent and degree of the problem of sexual harassment. The few studies that have focussed especially on university students have not addressed interventions and development programmes. This research study aims to address the gaps in current factorial surveys and studies, by providing insight, increasing awareness, and planning implementing and evaluating a sexual harassment intervention strategy.

3.6 CAUSES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

In order to understand why women endure the vast majority of sexual harassment, it is important to look at some of the underlying causes of this phenomenon. There are many different explanations for the causes of sexual violence.

3.6.1 POWER AND PATRIARCHY

Skidmore and Bell (2020) noted that victims of sexual assault and harassment in many contexts may be physically forced into sexual activities, drugged, intoxicated and even incapacitated and thereby unable to give consent. Sexual harassment is above all a manifestation of power relations. Tinkler and Zhao (2019) are of the opinion that sexual harassment is often a dominance strategy used to undermine women's power. This was supported by the findings of numerous researchers including Arya, Kaushik and Arya (2019); Dhirania and Chawla (2019); Mazur (2019); Young and Hegarty (2019) and Kabaya (2016). According to Avendano (2019), masculine privilege was deeply ingrained and thereby masculine assumptions become normalised. Barker and Ricardo (2005) proposed that norms associated with masculinity that accept male sexuality as irrepressible and having many partners as a sign of sexual libido and ability to control women may worsen sexual harassment. Renzetti, et al. (2012) elaborated on this and stated that dominant norms about sexuality and manhood suggested that males should be aware of their hostility and be more skilled in sexual issues.

According to Hill and Silva (2005), harassers give the following reasons for their behaviour:

- I thought that it was funny [almost 59% of the sample];
- I thought the person liked it [almost 32 % of the sample];

- It's just a part of school life and it's no big deal [almost 30% of the sample];
- I wanted a date with the person [17%];
- My friends encouraged me [10%];
- I wanted something from the victim [7%], and
- I wanted them to think that I had some sort of power over them [40 %].

Barker and Ricardo (2005) stated that young men in sub-Saharan Africa equate sexual experience as a sign of socially recognisable manhood. They added that aggressive masculinity shows that women are forced to engage in sex and have no power and are also not able to even negotiate a non-sexual relationship. Young (2009) maintained that violence against women, including sexual assault, is excused and perpetuated within a society that supports male dominance and female oppression through the use of gender role expectancies. Gender roles, Young (2009) believed, are the socially sanctioned expressions of biological sex within society. He added that an example of male gender role expectancy is earning the majority of the family income. Brannon as cited by Young (2009), stated that gender roles dictate heterosexual norms, sexual expression and sexual scripts. Adding that a manual sexual script, is to be aggressive in dating rituals, and a female sexual script is to be coy. According to Young (2009), rape, therefore, goes unrecognised because it follows the culturally sanctioned sexual script calling for masculine dominance and feminine submission.

Young (2009) also supported the view that patriarchy supports rape myths and thereby supports female sexual victimisation. Participants in a longitudinal study over four years from eight diverse universities in South Africa by Swartz, et al. (2018) revealed that they understood gender differences through a lens of patriarchy. They not only saw patriarchy as a social system but that it perpetuated male dominance and advantage in every sphere of life, and they believed that patriarchy has a real and deeply operational influence on campus life. Participants admitted that an inordinate amount of sexual misconduct occurred on campuses and that they did not feel safe or free to move around campus. The students maintained that they felt restrained by their gender because of the inability to do certain things on campus at certain times. This meant sacrificing study group, library access, and or missing group meetings.

Males exploit gender by abusing their power as educators, tutors or lecturers so as to manipulate female students for sexual favours. Male lecturers give special favours and treatment to female students. Female students also reported on exploitation at the hands of the

largely male students' representatives. Swartz, et al. (2018) viewed this as toxic masculinities and exploitive relations. They added that universities are incubators for patriarchy. Young (2009) and Vanska (2019) also supported the view that patriarchy, supports rape myths and thereby supports female sexual victimisation and limits women's feelings of belonging.

Peacock (2019) from Sonke Gender Justice, on their website, posted that we live in a patriarchal society, where men enjoy an unequal amount of power, over women and children and gender-conforming people. Men, according to Peacock (2019), kill women at an inordinately high rate. They added that as long as men's privileges remain unchallenged, men can live lives under the illusion that they are supportive of women, while women remain in a disempowered position. When the privilege, becomes challenged, the friendly man often turns into an angry child and uses manipulation and or violence to assert control. According to Franke, et al. (cited in Skidmore and Bell, 2020), sexual harassment is a means to enforce traditional gender roles. Men use it as a means to punish women who deviate from traditional female gender role behaviour.

3.6.2 ORGANISATION CLIMATE

A study conducted by the National Academy of Sciences (2019), revealed that the two characteristics of environments most associated with higher rates of sexual harassment are:

- a) Male-dominated gender ratio and leadership.
- b) An organisational climate that communicates a tolerance of sexual harassment.

The study postulated that organisational climate is by far, the greater predictor of the occurrence of sexual harassment and ameliorating it may prevent people from sexually harassing others. A study by the National Academy of Sciences (2019) maintained that a person more likely to engage in harassing behaviour is less likely to do so in an environment that does not support harassing behaviour and or has strong, clear, transparent consequences for the behaviour. Dziech and Weiner (cited in Joseph, 2015) opined that universities are male living on male terms. Raj, et al. (2020) in their study noted that 42% of women experienced sexual harassment at work. The study also found that women in male-dominated occupations are at greater risk for harassment from supervisors. Aranki, Sweis and Suifan (2018) concurred that organisational culture may make it extremely difficult for a victim to speak out.

This is reflected by the Saferspaces (2019) paper that proposed higher learning institutions in South Africa are not homogenous and consequently are likely to have a commonality between risk factors and nature, but institutional norms play a tremendous role. They note that gender inequality, attitudes and beliefs and hegemonic masculinity influenced the likelihood and response of sexual harassment and gender-based violence occurring on the campus. Saferspaces (2019) cite the 2016, Rhodes University Sexual Violence Task Team Report, to illustrate their argument that the male dominant nature of the institutional culture at Rhodes University would have contributed to an exclusionary and stifling silencing institutional space, which is an incubator for gender-based violence. A study by Onoyase (2019) revealed that students of tertiary institutions in the Taraba State, North-East Nigeria experienced sexual harassment in exchange for better grades. In an earlier study, Joseph (2015) found that sexual favours for good grades and preferential treatment took place at universities. Owoaje and Olusola-Taiwo (2010) noted the same in Nigeria. Onoyase (2019) noted that the victims do not have the courage to report such cases as this may result in failure and lower marks, as well as stigmatisation and further victimisation.

3.6.3 SOCIAL FACTORS

Jewkes (2017) listed the drivers below for the male intimate partner perpetration and sexual harassment faced by women and young people in South African Higher Education:

- Alcohol Use
- Quarrelling
- Less Gender equitable views
- Childhood trauma
- Partner infidelity

Saferspaces (2019) reported that at Rhodes University, alcohol and drug consumption in addition to the problematic gendered norms, increased the risk for sexual harassment and gender-based violence to occur at higher learning institutions. According to Rosenthal and Banks (2018), the three identifying themes of sexual assault and sexual harassment on university campuses in their survey were:

- Sexist attitudes towards women
- Alcohol abuse

- Perpetrator abusing a position of power

Research conducted on South African universities by Higher Education HIV/AIDS Programme (HEAIDS, 2010) suggested that poverty, hunger, desperation and social mobility are contributing factors that compel women to use their bodies to survive. Many studies (Saferspaces, 2019; Akpotor, 2013; Ngidi and Moletsane, 2015) have shown that violence is a learned behaviour for both men and women. These studies proposed that young people who grew up in households characterised by violence are more likely to normalise violence in their relationships later in life. However, the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR) (2016) argued that it was not always the case that children who observed parents fighting will automatically become violent. Sometimes there are mediating protective factors that result in these children not becoming violent or staying in violent relationships.

The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (2016) in their review did note however that there are reports in South Africa of men, who commit domestic violence in intimate relationships are 3.5 times as likely to have experienced physical abuse in their homes and 4 times as likely to have witnessed violence between their parents than men who do not commit domestic violence. The review further added that women who reported perpetrating violence were three times as likely to have been exposed to childhood physical abuse and to have witnessed violence between their parents or primary caregivers. It is worth noting that women are also vulnerable to risks factors such as exposure to violence in childhood.

According to the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (2016) children raised by abusive fathers are likely to become violent toward their partners. This is a result of their father's abusiveness towards their wives. It is possible that the child's anger towards the father is transferred onto their partner as an adult. Common too in South Africa is the fact that many young men who use violence against their partners have grown up without a father, and therefore, had no stabilising role model.

In a study of the mediation of heterosexual romantic relationships featured in the construction of masculinities, Hamlall (2018) found that while the young men succumbed to the pressure to conform to hypersexual masculinity, women were not constructed merely as objects of men's pleasure. These constructions of masculinity are essential in encouraging men to build more gender-equitable relationships, which in turn, encourages other gender transformation

practices. According to Gqola (2015), South Africa's history of brutality has become so entrenched within society that it has resulted in hypermasculinity. Hypermasculinity, as defined by Wikipedia (2019) refers to a psychological term for the exaggeration of male stereotypical behaviour, such as an emphasis on physical strength, aggression and sexuality. Hypersexuality is associated with sexual and physical aggression toward women, being emotional stoic and indifferent towards women. The composure and poise of hypermasculinity seem to be a recipe for silence and violence.

The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (2016) conducted a review of gender-based violence in South Africa and suggested that the community and the economy and cultural, traditional and religious factors play a major role in the creation of gender inequalities, social constructions of hegemonic masculinities, social perceptions of what it is to be a man and the resultant normalisation of violence. The review advanced that culturally males are often placed in a powerful position compared to women due to practices such as lobola, ukuthwala, virginity testing, female genital mutilation, male circumcision and sharia law. Some of these practices implicitly or explicitly condone and tolerate gender-based violence, which men and women normalise and are socialised to accept. Vanska (2019) also suggested cultural determinants and practices play a substantial role in normalising hegemonic patriarchy and power leading to sexual harassment and gender-based violence.

The normalisation of sexual harassment and gender bias was also noted by Johnson, Widnall and Benya (2018) as fuelling this behaviour in the new cohorts of sciences, engineering, and medicine faculties. Respondents discussed the disheartening experiences of colleagues who entered training settings with unbiased views and respectful behaviour, but who concluded those experiences endorsing or dismissing sexually harassing and gender-biased behaviour among themselves and others. Taiwo, Omole, and Omole (2014) in their study noted that 50% of the respondents succumb to sexually harassing behaviour due to poverty.

3.7 CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

Sexual harassment is pernicious and can result in long-lasting damage to its victims. It can have psychological damage (Lee, 2020). Skidmore and Bell (2020) and Cannon, et al. (2020) have noted deleterious effects on healthcare systems. They concurred that sexual assault and harassment can have a profound effect on the victim's health and healthcare needs. Hansen (2020) noted that poor health determinants such as depression, cardiovascular diseases and

diabetes are common among victims of sexual harassment. Hansen (2020) also suggested that exposure to sexual harassment may cause stress reactions, triggered by the unpredictability and lack of control that follows these exposures.

According to Were (2019), there may be profound direct and indirect effects on a woman's reproductive system as a result of sexual violence including and not limited to:

- Unwanted pregnancies and restricted access to family planning information and contraceptives
- Unsafe abortions or injuries sustained during a legal abortion after an unwanted pregnancy
- Complications from frequent, high-risk pregnancies and lack of follow-up care
- Sexually transmitted infections. Including HIV
- Persistent gynaecological problems
- Psychological problems

The physical effects proposed by the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation: CSVr (2016) include and are not limited to:

- head injuries (from hitting, punching and stabbing with sharp objects)
- back pains (from falling and being kicked in the back)
- loss of hearing (from punching and hitting with hard objects and fists)
- loss of eyesight (from punching, pushing and hitting with hard objects and fists)
- damage to internal organs (from punching and hitting with hard objects and fists)
- cardiovascular problems (from punching and hitting with hard objects and fists)
- miscarriages (from punching and hitting with hard objects and fists)

The psychological effects of sexual harassment and gender-based violence according to CSVr (2016) include and are not limited to:

- post-traumatic stress disorder (including nightmares, intrusive memories, flashbacks, numbing, hyper-arousal, hyper-vigilance)
- major depression (temper outbursts, tiredness, worthlessness, hopelessness, helplessness, irritability, insomnia, restlessness, loss of appetite or overeating)

- complex trauma (persistent feelings of emptiness, anger, sadness, self-mutilation, preoccupation with the perpetrator)
- generalised anxiety disorders (overanxious, fearful, constantly worried)

The behavioural effects proposed by CSVV (2016) include but are not limited to:

- alcohol abuse (to numb and forget the traumatic memories of GBV)
- suicidal ideations (to escape from the abuse)
- low self-esteem (due to being told that you are useless and stupid all the time)
- lack of confidence (due to being told that you are nothing and stupid) • living in fear (due to the violent nature of the relationship)
- isolation (due to the controlling behaviour of the abuser, who isolates the victim from family members, friends and colleagues)
- making excuses for the violent behaviour of the abuser

Were (2019) suggested that gender-based violence serves to perpetuate male power and control and is sustained by silence and denial; this results in a social toll and unnecessary burden on the individual and ultimately on social health services.

According to Johnson, Widnall and Benya (2018), numerous studies have shown links between sexual harassment and a decline in psychological and professional well-being. As a result, researchers have established a conceptual model of the factors that predict sexual harassment experiences/antecedents and the outcomes associated with sexual harassment experiences. Johnson, Widnall and Benya (2018) demonstrated that women's experiences of sexual harassment are associated with reductions in their professional, psychological, and physical health. Their research also showed that the relationships between sexual harassment and these outcomes remain significant even when controlling for:

- The experiences of other stressors (e.g., general job stress and trauma outside of the work),
- other features of the job (occupational level, organisational tenure, workload),
- personality (negative affectivity, neuroticism, narcissism), and
- other demographic factors (age, education level, race).

Johnson, Widnall and Benya (2018) noted that the more women experience sexual harassment and gender-based violence, the more they think about leaving and many ultimately do so. The study noted the net result of sexual harassment was, therefore, a loss of talent, which can be costly to organisations and science, engineering, and medicine. It had shown that even low-frequency incidents of sexual harassment can have negative consequences and that these women's experiences are statistically distinguishable from women who experienced no sexual harassment. Not surprisingly, they added that as the frequency of sexual harassment experiences goes up, women experience significantly worse job-related and psychological outcomes. Johnson, Widnall and Benya (2018) further stated that sexual harassment takes a toll on women's professional well-being.

Rape is a life-threatening act and victims experience intense emotional, psychological as well as behavioural effects. They manifest symptoms typical of post-traumatic stress disorder such as fear, shock, disbelief (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders -IV (Bell, 1994). Victims may also be at risk of unwanted pregnancy as well as contracting sexually transmitted diseases such as the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV), which causes acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). Following the rape, victims often struggle to regain a level of functionality similar to the one they had prior to the incident of rape. In most cases, victims' reactions after rape are typical of the rape trauma syndrome. Knowledge of this syndrome is important in understanding the experiences of the victim. This results in various behavioural, somatic and psychological reactions. (Dastile, 2004)

It is also worth noting that the indirect cost of the effects on victims ultimately impacts society and the economy of the country. Victims miss work, resign or do not complete their studies as a result of the physical or psychological effects. This leads to a loss of tax revenue. Many victims are killed, and the costs and consequences are severe on their immediate families. Witnesses of sexual harassment and gender-based violence especially the young are likely to become violent later in life. This costs the country money to try cases and imprison them for their violent behaviour. Victims also use various government services as a result of the abuse, adding to the burden and cost of systems that are already overburdened. In short, violence costs society and the economy.

3.7.1 CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT UNIVERSITIES

Sexual harassment is a pervasive problem at universities. Sexual harassment and gender-based violence violate and remove the inherent human dignity, human rights and fundamental freedom enshrined in a country's legal framework. It is morally, ethically and inhumane to treat a person with such disdain and indignity. Gender-based violence and sexual harassment reflect and reinforce inequalities between men and women and result in compromised health, dignity, security and autonomy of victims.

Wood, et al. (2018) discussed the deleterious mental health, physical health, and academic outcomes of students who experience or are exposed to sexual harassment. They advanced that sexual harassment correlates with negative outcomes, including depression, post-traumatic stress symptoms, diminished health, perceived isolation and helplessness, internalised shame, disordered eating, problematic alcohol abuse, nausea and sleeplessness and menstrual disorders as well as decreased academic satisfaction, perceptions of faculty engagements and performances. This is supported by many researchers (Young and Hegarty, 2019; Paquette, et al., 2019; Romito, et al., 2017; 2019). They all noted that the repercussions and effects of sexual harassment and gender-based violence on the victim are profound. Mamaru, et al. (2015) revealed that female students subjected to the harassment suffered from psychological distress. Julie (2013) and Norman, et al. (2012) also came to the same conclusion. Kheswa (cited in Joseph, 2015) noted that students in universities in Africa, suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder, neuroticism, and HIV and/or other sexually transmitted infections. Intense anxiety, melancholia and irrational behaviour become common among the victims of sexual harassment (Joseph, 2015; Obiozor and Osuala, Young and Hegarty, 2019; Bondestam and Lundqvist, 2020).

Many researchers agree that sexual harassment and assault have serious repercussions and effects on a student's performance. (Kabaya, 2016; Renzetti, et al., 2012; Boyle and McKinzie, 2018; Onoyase, 2019). They concurred that academic performance suffers and concentration and victim participation in academic pursuits are reduced. In essence, the environment becomes toxic and unproductive to the students who suffer psychological, emotional and physical distress by being in the same environment as the perpetrator. According to Obiozor and Osuala (2018), this may result in increased withdrawal and drop out from the institution and academic environment. This is evident in a study by Ekore (2012) in Nigeria that revealed that

many female students give up university education as they want to be free from sexual harassment.

3.8 APPROACHES TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT UNIVERSITIES

On the Universities Australia (2022), webpage a set of non-binding guidelines is available. These guidelines refer to recording data, timeframes for reporting, resolutions and criminal investigations and indicated that the majority of the universities have implemented the measures since July 2018, and audits show that it is working on addressing the issues of sexual harassment. The biggest challenge noted, however, is addressing sexual assault and harassment is much bigger than the university sector.

Most universities (Iowa, Michigan, Monash, and UCT) have a sexual harassment/misconduct policy to address issues of sexual assault and harassment. However, the issues can only be effective if and when incidences are reported. Rosenthal and Banks (2018) proposed five areas of action for universities: leadership and governance; changing attitudes and behaviours, university response to sexual assault and sexual harassment; monitoring and evaluation of residential colleges and university residences. Benya (2019) insisted that universities need to treat sexual harassment as a violation of research integrity. Hites, et al. (2019) argued that whilst there is no panacea for alleviating campus safety, monitoring the environment is a key component and suggested that in addition to trauma interventions, there is a need to improve the campus environment by paying attention to both prevention and support services. Campbell, et al. (2017) added that policies and programmes must be put into place to promote awareness and sensitise the campus community about unwanted sexual experiences. They further added that attention must be given to supporting survivors.

The CSVr (2016) suggested the following evidence-based recommendations as a road map for colleges and universities to consider and adapt to their particular circumstances:

➤ **RECOMMENDATION 1: Create diverse, inclusive, and respectful environments.**

- a. Academic institutions and their leaders should take explicit steps to achieve greater gender and racial equity in hiring and promotions, and thus improve the representation of women at every level.

- b. Academic institutions and their leaders should take steps to foster greater cooperation, respectful work behaviour, and professionalism at the faculty, staff, and student/trainee levels, and should evaluate faculty and staff on these criteria in hiring and promotion.
- c. Academic institutions should combine anti-harassment efforts with civility-promotion programmes.
- d. Academic institutions should cater their training to specific populations (in academia these should include students/trainees, staff, faculty, and those in leadership) and should follow best practices.
- e. Academic institutions should utilise training approaches that develop skills among participants to interrupt and intervene when inappropriate behaviour occurs.
- f. Anti-sexual harassment training programmes should focus on changing behaviour, not on changing beliefs. Programmes should focus on clearly communicating behavioural expectations, specifying consequences for failing to meet these expectations, and identifying the mechanisms to be utilised when these expectations are not met. Training programmes should not be based on the avoidance of legal liability.

➤ **RECOMMENDATION 2: Address the most common form of sexual harassment and gender-based harassment.**

- a. Pay increased attention to and enact policies that cover gender harassment as a means of addressing the most common form of sexual harassment and of preventing other types of sexually harassing behaviour.

➤ **RECOMMENDATION 3: Move beyond legal compliance to address culture and climate.**

- a. Sexual harassment needs to be addressed as a significant culture and climate issue that requires institutional leaders to engage with and listen to students and other campus community members.

➤ **RECOMMENDATION 4: Improve transparency and accountability.**

➤ **RECOMMENDATION 5: Diffuse the hierarchical and dependent relationship between trainees and faculty.**

- **RECOMMENDATION 6: Provide support for the target.**
- **RECOMMENDATION 7: Strive for strong and diverse leadership.**
- **RECOMMENDATION 8: Measure progress.**
- **RECOMMENDATION 9: Incentivise change.**
- **RECOMMENDATION 10: Encourage the involvement of professional societies and other organisations.**
- **RECOMMENDATION 11: Initiate legislative action.**
- **RECOMMENDATION 12: Conduct necessary research.**
- **RECOMMENDATION 15: Make the entire academic community responsible for reducing and preventing sexual harassment.**

Whilst guidelines exist on how universities should respond, Durbach (2018) believed that an absence of a sexual harassment policy is among the prime reasons that many students do not even report their experiences. Gouws and Kritzingier (2007) reported that within the past two decades, universities have had to prioritise issues of sexual harassment. Most universities have, therefore, introduced policies and grievance procedures to deal with sexual harassment.

This study will engage students in an empowerment and transformative programme that will assist them in becoming actively involved in developing programmes free from harassment and violence for them, their colleagues and the broader university community.

University policy, according to Deputy Minister, Buti Manamela (2018), was needed not only to deter gender-based violence but also to ensure that victims are supported and linked to care and support. We have decided to take action against gender-based violence, a central issue in our student support work on all campuses. Young female students face a myriad of harassment and discrimination issues. Deputy Minister, Buti Manamela (2018) said that a new generation of men was needed to act against gender-based violence. This army of good men must stand up and be fine examples for the boy child and teach him that girls do not need to lose their power for him to assert his masculinity.

The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET, 2020) adopted its first-ever policy framework to address gender-based violence at universities in South Africa. This Policy Framework to Address Gender-based Violence in the Post-School Education and Training System is the Department of Higher Education and Training's response to the multi-sectorial,

policy and programming framework provided by the National Strategic Plan on Gender-Based Violence and Femicide (2020). The scope of the Policy Framework is the entire PSET system – national and regional offices, institutions, entities and related organisations, including universities, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) colleges and community education and training (CET) colleges, as well as skills providers. The Policy Framework applies also to all students, whether full-or part-time, residential or online, as well as all staff of institutions and organisations. It also applies to registered and legally operating private PSET institutions (higher education institutions, colleges and skills providers) as well as workplaces and where practical learning or workplace-based learning takes place as these too are required to operate in terms of the Constitution (Act No 108 of 1996), and other applicable laws. It, therefore, applies to the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs), Quality Councils reporting to the DHET, as well as the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS), the National Skills Authority (NSA), the Human Resource Development Council of South Africa (HRDC), and the National Skills Fund (NSF) (DHET, 2020).

The high-level implementation strategy, released by DHET (2020) addresses the coordination needed to ensure the sound and sustained implementation of GBV policies; to formulate policy instruments and steering mechanisms to be used in the implementation, and mandate the formation of steering mechanisms. The Policy Framework then outlines the instruments for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the Policy Framework. It also includes brief descriptions of institutional implementation, funding, and the evaluation and review of the Policy Framework.

DHET (2020) stated in the Framework that GBV is a product of a system of unequal power relations and is both reproduced and in turn reproduces in society. The historical origins and forms of GBV can be meaningfully understood in the context of patriarchy, dominance and unequal power relations embedded in different economic, political, cultural and social structures of any given society. Violence is a means to reproduce and reinforce these unequal social relations. GBV manifests itself in different ways. It has physical, sexual, emotional and psychological, as well as economic dimensions. These forms may vary across different societies and at different historical points. The increasing availability and sophistication of digital technologies further spirals the expression of GBV in new ways and illustrates the need for institutions to be alert to these changing manifestations of violence and abuse in order to ensure

their responses, both to prevent the occurrences of GBV and support survivors of GBV and remain relevant and up to date. The Framework, therefore, links the prevalence of GBV in PSET institutions with GBV challenges in the broader South African society and indicates how the PSET system can contribute to the elimination of GBV in collaboration with social partners and other government departments. GBV affects all genders in their diversity, and it mainly affects the vulnerable in society in terms of race, class, disability, gender, citizenship and geography. In many cases, the most vulnerable in society are often the survivors of GBV. The use of violence to institute and maintain particular forms of gender relations is also influenced in complex ways by perpetrators' ideas about their victim's race, disability, social class and citizenship status, among other factors. These factors similarly influence how others respond to instances of GBV, as well as individuals' access to helpful resources (Department of Higher Education, 2020).

The DHET (2020) in the GBV policy framework revealed that emanating from research on GBV in Post School Education and Training (PSET) institutions, GBV manifested in the following ways:

- i. Grading or rating of appearance by verbal comment, wolf-whistling, or other noises;
- ii. Stalking and repeated, unwanted requests for dates;
- iii. Derogatory comments, about people's gender non-conformity;
- iv. The use of work (either academic or administrative) as an excuse for inappropriate, private meetings;
- v. Cyber-bullying;
- vi. Physical assaults against individuals perceived as gender-nonconforming;
- vii. Requests/demands for sex in exchange for improved marks, accommodation in residences, or other needs and benefits;
- viii. Spying, or intruding upon women and men in residences while they are bathing or dressing;
- ix. Streaking and flashing, and
- x. In the case of abusive relationships, preventing, or interfering with a partner's studies, including by withholding financial support for studies.

The policy, therefore, makes it mandatory for PSET institutions to address GBV through the broader legislative context, through advocacy, communication, prevention at various levels

including security and providing support to survivors. The Framework (2020) also revealed that PSET institutions lacked the basic enabling environment to reduce the occurrence of GBV, and as a result, this threatens social inclusion, community and institutional stability, personal safety and well-being and the quality of the PSET system.

The Policy Framework to address gender-based violence in the Post School Education and Training System (PSET) (2020), released by Dr B.E. Nzimande, the Minister of Higher Education, Science and Technology on 27 July 2020, provides the following guiding principles for PSET Institutions when they develop policies to curb gender-based violence.

- I. **Rights-based:** The values and rights contained in the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) must underpin all policy processes and procedures. Must actively seek to give expression to equality; dignity; freedom and security of the person; and bodily and psychological integrity.
- II. **Comprehensive and multifaceted approaches to GBV:** institutions' responses to GBV cannot focus on one aspect or manifestation of the problem alone. All forms of GBV must be responded to. Follow-on interventions address GBV must be multi-faceted, comprising prevention and information; established structures; confidentiality, trust and empathy; complaints processes and procedures; support to complainants; and (where possible) assistance to the perpetrator in changing their behaviour.
- III. **Comprehensive and multi-faceted approaches to GBV prevention:** PSET institutions' responses to GBV must include comprehensive prevention, education and information about GBV policies and programmes including social mobilisation activities and campaigns intended to promote safety on campus and prevention of GBV.
- IV. **Specialisation:** Responding to GBV requires specialised knowledge and skills. All staff and students involved in addressing GBV in any way must be able and skilled to handle it. This includes being gender-sensitive, receiving ongoing training and support and conducting their work in accordance with clear guidelines, protocols and codes of ethics. Programmes and other responses must reject ideologies that perpetuate gender stereotyping or cultural beliefs, excuse or justify gender-based violence or blame complainants.
- V. **Confidentiality:** All responses to GBV must maintain the confidentiality and privacy of the complainant whose trust, safety and physical and psychological needs must be prioritised.

- VI. **Complainant-centred:** Assistance to the complainant must support and encourage their sense of personal control, which includes respecting the complainant's informed decision at every stage of the process. Reporting, investigative or support staff must offer comprehensive information about all processes and options in a manner that is non-judgemental, appropriate, clear and sensitive to the complainant in terms of language, culture, disability, gender and sexuality.
- VII. **Zero tolerance:** Policies must contain a clear statement by the institution rejecting all forms of GBV. This message must not be diluted or made ambiguous by the policy referring to false complaints, or procedures for dealing with allegedly false complaints. Should investigations yield evidence of false complaints these can be dealt with in the same way misconduct is ordinarily dealt with.
- VIII. **Accountability:** Implementation of the policy must be routinely monitored, reported and evaluated and senior managers held accountable for its effective implementation. This includes maintaining documentation and records in accordance with health, police and legal requirements and the need for confidentiality, security and choice.

Therefore, PSET institutions, as stated in the Policy Framework to address gender-based violence in the Post School Education and Training System (2020) must be prepared to work with at least six specific groups (staff and students) in responding to GBV:

- i) Those who have already experienced GBV prior to attending, or being employed by, a PSET institution.
- ii) Those who were subjected to GBV by another student or staff member while employed by, or studying at, a PSET institution.
- iii) Those who were subjected to GBV by third parties over whom PSET institutions have no jurisdiction.
- iv) Those who have behaved violently.
- v) Those who may be at risk of behaving violently.
- vi) Lastly, the entire institution's staff and students form a very important group who must be made aware of GBV, how to avoid situations where GBV can occur and what to do in an emergency.

3.9 POLICY MANDATES AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK

South Africa has ratified the following international instruments since 1994 as listed in the Policy Framework to address gender-based violence in the Post School Education and Training System (2020):

3.9.1 INTERNATIONALLY

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) calls for the following measures:

- Adopting and/or implementing and periodically reviewing and analysing legislation to ensure its effectiveness in eliminating violence against women, emphasising the prevention of violence and the prosecution of offenders;
- Providing women who are subjected to violence with access to the mechanisms of justice, and as provided in national legislation, to just and effective remedies for the harm they have suffered;
- Informing women of their rights in seeking redress through such mechanisms of justice;
- Creating and strengthening institutional mechanisms so that women can report acts of violence against them in a safe, confidential environment, free from the fear of penalties or retaliation;
- Create, improve or develop a funding model for training programmes for personnel dealing with gender-based violence in order to ensure fair treatment of victims, and
- Provide psycho-social support and legal support for victims of gender-based violence.

The Policy Framework (2019) endorses the measures of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) as well as Article 4 of the African Union Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003). South Africa has further committed itself to the realisation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2016). Goal 5 addresses gender equality, as one of its targets, the elimination of all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.

3.9.2 GENERAL LEGISLATIVE AND POLICY CONTEXT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No 108 of 1996), as the supreme law, prohibits GBV in all its manifestations. Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic is the Bill of Rights ensures the equality and human dignity of all citizens.

3.9.2.1 The Constitution of Republic of South Africa (Act No 108 of 1996)

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No 108 of 1996) is the highest law of the land and defines the rights to which all citizens are entitled. In relation to violence, the following provisions of the Constitution apply:

- **Section 9:** Everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law. The state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth. No person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone.
- **Section 10:** Everyone has the right to human dignity and the right to have their dignity respected and protected.
- **Section 12(1):** Everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person, which includes the right to be free from all forms of violence from either private or public sources.
- **Section 12(2):** Everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity, which includes the right: to security in and control over the body; and not to be subject to medical and scientific experiments without their informed consent.

3.9.2.2 The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (Act No 4 of 2000)

The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (Act No 4 of 2000) (PEPUDA) prohibits discrimination of any kind on the grounds of sex, gender or sexual orientation and makes it clear that GBV is considered a prohibited form of discrimination. Its

provisions have broad applications that extend beyond the workplace and as a result, places a duty on all PSET institutions to promote equality.

3.9.3.3 Employment Equity Act (Act No 55 of 1998)

The Employment Equity Act (Act No 55 of 1998) states that “No person may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against an employee, in any employment policy or practice,” and mandates that employers take steps to eliminate unfair discrimination in the workplace.

3.9.2.4 Code of Good Practice on the Handling of Sexual Harassment in the Workplace (2008)

The Code of Good Practice on the Handling of Sexual Harassment in the Workplace (2008) was developed under section 203(1) of the Labour Relations Act (Act No 66 of 1995). The Code recommends that all persons designated to support and assist complainants have the appropriate skills and experience; are appropriately trained and given adequate resources to carry out these duties. The Code suggests that employers seek to maintain an environment where the dignity of all employees is respected, complainants are taken seriously, and complainants do not fear reprisals. Where employers are aware of incidents of sexual harassment and fail to take action against the perpetrator, they may be held vicariously liable for their occurrence by the courts.

Labour legislation and the right to equality have direct and obvious applicability to PSET institutions in their role as workplaces. PSET institutions are more than workplaces; however, they are also educational institutions required to promote a positive learning environment. This includes a fiduciary duty towards students that obligates institutions to protect students from harm while on campus and from persons employed or associated with the institution. PSET institutions are therefore required to uphold the rights to freedom and security of the person, which incorporate the right to be free from all forms of violence and take note of the civil and criminal laws emanating from these provisions in the Bill of Rights.

3.9.2.5 Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act (Act No 32 of 2007)

The Sexual Offences and Related Matters Amendment Act (SORMAA) (Act No 32 of 2007) is the main body of legislation dealing with sexual violence against both adults and children. It sets out comprehensive definitions for a range of sexual offences, from flashing to rape. This

Institutions must consider how the Act recognises an abuse of power or authority can undermine consent and may mean that quid pro quo harassment, which entails the denial of particular resources such as improved marks, access to a residence, or the offer of a job or promotion unless sex is acceded to, can also be dealt with as rape. The Act also introduces a supportive structure aimed at ensuring its effective implementation. This structure encompasses the establishment of an Inter-Sectorial Committee, the adoption of a National Policy Framework (NPF) for the Management of Sexual Offences and the development of national instructions, directives and training courses for police officials, prosecutors and medical practitioners dealing with sexual offences. Importantly, the NPF also places certain duties on DHET concerning sexual offences.

3.9.2.6 The Protection from Harassment Act (Act No 17 of 2011)

The Protection from Harassment Act (Act No 17 of 2011) addresses harassment and stalking behaviours that violate constitutional provisions of the right to privacy and dignity of individual persons. The Act provides for an inexpensive civil remedy to protect a person from behaviour that may not constitute a crime but may impact negatively on various rights of an individual. It aims to address harassing behaviour by means of a court order, in terms of which the harasser is prohibited from continuing with the act of harassment. If the harasser breaches a protection order, he/she commits an offence that is punishable with a fine or imprisonment. The Act also introduces important protection from digital forms of harassment.

3.9.2.7 South Africa's Domestic Violence Act (Act No 116 of 1998)

Intimate partner violence is one type of family violence dealt with by South Africa's Domestic Violence Act (DVA), (Act No 116 of 1998). Relationships governed by the Act include "engagement, dating or customary relationship, including an actual or perceived romantic, intimate or sexual relationship of any duration" irrespective of whether these relationships are heterosexual or the same sex. The Act also recognises that domestic relationships can exist between people who share a residence but have no sexual or romantic relationship. This brings both housemates and students in residences within the ambit of the Act's protection. The Act defines domestic violence as including, among other things, harassment, abuse of a physical, sexual, emotional, verbal and/or physical nature, stalking and intimidation, as well as any other form of controlling behaviour. (Policy Framework to address Gender-Based Violence in the Post-School Education and Training System (2020)

3.10 CONCLUSION

The existence of legislature, policy guidelines, and policy mandates and the policies themselves at higher learning institutions cannot guarantee safe and happy spaces for women and or victims. Typically, institutions refer to the policies and procedures when abuse manifests itself, but it is not enough to have policies alone.

There has to be a concerted, deliberate, realistic and practical endeavour to change institutional cultures. Platforms must be created to protect the dignity of women.

In the words of President Cyril Ramaphosa, (2019)

We have lost our way, the crisis of violence against women and children is a great shame on our nation. It goes against our African values and everything we stand for as people. We grew up being taught that as men and boys we must respect women and protect children. We were taught to never, ever raise our hand against a woman. But we have lost our way... Let us move together, a nation resolute and above all united, to end gender-based violence and femicide together (South African Department of Government Communication and Information System; 2019).

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the details of and justification for the research approach and paradigm. The pertinent issues related to the research design are explained. The research instruments, sampling procedures and are discussed. Details are provided about the specific tools that were used in this study to collect information and analyze data from the interviews. The dependability of the research tool and the credibility of the findings are discussed. This is followed by the ethical issues that were considered and addressed in my study. The chapter concludes with a summary emphasising the main points.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM/DESIGN

Thomas (2017) and De Vos, et al. (2019) define a research design, as a blueprint or plan of a study. Dastile (2004) adds that this includes the, who, what, where, when and how of the subject matter.

The qualitative approach was used in this study. Qualitative research is a type of scientific research that consists of an investigation that:

- Seeks answers to a question;
- Systematically uses a predefined set of procedures to answer the question;
- Collects evidence;
- Produces findings that were not determined in advance, and
- Produces findings that are applicable beyond the immediate boundaries of the study.

The strength of qualitative research is its ability to provide complex textual descriptions of how people experience a given research issue. It provides information about the 'human' side of an issue (Denzin and Lincoln, 2012). I used the qualitative approach to examine sexual harassment in the natural setting of the university without any manipulations. According to Welsh (2003), qualitative research by its nature lends itself to sexual harassment studies. Further to this, Denzin and Lincoln (2012) indicated that qualitative research attempts to make sense of phenomena in terms of the meaning that people bring to them. Two peculiar characteristics of qualitative research as suggested by De Vos, et al. (2005, 2019) is that it

lends itself to multiple methods and that it explores the worldview of the research subject. Hammarberg, Kirkman and De Lacy (2016) indicated that qualitative research study methods are used to answer questions about experience, meaning and perspective, most often from the standpoint of the participant. This type of data, they add, does not lend itself to counting or measuring. Qualitative research techniques, according to Hammarberg, Kirkman and De Lacy (2016) include small-group discussions for investigating beliefs, attitudes and concepts of normative behaviour; semi-structured interviews that seek views on a focussed topic; in-depth interviews to understand a condition, experience, or event from a personal perspective; and analysis of texts and documents.

Qualitative research being dynamic and interactive allowed the participants to explore feelings and experiences. This research was in accord with De Vos, et al. (2019) in that qualitative research is more than a formula, it is concerned with understanding.

Avery, Cavanaugh and Williams (cited in Welsh, 2003) proposed the use of qualitative methods to study sexual harassment. This, they believe, is because important concepts and processes are not adequately captured by survey items and substantiate their claim by reporting that whilst much is written about the connection between sexual harassment and the gendered nature of organisations, these gendered processes are difficult to capture using discrete survey items. According to Welsh (2003), qualitative research is capable of uncovering the ambiguity that surrounds sexuality and sexual harassment in organisations. Recent studies by Oni, Tshitangano and Akinsola (2019) in South Africa also suggest that quantitative study is more suited to sexual harassment and victimisation of students in higher institutions in South Africa.

The research sought to find understanding and meaning in the shared experiences of the sample. The focus will be on the interpretation and negotiation of meaning that the subjects bring to their social world.

Thomas (2017) defines a paradigm as shared ideas of inquiry and they are rules of procedure. TerreBlanche and Durrheim (2004) added that the research paradigm is all-encompassing and has three dimensions: ontology, epistemology and methodology. Ontological and epistemological aspects are a person's worldview and influence perceptions and aspects of reality a great deal. A single event may be interpreted in numerous and varied ways. According

to De Vos, et al. (2005, 2019), there are three major research perspectives, each with its own ontology, epistemology, methodology, and data collection and analysis methods. These are:

- Objectivism
- Interpretivist
- Constructionism

For this study, the Interpretivist paradigm was used. Thanh and Thanh (2015) suggested that the Interpretivist paradigm is a trend in research that prefers using qualitative methods in data collection. They add that researchers who are using the Interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methods often seek experiences, understandings and perceptions of individuals for their data to uncover reality rather than rely on numbers of statistics. The Interpretivist paradigm, Thanh and Thanh (2015) further elucidate, allows researchers to view the world through the perceptions and experiences of the participants. The Interpretivist paradigm also allows the researcher to then use the experiences to construct, interpret and understand the data gathered. Key to this paradigm is participation, collaboration and engagement.

Interpretivist paradigms are based on observation and interpretation. Thomas (2017) and De Vos, et al. (2019) concurred that the Interpretivist paradigm focussed on knowledge being everywhere and socially constructed. He added that the knower's own value position is considered in the process.

This study is about the students on campus and the way that they interrelate, what they think and how they form ideas on and act out sexual harassment and gender-based violence, and how this constructs their world-view. According to Willis (cited in Thanh and Thanh, 2015) Interpretivist researchers usually seek to understand a particular context with the belief that reality is socially constructed. Using the Interpretivist paradigm, a close examination of the sample in context, took place, paying attention to nuances of behaviour and the meaning that they gave to the research topic. The Interpretivist paradigm which suggests that knowledge is socially constructed allowed the researcher to 'make sense' (Eisenhart, 1989) of the sexual harassment on campus from the perspective of the participants. The use of the Interpretivist paradigm allowed participants the opportunity to talk about their own experiences and give meaning to them. Dudovskiy (2018) suggests that the Interpretivist approach is based on the naturalistic approach to data collection such as interviews and observations, similar to what is

used in this study. Using the Interpretivist paradigm, the researcher immersed herself in the study and the context by responding to the sample extensively, attending to every nuance of the participants' behaviour, looking for clues to understand and give meaning to the interviews. The aim was to explain the subjective reasons and meanings that lie behind sexual harassment.

4.3 METHODOLOGY

The methodology used was participatory action research. Qualitative participatory action research aims to explore and discover issues about the problem on hand because very little is known about the problem. According to De Vos, et al. (2019), action research is applied research and dispenses with the line between research and social action. De Vos, et al. (2019) continued that those being studied in this type of research, participate in the process, incorporate popular knowledge, focus on empowerment, and the research increases awareness.

Furthermore, the Interpretivist paradigm and the qualitative participatory action approach allowed the research participants the opportunity to voice their concerns and practices. This influenced the choice of this methodology. The action research design illustrated by Thomas (2017) was used. The cycle has the following stages: define the problem, examine the idea or problem and gather information; plan action; act, and lastly reflect on the consequences.

Figure 4. 1 A circle of Action research steps



In the first stage, the problem was identified, the researcher then redefined and formulated steps to develop the intervention. This study focussed on students' ideas, perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment. These formed the basis of the data. As the next step, an exploratory exercise to collect data was conducted, primarily for the purpose of gaining first-hand experience of university students in a campus setting. Thick data that reflected the voices, feelings, actions and interactions of university students with regard to sexual harassment was collected. I aimed to elicit from the participants a common understanding regarding the nature, extent, causes and consequences of sexual harassment, the effectiveness of current strategies within the institution and suggested strategies. After analysing the data using the above factors, I planned and organised intervention strategies to disharmony.

The following characteristics of action research, that numerous researchers (De Vos, 2019; Denzin and Lincoln, 2012; Thomas, 2017) concur on, was followed:

- The research was committed to the development of knowledge as any research should be. The action research tried to understand the role of knowledge as an instrument of power and control.
- The research sought a more holistic understanding and a better way of achieving change. It was important to glean the viewpoints of both victims and harassers to create a more accurate, critical reflection of sexual harassment to realise the human potential to change and to mobilise to solve problems.
- The applied research methodology was directed at sexual harassment as a practical issue.
- The process was based on self-development, which required the participants to organise themselves into action
- Conventional tools of social research were used. The qualitative approach and the Interpretivist paradigm combined with focus groups, in-depth interviews, and participant observations were used. This allowed a more reflective voice and opinion of students on campus.
- Like all action research, the focus was on the involvement and participation of all participants. The researcher and participants were equal partners in the research process and the participants participated in restorative justice programmes to find solutions to the issues. Everyone involved in the research had shared ownership of the process. In keeping with De Vos, et al. (2019), like other action research the researcher

was an outsider to an extent, allowing the researcher to take the lead, identify and involve all participants and serve as a resource person and mediator.

- The discussion on participant views and desired outcomes was incorporated throughout the study. The participants were thereby attracted to the study and felt involved.
- An important element of the research was reflection. This was a dialectic process. It looked inward to the thoughts and thought processes of each participant and then outward to the action exhibited. Reflection was intentional. Reflection on action worked at three levels in the study. Reflection of the action of the researcher, enabled revisiting previous behaviour through deliberate and critical self-examination. Secondly, the reflection of the participant's action enabled the researcher to see beyond the surface behaviour to achieve an authentic understanding of the participants. Thirdly, the reflection of the context within the university campus and how this leads to sexual harassment enabled through time for the participants to change their perspectives and a greater understanding of their behaviour. The reflective process led to transformation. Being Interpretivist in nature, having understood the study from the perspective of the participant, allowed the researcher to be involved in the activity as an insider and to reflect on the activity as an outsider.

Central to action research, De Vos, et al. (2019) believes is the truth, in this case, the research on sexual harassment on the campus and the solutions (actions) faced by the said students occurred simultaneously. Action research presented an opportunity for the researcher to become involved in the research. According to McNiff and Whitehead (2011), action research embodies improvement and supports the creation of personal theories of practice. Drawing on McNiff's (2013) theory, knowledge was generated, which emerged from the practice of the personal forms of action and knowledge of the participants. Action research enabled the participants to learn steadily in a 'self-reflective spiral' (McNiff and Whitehead (2011), of acting and observing, reflecting and making mistakes and preplanning thereafter. In this way, not only did the experience and perceptions of the participant and researcher change but so too did their personal views.

Action research is 'real world research' (McNiff and Whitehead; 2011). This research focussed on empowerment and increased awareness, which De Vos, et al. (2019) regards as being central to action research. This made it easier to meet the aim of the study of tackling sexual harassment among university students and to understand and explore the experiences and

perceptions of students on campus. The action research was carried out, so as to change the practice and at the same time persuade the participants and wider campus community to change their behaviour. Action research, according to McNiff and Whitehead (2011) resists closure, for each end has a new beginning, and “we shall not cease from exploration” (Elliot, 1991).

4.4 POPULATION/TARGET POPULATION

Davies and Hughes (2014) define population as a category of people from whom you intend to draw your sample from and write about. The population of this study is the students of Yasethekwin University. The process of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population is known as sampling according to Davies and Hughes (2014).

Twenty university students participated. The participants consisted of twelve female, five male, one queer and two bisexual students, between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five. It is significant to understand that both males and females construct gender. Men play an active role in shaping women’s identity and controlling behaviour. For this reason, the study also gives a voice to male students. The study was an attempt to explore women’s experiences and perceptions of sexual harassment through their actual lived experiences and it is for this reason that more women were sampled. While the focus of this study is not on men and masculinity, it is important to understand how they negotiate their identity since they are active players in the construction of female identities. Since identity is a personal construct, it was only once the participants were selected that some participants identified themselves as queer and bisexual and wanted to be known as such. The group was therefore diverse in terms of identity, culture, language, ethnicity, race and socio-economic status.

4.5. SAMPLING METHOD

De Vos, et al. (2005, 2019) states that sampling comprises elements or a subset of the population under study. De Vos (2019) adds that sampling is studied to understand the population from which it was drawn. Sampling involves taking a portion of a population and considering it representative of the total population. Sampling takes place as it is more feasible to study a small sample than the total population. Davies and Hughes (2014) and Thomas (2017) suggest that generalisation from the sample is based on working with the sample with

the assumption that any other portion of the same population will reveal the same results. The sample in the research is undergraduate students.

Non-probability sampling method was used. Non-probability sampling represents a group of sampling techniques that help researchers to select units from a population that they are interested in studying. Subjects in a non-probability sample are usually selected based on their accessibility or by the purposive personal judgement of the researcher. Non-probability sampling is often divided into:

- Quota sampling,
- Purposive sampling,
- Convenience sampling, and
- Snowball sampling

In this study, purposive sampling was used to select the participants. Davies and Hughes (2014) postulated that purposive sampling allows the researcher to choose individuals who are deemed typical of the population. Patton (2002) added that the benefit of purposive sampling is the patterns that emerge are of interest and value in capturing the core experiences and shared issues of the setting. The selection of purposive sample is often accomplished by applying expert knowledge of the population to select in a non-random manner a sample of elements that contains the most characteristics and typical attributes and represents a cross-section of the population. This sampling method enabled the choice of subjects that contain the characteristics, and representation of the population who would most likely have an informed opinion on the topic either having experienced and/or been exposed to sexual harassment in one form or another so as to provide rich data.

Purposive sampling was used, so as to meet the defined objectives designed to answer the research questions. Purposive sampling enabled the generation of rich data from a small sample and provide a detailed analysis of their understating of sexual harassment on the chosen university campus. According to De Vos, et al. (2019) a non-probability purposive sampling is drawn when a researcher seeks out particular study elements that meet specific criteria that the researcher has identified. In the interviews with young people about their sexual harassment experiences, I used a purposive sampling strategy by using SRC knowledge of

participants to ensure the inclusion of participants who would have had a range of harassment experiences, from relatively minor experiences to much more severe experiences.

4.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

An interview schedule (see Appendix C) was used to guide the individual interviews. An interview schedule, according to De Vos, et al. (2019) is a set of questions used by the researcher to guide the interview process and reduce biases. The schedule of issues, questions and probes was a guide, without constricting the flow of the instruments being utilized. The interview schedule allowed the researcher to probe deeper into the responses given by participants.

For the purpose of this study, the interview schedule was structured in the following manner:

- Biographical Data: was included to determine, gender, age and ethnicity to determine whether this would affect perception and exposure to sexual harassment and gender-based violence on campus.
- Educational status: was included to establish the setting and year of exposure to the topic under examination.
- Sexually Harassing behaviour: the purpose of the scale was to determine what students perceive to be sexually harassing, so as to define the term according to sample perception.
- Nature and extent of the Harassment: these probes were included to explore and obtain as much information on the experience and extent of sexual harassment and gender-based violence on campus.
- Reaction and Opinion of cause of sexual Harassment: this was necessary to ascertain how students, victims, perpetrators and staff view, react and respond to sexual harassment and gender-based violence.
- Consequences of Sexual Harassment: the effects of sexual harassment and gender – based violence on the victims and perpetrators were included so as to determine the implementation of restorative justice.
- Prevention: the opinion of the victims and perpetrators, as well as observers on the prevention of sexually harassing behaviour was important to obtain first hand real data on the prevention of similar incidents.

Observation is the systematic description of the events, behaviours, and artefacts of a social setting. (Kawulich; 2005). According to Cohen, et al. (2011), one of the distinctive features of observation as a research process is that it offers the investigators the opportunity to gather live data from naturally occurring social situations. Coleman (2020) stated that an observation schedule is an analytical form or coding sheet, filled out by researchers during structured observation. It carefully specifies beforehand the categories of behaviour or events under scrutiny and under what circumstances they should be assigned to those categories. Observations are then fragmented, or coded, into these more manageable pieces of information, which are later aggregated into usable, quantifiable data. Coleman (2020) suggests that observations are one of many essential analytical devices that scientists can use to turn multifaceted and complex visual observations into usable research data.

According to Kawulich (2005), the researcher plays an integral role in the observation setting and it is an important consideration for the validity of the study. The quality of the data you are able to collect and your relationship with those who are being observed are affected by how you position yourself within the research setting. Observations assist the researcher to identify and guide relationships with participants; to learn how people in the setting interact and how things are organised and prioritised in that setting; to learn what is important to the people in the social setting under study; to become known to participants, and to learn what constitutes appropriate questions, how to ask them, and which questions may best help you to answer the research questions (Kawulich, 2005).

Observations assist to triangulate data. They are important to verify the findings derived from one source of data with those of another source. Observations assist to verify what you learned from participants in interviews. Observations further help you learn what is important to the participants. They help you determine how much time is spent on various activities, and who interacts with whom, and verify the non-verbal expression of feelings (Schmuck, 1997).

They provide an opportunity for you to record in writing what you have learned by taking field notes that can be used at a later time to recall what was observed. The various activities and interactions that occur in the setting include:

- i. What is happening, when, for how long, and with or by whom?
- ii. Observing participants' nonverbal behaviours and verbal behaviours alike.

iii. Paying close attention to conversations between participants

Focus groups discussions (see appendix D) were used. There were three focus groups. Not all participants took part in the focus group sessions. Microsoft teams was used to facilitate group discussions. Semi-structured questions were used. Participants were exposed to the probes and the reason for the groups. The following schedule was followed:

- Ice breaker and introduction
- Purpose of the research
- Ethical considerations
- Permission to record
- Stimulus scenario
- Discussion
- Feedback
- Evaluation and post discussion

The researcher acted as a facilitator in the process, so as to moderate the discussion among the participants in the group. The aim was to generate a discussion within the group.

4.7 RECRUITMENT PROCESS

The participants were recruited by referrals from members of the Student Representative Council who care and have an opinion about sexual harassment at the university.

Qualitative researchers sometimes rely on snowball sampling. According to Alvi (2016), in this case, a researcher might know of one or two people who the researcher wants to include in the study but then relies on those initial participants to help identify additional study participants. Thus, the researcher's sample builds and becomes larger as the study continues. This is sometimes called chain sampling. One research participant refers another, and that person refers another, and that person refers another, therefore a chain of potential participants is identified. Snowball sampling is an especially useful strategy when a researcher wishes to study some stigmatized group or behaviour. Having a previous participant vouch for the trustworthiness of the researcher may help new potential participants feel more comfortable about being included in the study. This method is useful when the type of population needed is not readily available.

According to Alvi (2016), a volunteer sample may also be used. In this sampling, the participants self-select to become part of the study. They approach the researcher to be included in the study. This type of sampling often results in generalizations and systematic errors. The people who participate have an interest in the topic investigated and cannot, therefore, represent people who have no interest in the topic under discussion.

Dastile (2004) in a research study examining the victimisation of female students at the University of Venda with specific reference to sexual harassment and rape, successfully used non-probability purposive sampling methods in the study. It allowed the researcher access to participants who had experienced the subject under investigation. The researcher was able to decide what data is to be collected and where it should be collected. Upon collection of this data, the analysis began until the sample was saturated, and no new data developed. The end result established and validated the relationship between different categories. Kabaya (2016), in a study on Understanding Sexual Harassment amongst students at a selected University of KwaZulu-Natal campus, used purposive snowballing sampling. In this study, I also adopted the purposive snowballing approach.

4.8 PARTICIPANTS

Below is the biographical information of the research participants. Actual names are substituted for pseudonyms, which will be used hereafter:

Table 4. 1 Biographical Information

NUMBER	PSEUDONYMS	MALE	FEMALE	QUEER	BI	INDIAN	AFRICAN	STUDENT ACCOMMODATION	HOME
1.	Andrea		X				X	X	
2.	Angela				X		X	X	
3.	Eve		X				X	X	
4.	Gerald	X				X			X
5.	Jabu		X				X	X	
6.	Kate				X		X	X	
7.	Lottie		X				X	X	
8.	Lunga	X					X	X	
9.	Mbali		X				X	X	
10.	Mthoko			X			X	X	
11.	Ndumiso	X					X	X	
12.	Nontobeko		X				X	X	
13.	Pauline		X				X	X	
14.	Phila	X					X	X	
15.	Phoebe		X				X	X	
16.	Portia		X				X	X	
17.	Pretty		X				X	X	
18.	Sindy		X				X	X	
19.	Sipho	X					X	X	
20.	Zola		X				X	X	

4.9 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Davies and Hughes (2014) stated that qualitative researcher is dynamic and interactive. The research is not bound by any step-by- step plan. Although the traditional data collection method of face-to-face personal interaction is recommended in research, the researcher in this study had to explore alternative data gathering strategies due to the COVID-19 pandemic and the disaster management regulations. Modern technology eliminated the difficulty of in-person contact. Eighteen participants were interviewed virtually via, Microsoft Teams and two via WhatsApp Video call. The researcher had a few uncertainties and difficulties with the recording of the interviews regarding the use of these technologies. Despite the initial nervousness during the interviews, the responses from participants were very detailed and engaging. They progressed as face-to-face interviews would. The interviews were recorded using recording apps.

All interviews were conducted in English. Despite the initial technical difficulties with the recording, the experience concurred with that of Chaurasia (2019) that taking advantage of the fourth industrial revolution may improve ways of doing research. The interviews enabled an understanding of the meaning attached to sexual harassment as well as the nature and extent. To avoid violating ethical issues in using social media to gather data, the recordings of data was stored using cloud technology with password protection and privacy settings were used on all platforms.

4.9.1 INTERVIEWS

Thomas (2017) describes an interview as a discussion with someone in an attempt to get information from them. He adds that they are conversations with purpose. Interviews are a means to gather data using pre-planned core questions. An interview provides an opportunity for direct personal contact and details and avoids misunderstandings or confusion. As this is a purposive sampling method which is a qualitative study in which comparable information is needed, semi-structured interviews took place. This enabled a degree of control over the topic under research, whilst allowing the sample the opportunity to determine the nature of their responses. Davies and Hughes (2014) suggested that small sample interviews enable a researcher to arrive at a conclusion, which is specific to the sample, but which gives a reflective or explanatory depth to the subject. Thomas (2017) is of the view that a semi-structured interview combines the structure of a list of issues with the freedom to follow up on points as

needed. Researchers such as De Vos, et al. (2005, 2019) and Thomas (2017) suggest that semi-structured interviews primarily focus on obtaining a detailed picture of the respondent's beliefs, feelings or perceptions regarding a particular topic. This type of interview is not fixed in its ways and enables follow up on particular interesting avenues that come up during the interview. An interview, according to Dastile (2004) provides an opportunity for personal contact between the researcher and the respondent and to obtain rich data which is not always possible in the case of questionnaires. Dastile (2004) adds that an advantage of interviews is due to the face-to-face relationship, the interviewer can prevent any misunderstandings or confusion the research participants could have interpreting the questions. Probing is also possible in order to get research participants to answer in more detail and with greater accuracy. Semi-structured interviews also make it possible to observe the overt and covert body language of the participants in their responses.

This was extremely useful in allowing a complex interpretation of the perspective on sexual harassment and how this relates to the research context. Tape recordings and transcriptions of verbatim interviews were conducted to avoid bias.

4.9.2 FOCUS GROUPS

Focus-group discussions were used to allow interaction and engagement within and among the participants. "A focus group usually consists of six to ten subjects led by a moderator" (Leavy 2014). It is characterised by a style of interviewing which does not direct the outcomes of the conversations, but where the primary concern is to encourage a range of perspectives on the topic of focus for the group. This form of interviewing is also economical time wise, producing a large amount of data in a short period. The focus group was conducted after a series of individual interviews to further explore the general perception and views of the participants towards sexual harassment on campus. The focus group was less structured than the interview, and the aim was to glean rich data from the group interaction and discussion.

In focus group interviews, participants are able to build on each other's ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view not attainable from individual interviews, while unexpected comments and new perspectives can easily be explored within the focus group and can add value to the study (De Vos, et al. 2005). The focus group followed the same semi-structure as the interview.

Ultimately the focus group was an attempt to triangulate data received from the other two source methods. There was a list of probes, structured so as to enable the creation of an analytical framework. The focus group was structured in the following manner:

- Stimulus scenario: this created a stimulating ethos to generate discussion. The scenario is based on a harassing context.
- Probes based on the stimulus scenario: group discussion focussed on individual and group responses to the stimulus scenario. This then focuses on campus life
- Evaluation of focus group: each participant then evaluated the session.

Table 4. 2 Structure of the Focus Groups

FOCUS GROUP	TYPE OF SESSION	PARTICIPANTS	BEHAVIOUR	CHALLENGES
One	Microsoft teams	4 males 1 queer	<p>Hesitant initially</p> <p>Mthoko (queer) opened up and was very verbal as to the abuse that he and others like him experience</p> <p>The males remained defensive for most of the interview</p> <p>One participant was reserved. When he noticed the others being forthcoming and open, he relaxed his guard and participated enthusiastically.</p> <p>Lots of sniggers and laughter</p>	<p>Needed probing for them to open up</p> <p>Discussions were stilted at first</p> <p>Probes were also used to clarify and repeat the meaning of the participants</p> <p>Male participants did not take the issue seriously and insisted that it was a guy thing.</p> <p>They joked and laughed about issues and repeatedly indicated that the females are too sensitive and like to sensationalise issues.</p>
Two	Microsoft teams	5 females	<p>Discussion was spontaneous One female did become emotional and cried.</p> <p>Most felt helpless and unsure of what could be done to reduce the incidents.</p> <p>Participants were quite vocal about what they considered unacceptable behaviour</p>	<p>Whilst an hour was set aside for the discussion, it continued for 1h30.</p> <p>.</p>

FOCUS GROUP	TYPE OF SESSION	PARTICIPANTS	BEHAVIOUR	CHALLENGES
Three	Microsoft teams	1 bisexual 1 queer 1 male 2 females	Vocal Much debate and agreement Willingness to initiate programmes/ campaigns to reduce sexual harassment and GBV	Load shedding and power outages affected the connectivity Discussion had to be postponed to an alternate date

4.10. DATA ANALYSIS

In the analysis of qualitative data, Davies and Hughes (2014) indicate that three factors need to be considered, which are:

- *Overlapping stages*: the various stages of the research are linked. Planning, and data collection overlap with the finished report.
- *Qualitative Research is different*: a mistake to avoid is, to sum up, what different respondents have stated and focus on the interpretive findings.
- *Time*: adequate time is needed to do justice to all aspects

According to Cohen, et al. (2011), quantitative data analysis includes arranging, giving reasons for, and highlighting the data in terms of participants' perceptions of the situation, observing themes, patterns, classifications and anomalies. These themes are placed into categories. Thomas (2017) believes that the data analysis is ongoing from the very beginning when data was generated. Denzin and Lincoln (2012) pointed out that qualitative research involves interpretation that is not in the interview texts but contrived by the researcher. De Vos, et al. (2005) maintains that the qualitative researcher must make sense of the data collected by bringing order, structure and meaning to gain insight and understanding. Neuman (2006) believes that this is done by categorising data based on themes, concepts or similar features. He also adds that the qualitative researcher may develop new concepts, formulate conceptual decisions and examine relationships among concepts. Thomas (2017) suggested that the analytic method for Interpretivist paradigms is constant comparison. This method involves a repetitive examination of data, to compare each element, phrase, sentence or paragraph, with

all other elements. I used the interpretive thematic analysis process of recognising, examining and identifying similarities and differences and finding themes within the data. Thomas (2017) further added that from the constant comparison, you mark the data with codes and abbreviations that describe important elements. These then emerge as themes. These themes are the building blocks of the analysis. Construct mapping (Thomas, 2017) was used to map the themes. According to Thomas (2017), construct mapping places the themes in sequential order, and enables the connections, ideas and themes to emerge.

Table 4. 3 Summary of the six-phase thematic analysis process which was undertaken

Phase	Process
1. Becoming familiar with the data	This is where the researcher immersed herself in the data by reading and rereading the data searching for meanings and patterns
2. Generating initial codes	Initial codes from the data were generated
3. Searching for themes	Coded data was sorted into potential themes and all the coded data extracts within each identified theme were collated
4. Reviewing themes	A set of candidate themes were developed. Themes were reviewed and refined.
5. Defining and naming themes	Each theme was identified to determine what it is about. The aspect of data that each theme captures was identified. A name was given to each theme
6. Producing report	The final analysis was conducted, and a report written

Source: Braun & Clarke (2006)

An attempt was made to understand patterns and shared understandings among the sample. Information was sorted to find common themes, patterns, differences and similarities when results are presented. By an intensive analysis of the focus group and interview transcripts, the beliefs and attitudes of the sample were identified. Being an interpretive participatory action

research (PAR) study, meaning and perception was derived from experience. The researcher searched across the data to find recurrent themes. The researcher became familiar with the rich data. As the data was verbatim (generated from interviews, and focus groups, a verbatim translation was necessary. This allowed a reduction of bias and an increase in validity. The transcripts were true to the original data and enabled a better familiarisation with the data. This also provided a clearer understanding of the participants and the information that they provided. During the transcription close attention was given to detail and this allowed the creation of meaning.

The first stage was the collection and recording of data. The instruments used to collect the data are described in section 5. The researcher made use of a tape-recorder and used notes in order to place the data into categories for interpretation. Managing the data was the second stage, to enable easy retrieval. The data was then transcribed. Thereafter the data was read to develop an understating of data collected, to gain an intimate understating of sexual harassment among university students. The transcripts were read repeatedly, and recordings were listened to frequently, for the researcher to become familiar with the gathered data. The researcher then, described, classified and interpreted the data gathered. This, therefore, led to the identification of loose patterns and recurring themes across individuals and focus groups. Homogenous data, for example, on subscription to certain versions of masculinity and peer expectation was kept together.

Triangulation was used to evaluate the findings. Open-Coding' (Straus and Corbin, 1990) took place, where the researcher identified behaviour deemed and labelled as harassing, the frequency and intensity of such behaviour and the perceptions of participants towards sexually and gender-harassing behaviour. The individual responses were analysed, compared and categorised with the results of the focus group and subsequently triangulated and interpreted to draw conclusions.

The more each data collected triangulates with the other, the more conclusive will the findings be. Triangulation is also needed to confirm the validity of the process. The process of data analysis began with the categorisation and organisation of data in search of patterns, themes and meanings. Triangulation compares data and thereby corroborates and validates the findings. It is a way to improve the trustworthiness of the qualitative findings. Triangulation discovers bias and increases confidence in the findings. Triangulation, according to Denzin and

Lincoln (2012) creates crystallisation, which is a process where the same results are achieved from multiple data sources.

The researcher concentrated on the whole data and then took them apart to make comparisons and contrasts between patterns and threads. Definition of codes and themes took place, to refine and arrange into a logical and consistent manner. The following themes were identified:

- Understanding and perceptions of sexual harassment on campus: *WHAT and WHO of sexual harassment?*
- Nature, causes and consequences of sexual harassment at the university: *WHY of sexual harassment?*
- Experiences of sexual harassment at the university: *Me in sexual harassment*
- Ways to reduce sexual harassment on campus. *How to reduce?*
- Participatory action research to plan and implement a programme aimed at creating a safe positive environment: *PAR!*
- Short-term outcome of the programme: *Support!*

In my analysis I was also alert to my role of bias in relating to men's involvement in the perpetration of violence against women. Perceptions are constituted in the social relations one shares with other people. Most men have relational interests that they share with other women. For instance, as parents they need child-care provision and good health services for children, or as workers, they need improved conditions in terms of job security and health and safety. Aboriginal men share with Aboriginal women an interest in ending racism. Gay men share with lesbians an interest in fighting sex-based discrimination. Very few men have a life-world that is blocked off from women – that is genuinely a 'separate sphere'. In each of these relationships men have an interest in gender equitable reform.

Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) argues that there are always voices of resistance – young men who are able to see the gender matrix for what it is: a flimsy sometimes harmful way to organise the world and their personal lives. These young men who 'resist' these rigid or violent versions of manhood often like being boys or men in some traditional ways, such as participating in sports, but they question the notions that women deserve to be beaten, or that caring for children is the work of women. Most men are not perpetrators of violence and display masculinity in a number of ways: they asserted their authenticity (in contradistinction from

acting), claimed a particular skill, or made claims to maturity or to being egalitarian or enforcing justice. While there is a constant process of reproducing and defending the gender power of men, there are also moves to create new models of masculinity and new ways of 'being men' (Connell, 2020). There is evidence of new models of masculinity and new ways of 'being men'. I am in sympathy with these messages and therefore I was able to adopt a non-biased approach in the analysis of my research findings.

4.11 RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

- 1) What do students at the selected University perceive to be sexual harassment?
- 2) What are the nature, causes and consequences of sexual harassment at the university?
- 3) What are some of the ways to reduce sexual harassment at the university?
- 4) How can a participatory action research programme be used to prevent and reduce the prevalence of sexual harassment at the university?

A detailed analysis was done to derive themes in relation to the research questions. The researcher then provided a summary and linked the literature review, the approaches and models to the data generated in this study to address sexual harassment among students at Yasethekwin University.

4.12 DELIMITATIONS/SCOPE

The scope of the study is limited to the chosen university. Twenty university students participated. The participants consisted of 12 females, one queer and two bisexual and five males, between the ages of eighteen and twenty-eight.

4.13 LIMITATIONS

The study is based on a small, sample and thus generalisation may not translate to other settings or contexts. Findings reflect the Yasethekwin campus only within the Durban Coastal cluster.

4.14 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Davies and Hughes (2014) defined validity as the extent to which observations and findings are accurate representations of the phenomenon under study. According to Spiers et al. (2018) reliability is based on data adequacy, which makes it possible to show consistent support.

Validity, however, is related to data appropriateness, which makes it possible to provide a more accurate account of the experiences of the sample and beyond the immediate study.

The methods highlighted by Kuzel and Like (1991) to enhance validity were built into the study. This would include member checking (to ensure that the information received is correct), disconfirming evidence (looking for other accounts or research contrary to what is found in the present study), triangulation (utilising multiple data sources and methods in order to validate findings) as well as a thick description (description of phenomenon including researchers' interpretation and observation). Brannen (2017) also suggested triangulation to uncover bias, by using multiple data sources and theoretical perspectives. De Vos, et al. (2019) suggest the following procedure to increase reliability measures:

- Increase the number of items and or observations: the researcher used multiple questions to assess the same variable
- Eliminate items that are unclear; the researcher avoided unreliable, inconsistent questions
- Standardise the conditions under which the test is taken: The researcher exposed all participants to the same probes, questions and stimulus settings.
- Moderate the level of difficulty of the instrument: the instrument used was clear and concise and understood by all participants.

Polit and Hungler (2004) defined reliability as the degree of consistency with which the instrument measures an attribute. That means that the same instrument must yield the same results in other situations. They further maintained that an invalid instrument is not reliable (Polit and Hungler 2004). Measuring instruments must be consistent from one time to the next. In order to ensure reliability in this study, I used more than one method to gather data including individual virtual interviews and focus group discussions. The responses to questions in the focus group were compared to that of the responses of participants in the individual interviews. This was to maintain consistency. Group interviews may lead to greater levels of disclosure and participation because the participants may feel less anxious when they have the support of their peers. I also documented every response carefully without tampering or additions.

Dudovskiy (2018) believes that qualitative research data gathered using interpretivist studies, similar to the present research may be associated with a high level of validity because data in

such studies tends to be trustworthy and honest. Qualitative researchers defend the validity and reliability of their work by different means, including trustworthiness, credibility, applicability and consistency of evaluation processes. Procedural decisions and details of data generation and management were transparent and explicit. It was necessary for the measuring instrument to measure sexual harassment as proposed and the concept had to be measured accurately to ensure authenticity and genuineness. All raw data, notes, interview schedules and transcripts were made available for verification. The same format and sequence of words were used in focus group discussions to enhance reliability. Transcripts provided an account of direct conversations and quotes. All data collected was made available for collaboration and confirmation. The researcher was alert to bias.

4.15 ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

The essence of anonymity is that information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity (Cohen, et al., 2011). Moreover, a participant or subject is therefore considered anonymous when the researcher or another person cannot identify the participant or subject from the information provided.

In this study, participants were coded rather than using their names to ensure anonymity. The important way of protecting a participant's right to privacy is through the promise of confidentiality, not disclosing information from a participant in any way that might identify that individual or that might enable the individual to be traced (Cohen, et al. 2011). Keeping in mind the sensitivity of the topic as even the word sexual harassment is not freely used, the confidentiality of participants was considered paramount. However, due to the pandemic, the researcher had to rely on digital modes of data collection.

According to Vitak, Shilton and Ashktorab (2016), digital modes of data collection means make it difficult to honour the principle of respecting others in research. This is linked to participants being unaware of the monitoring of the type of data that is collected from them and protecting it using privacy settings provided by social network sites, since people allied with host platforms may still have access to the data (Brownlow and O'Dell, 2002; Vitak, Shilton and Ashktorab, 2016). The need, therefore, arose to consider the kind of exposure to participants while collecting data on the digital sphere and account for it and allow participants a choice in taking the risk. In addition to the original privacy settings on all digital accounts, recordings of the

conversations between participants and researcher and data were saved on a cloud account protected by a password that only the researcher had access to.

The data was locked in a filing cabinet in the researcher's office. Nobody had access to the information besides the researcher. The researcher made sure that nobody knew her password to the files where data was electronically stored.

4.16 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The study only commenced after obtaining clearance from the ethics committee of the university. According to Altrichter, et al. (2007), action research is regarded as ethical, when the research design, interpretation and practical development produced have been negotiated with all parties directly concerned with the situation under research. The research only commenced when the university's ethics committee gave approval for the study. The ethical principles that guided the study included: informed consent, no deception, voluntary participation, no harm to participants, no violation of privacy, respect, confidentiality and anonymity will always be observed. The wishes of those who did not want to participate were respected. Each member of the sample was further consulted on a one-to-one basis providing them with detailed information regarding the purposes and procedure of the research. Informed consent was obtained at the outset. Clear, concise language was always used. The right of each participant was always respected. The participants were also informed that they had the right to withdraw from the research at any time. The study was voluntary, and no one was coerced. Permission for recording was also sought. Pseudonyms were also used to further protect the identity of participants. I made every endeavour to ensure that no harm or risk befell any participant. Honesty and open communication pervaded all aspects of the study. The following ethical considerations were observed:

4.16.1 INFORMED CONSENT

Informed consent was obtained through an open communication process. (Appendix B). Care was taken to establish rapport, empathy and sensitivity. The complete and accurate nature of the study was highlighted so that the participants fully understood the details of the research and subsequently made a voluntary informed decision to participate in the study. Nobody was coerced into the study.

4.16.2 VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

De Vos, et al. (2019) highlighted the fact that participation should at all times be voluntary. The researcher ensured that participants were made aware of this at the beginning and reminded of this subsequently.

4.16.3 NO DECEPTION

The goals of the study and research procedures followed were clearly stated during all phases of the study. The informed consent form also highlighted all procedures that were to be followed. No information was withheld, nor was incorrect information provided so as to mislead or coerce.

4.16.4 NO HARM TO PARTICIPANTS

The most fundamental rule of ethical research is that it brings no harm to the participants. The researcher made every effort not to harm the participants in any form or manner. Due to the sensitivity of the research topic, some participants could be unwilling to reveal all aspects related to the experience. Participants were therefore informed that when and if they felt uncomfortable or distressed by issues, they needed to inform the researcher immediately. The researcher would stop the interview or session and allow the participant to be excused or given the necessary time to compose himself or herself. Counselling and/or referral to the necessary structures were also available to those who needed it.

4.16.5. PRIVACY/CONFIDENTIALITY

Privacy, according to De Vos, et al. (2019), is to keep to oneself that which is not intended for others. Every participant was afforded the right to privacy and decided when, where and to whom and to what extent beliefs, views and experiences would be shared. Prior to the interview, permission was sought to record the interview. When permission was given, the participants were informed that recorded information would be kept safe and only the researcher would have access to the recordings. Participants were also informed that they could stop the recordings when they wanted to during the interview. The researcher also informed the participants that their identities would remain anonymous to everyone but the researcher and that their names and or all identifying details would be excluded from any reports or research documentation.

4.17 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the research design that was used to collect data was outlined. The design was based on meeting the research objectives of describing, analysing and interpreting sexual harassment among university students. Non-probability purposive sampling technique was used. Through this method, twenty participants were chosen and interviews and focus groups were employed to obtain a better picture of sexual harassment on campus. The ethical principles that guided the study were also highlighted. The paradigm and design used enabled the participants to become actively involved in a collective effort to address and solve the sexual harassment taking place on campus. In the next chapter, the data analysis and presentation of findings are described.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the findings of the research conducted among university students at Yasethekwin University. Data was analysed and interpreted drawing from the Theory of Social Construction of Gender (Lorber, 1994). This enabled the study to focus on the students' views and experiences of sexual harassment and gender-based violence. It is significant to understand that both males and females construct gender. For this reason, the study also gives a voice to male students.

I start my discussion in this chapter with an analysis of the nature of sexual harassment reported by the participants. I then proceed to discuss the causes, effects and measures to address sexual harassment at this particular university.

5.2 NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

In my discussion of the nature of gender-based violence, I classified the enactment of the violence into the various forms that manifested on the university campus. It is beyond the scope of this modest study to include all forms of violence on campus. This section is organised using three main categories: verbal harassment, non-verbal harassment and physical harassment.

5.2.1 VERBAL HARASSMENT

The South African Labour Guide (2020) lists verbal forms of sexual harassment to include innuendo, suggestions and hints, sexual advances, comments with sexual overtones, sex-related jokes or insults or unwelcome graphic comments about a person's body made in their presence or directed toward them, unwelcome and inappropriate enquiries about a person's sex life, and unwelcome whistling directed at a person or group of persons.

The responses from the participants revealed that the male students held different views from that of the female students on the issue of verbal harassment.

Most of the male respondents did not regard their suggestive remarks and crude sounds directed at the female students as harassment. As per some of their responses below:

“When we whistle, and make comment[s] about the girls, they must understand that we are simply admiring them.” (Phila, male-Male focus group)

“These modern girls blow everything up, they want attention, me telling them that they look sexy, and hot and even when I ask them to go on dates, it’s nothing ... I am showing my manhood. If I don’t do this, then Tjoe... Girls want us to say these things, it excites them.” (Ndumiso: male-Male focus group)

“It’s just fun. Boys being boys.” (Sipho: male-Mixed focus group)

“Whistling when you see a sexy mamacita, is showing that you are man. Also, girls like boys who talk dirty, its showing passion. It also makes you one of the boys.” (Gerald: male-Male focus group)

Female participants, in contrast, were quite vociferous in that any behaviour that made them feel uncomfortable was regarded as sexual harassment with undertones of GBV.

“This wolf-whistling that they do especially when they [are] in a group, just irritates the hell out of me.” (Nontobeko: female: Individual Interview)

“The sly remarks and catcalls, I don’t like it. To me this is sexual harassment and worse they boys won’t admit it. They see it as a joke. It can affect a person in a bad way.” (Pauline, female-Mixed focus group)

“They give these silly comments and remarks ... what business is it as to who I am dating or even having sex with. It is very frustrating; my sexual partners and their gender is my business. It’s not right when they talk about to make me feel small.” (Portia, female-Mixed focus group)

“To me, sexual harassment is when you are uncomfortable... and when boys and even other girls make the sly, silly comments). Don’t like it when both boys’ and girls’ spread gossip and create stories about my looks, my body and even who I am dating and having sex with. It’s hurting especially when these are people you know and trust with secrets.” (Eve, female-Individual Interview)

Although the male students did not see their actions as harassment, they did not deny their performances of these acts. The female students found the verbal taunting, jesting and teasing offensive. The interviews produced sufficient evidence to suggest that verbal harassment was very rife on campus.

5.2.2 NON-VERBAL HARASSMENT

According to the South African Labour Guide (2020), non-verbal forms of sexual harassment include unwelcome gestures, indecent exposure, and the unwelcome display of sexually explicit pictures and objects. Male participants seemed to believe that these forms are mostly consensual and therefore acceptable, as it is within a relationship, or the girls pretend to be coy when these incidents are exposed and that they only cry foul to their friends but enjoy it with the guys. This was validated by the responses from the males:

“Showing your partner porno, is important it excites them ...they start by saying no... pretending to be shy ... like they don’t like it ... But when you insist it makes relations better.” (Phila, male-Male focus group)

“Yah, it’s not right to just show your privates to everyone, but the girls you date or want to date... they need to see the merchandise. You need to touch them in the privates as well to show that you interested. Sharing porno... Is good.” (Lunga, male-Male focus group)

The female student’s responses differed significantly in terms of non-verbal sexual harassment.

“... They show us nude pictures, I don’t like it. Boys don’t take no for an answer. They insist. Sometimes we give in but it’s not right.” (Jabu, female-Female focus group)

The guys make gestures and hand signs ... especially when they in a group and you walk past. Flicking up of our skirts, dresses make me very uncomfortable, I avoid these areas where the boys hang in groups.” (Phoebe, female-Mixed focus group)

“...they force you to watch porno and naked pics...” (Zola, female-Individual Interview)

Once again, we find that the young men did not see their behaviour as harmful. The non-verbal harassment that the female students experienced was very extreme on campus. In other studies of sexual harassment at universities, female students reported forms of non-verbal harassment including disturbing them while they read in the library, distributing false rumours and sending badly written messages via their phone, e-mails, and Facebook addresses (Mamaru, Gettachew and Mohammed, 2015). Findings of non-verbal harassment in a study by Oni, et al. (2019) at the University of Pretoria took the form of touching, leaning into girls and hugging without consent. The nature of non-verbal harassment at this Yasethekwin University took extreme forms in that the females were forced to watch pornographic material their dresses

and skirts were flicked to expose their bottoms and some boys exposed themselves to the girls. It was particularly disturbing to note that the male students condoned their behaviour by indicating that this was necessary to display interest in female students and that female students do like and perhaps enjoy the particular attention. The female students, however, saw this behaviour as sexual harassment, and some mentioned that they were very uncomfortable but gave in because of relentless pressure from the males.

5.2.3 PHYSICAL HARASSMENT

Physical conduct of a sexual nature includes all unwanted physical contact, ranging from touching to sexual assault and rape, and includes a strip search by or in the presence of the opposite sex (South African Labour Guide, 2020). My interviews revealed that physical harassment was common on campus.

“I have been physically touched in my privates many times, as you pass, a smack in the bums, worse, even when you try to push them away, it's not always possible.” (Zola, female-Individual Interview)

“...as a queer, the worst is the corrective beating forced onto you, because you told that you need to be normal?” (Mthoko, male-Mixed focus group)

“Girls are physically sexually abused, I have seen it many times, not going to lie.” (Gerald, male-Individual Interview)

“Sometimes the touching is so polite and gentle, the touch in the lower back, the stroke of hair you don't realise that it is sexual harassment... you think it's unintentional Then suddenly before you realise you pushed up against a wall, a tree and it turns violent so very quickly.” (Angela, Female: bisexual-Mixed focus group)

“... I am Bi. Not all males can handle that I am attracted to females as well. I don't hide and am not ashamed of this. I have been exposed to violent, aggressive behaviour. Physically grabbed, shoved and shaken up. To fix me.” (Kate, bisexual-Individual Interview)

“Girls like it when we are rough and tough, they want it ... to be touched in private ... they pretend to be ethukuthele (angry), and it's just an act.” (Sipho, male-Mixed focus group).

From the narratives above it was obvious that physical sexual harassment was very prevalent on campus. Physical sexual harassment took the form of unwanted touching, smacking, subtle stroking and being physically rough. In the testimonies of the queer student and the bisexual student both mentioned that they were physically assaulted in an attempt to 'beat' and 'shake' them, to 'fix' and to make them 'normal'. It was found that assault in numerous cases was to get victims to conform to societal expectations.

In all cases in my study, the sexually aggressive behaviour was unwanted and undesirable by the recipients. The unwanted sexual harassment occurred once or was repetitive. The harassment as narrated by Zola (female participant) occurred often and was unwanted. In some instances, the sexual harassment was blatant as described by Zola (female participant), Gerald (male participant) and Mthoko (queer participant) whilst in other instances more subtle, as narrated by Angela (bisexual female participant). Steenkamp (2010) also found similar evidence in his study on the prevalence of sexual harassment within a student sample of Stellenbosch University, where wolf-whistling, sexist remarks, unwelcome requests and ratings on physical attractiveness were perceived as subtle forms of sexual harassment and found to be very prevalent, but more acceptable than rape and assault perceived to be more extreme offences and labelled sexual harassment. Angela (bisexual, female participant) also narrated that sometimes sexual harassment was mistaken for politeness and kindness. This suggested that she was oblivious to the subtle threat until it became more obvious and blatant. The male students displayed dominance, control and power over their female counterparts. This converged with the findings of Makhafola (2020) at the University of Johannesburg, in that women are constantly reduced to sexual and reproductive beings, and this is "problematic in shaping" women to be well adjusted and productive human beings. This was corroborated in a study by Olawale, et al. (2021) that found the existence of unwanted touching and prevalence of sexual harassment amongst students at centres of higher learning.

Sexual harassment can take many forms and the ambiguity can make the victim confused and doubtful. Although the male students agreed that the physical more violent behaviour such as rape and assault is sexual harassment, they did not recognise the verbal and non-verbal forms of behaviour as problematic and did not take the behaviour as serious. This aligned with findings from Olawale, et al. (2021); Davids (2020); and Kabaya (2016) who also found that the more severe the behaviour (rape, and assault) the greater the possibility of the incident being labelled as unacceptable and denounced. In this particular study, none of the participants indicated that

they were victims of rape or committed rape in their discussions of sexual harassment. It could have been that the survivors of rape were too embarrassed or ashamed to discuss rape with me, but I cannot show that they actively concealed this information.

5.3 CAUSES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

The study of sexual harassment has many complications. It is clear in the report on GBV in South Africa (2016) that the cause of sexual harassment cannot be attributed to a single factor, but an interplay of individual, community, economic, cultural and religious factors interacting at different levels of society. All these factors ranging from gender inequalities between men and women, social constructions of hegemonic masculinities, social perceptions of what it means to be a man, normalisation of violence, and cultural practices influence how the youth of South Africa related to GBV.

An important aim of this study was to investigate the causes of sexual harassment in this particular setting of the university. There is no common cause of sexual harassment and certainly not all sexual harassment is the result of a single relational factor. The causes of sexual harassment are related to different contexts and different eras. Below, I discuss some of the broad causes of sexual harassment at this particular university.

5.3.1 SUBSCRIPTION TO VIOLENT FORMS OF MASCULINITY

GBV is an expression of the fragility of masculinity and the perpetuation of masculinity and male domination. While this violence can be discussed in terms of men's aggression, it operates within the dualism of activity and passivity, masculinity and femininity. Neither can exist without the other. This is not to blame women for being beaten, nor to excuse men who beat. It is but an indication that the various forms of men's violence against women are a dynamic affirmation of masculinity that can only exist as distinguished from femininity. Studies by Davids (2020), on gender-based violence in South African Universities and Heber (2017) confirm the link between GBV and these factors. This argument was very evident in the testimonies of both male and female students in my study. It was also evident that the young men used violence against the females to affirm their masculinity

Participants spoke of men's power and entitlement by forcing unwanted touches and sexual coercion. Below are a few extracts, confirming this:

"We girls are always the victims, they feel it's their right, they laugh at us when we refuse. We [are] soft and weak. Res is bad.... I accept it... Afraid to fight back... they have more power.... Don't say no.... you at fault... Just shut up and take it!" (Sindy, female-Individual Interview)

"The truth is men do this because of the feeling of power. Men feel superior to women. Women are their toys. There is entitlement. They have to prove themselves as men." (Mthoko: queer-Mixed focus group)

"There is power when the boys are in a group, the whistling the comments ... we do it also to be accepted... the more we give girls a hard time ... the more we accepted. WE THE MAN!" (Gerald, male-Individual Interview)

"Let me show you what a real man can do... the negative comments follow me, especially when with a female partner... They cannot accept that I like being with females as well. There is a feeling that I threaten their manhood." (Kate, Bisexual-Individual Interview)

"Men use force. That's the way it is. We have to show everyone that we are men." (Sipho, male-Individual Interview)

Lorber (1994, 2000) stated that sexuality is socially constructed as gendered. She opined that the sexual source of oppression is a symptom of the gendered social order. Lorber (1994, 2000); Sanday (1990) and Scheff (1990) all agree that sexual violence is gendered since they are moulded by masculine and feminine norms. According to Kabaya (2016) and Jewkes, et al. (2015), the abuse of power and power disparities are drivers of sexual harassment. They concur that men perpetrate sexual violence as a declaration of their authority over and control of women. Lorber (1994, 2004) further suggested that gender ranks men above women of the same race and class. She continued that society then viewed one gender (male) as the touchstone, the normal, dominant one and the other (woman) as different, deviant and subordinate.

The female students doubting themselves, (Sindy: *I accept it... Afraid to fight back... they have more power.... Don't say no.... you at fault... Just shut up and take it!"*), and this was a clear indication of patriarchal norms being internalised. Ultimately the narratives all point to the normalisation of patriarchal power that justifies the violence perpetrated against 'inferior, weaker' women. This was supported by the findings of Avendano (2019) masculine privilege was deeply ingrained and thereby masculine assumptions become normalised. Sipho in his

narrative alluded to this. The culture of patriarchy in South Africa, privileges men and gives them access to power as described by Tshoaedi (2017) (Sipho: “*men use force*”) and reinforces sexual harassment of women (Sipho, “... *show.... we are men*”). The narratives allude to the entitlement of men, (Sindy: “*It’s their rights*”) and minimal consequences to the abuse of power and sexual harassment and GBV is seen as part of expected gender performance within a masculine culture (Sipho: “*that’s the way it is*”) and (Gerald: “*the more you accepted*”).

5.3.2 NON-REPORTING OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

GBV and sexual harassment on university campuses are not reported enough. The perpetration with impunity of GBV and sexual harassment is enabled by the lack of reporting. It became apparent early on in the interviews that a major reason for students, victims and witnesses alike to not report is due to subscriptions to patriarchy and hegemonic masculine norms. There are numerous behaviours, acts and forms that are not even perceived as GBV and sexual harassment. Perpetrators may understand what they are doing but persist due to the lack of reprisals.

During the individual interviews of the female participants, the majority mentioned that students did not take sexual harassment seriously unless it was rape. Below are extracts from interviews of female participants who did not report the sexual harassment.

“I feel uncomfortable about the touching, catcalling, whistling and naming, but I don’t report. It’s just boys being boys... anyway what will happen. I know these boys. It will just get worse. They will label and pick on me. ... Maybe if it gets to rape... yah... Then.”
(Mbali, female-Individual Interview)

“... It’s not been that serious, like rape or anything. I don’t report. Don’t want to look stupid. Happens all the time. I know of a first-year student who did report. Tjoe, it was not nice. She was questioned so much, making out like it was her fault. The person that did it, nothing happened, no action. Worse this girl was given such a hard time after, by male and female students. The boy was udlama kakhulu (very violent) with her.” (Lottie, female-Individual Interview)

“You see the boys say and do all these things to us that makes me uncomfortable. They say they are joking and having fun. I know it is wrong, but everyone takes it like a joke. So, I don’t report or say anything also because it will make my life on campus harder.”
(Pauline, female-Female focus group)

"I did not tell anyone. Don't want them to look at me, label me, and say I'm a tease. What the boys do to us, is not nice. We expected to deliver the goods. It goes with... born a female. But I am too nginamahloni futhi nehlazo (embarrassed and ashamed)."
(Pretty, female-Individual Interview)

"These violations are so common. The males do it all the time. We are so used to it. Even in our homes, community. This behaviour is happening everywhere. I don't report. It's like normal behaviour." (Kate, bisexual-Individual Interview)

"He roofied me... I was in first year. I did not know anything ... remember waking... Hurting... told roommate... She said, but I saw you two laughing and touching ... But it's expected. ... I kept quiet after that ... if she did not believe me, nobody will. It is not worth it. I accepted it." (Andrea, female-Mixed focus group)

"We see the females and LGBTQIA+ people abused all the time. We keep quiet. We don't want more agg [aggression] towards us. The drama that follows [is] not worth it. More labelling, stereotyping. Authorities basically do nothing. They just don't know what to do. Most of us put our heads down and get on with it." (Mthoko, queer-Mixed focus group)

The reasons students provided for not reporting sexual abuses ranged from them not regarding the violations as serious enough, fear of embarrassment and shame, accepting the offences as normal behaviour, fear of being labelled and stereotyping and concerns that no real action is taken by authorities if reported.

If sexual harassment is not reported, then there will be no sanctions for the perpetrators. One of the major factors linked to higher rates of men's perpetration of sexual violence is the absence of sanctions against perpetrators (WHO, 2012).

Since many women have little choice about where they work, they find it necessary to put up with a situation that they feel they cannot change. 'What can't be cured must be endured' is too often the case with victims of sexual harassment.

Although the victims of sexual harassment (Mbali and Lottie) were very aware that they were being abused and were very unhappy about the violations that took place, they were of the view that unless the harassment was as serious as rape then their complaints would not warrant action from authorities. Pauline and Andrea believed that the backlash they would receive from

the perpetrators and other students was not 'worth the distress that the reporting would cause. Pretty mentioned that it was acceptable normal behaviour.

The majority of the other female participants indicated that rape was the only form of sexual harassment that should be reported. This suggested that the other forms of sexual assault perpetrated albeit unacceptable by the victims were not regarded as serious enough to report. Lorber (2000, 1994) argued that gender is a human construct that relies on everyone doing gender continuously and by female students not reporting sexual misconduct of the male students maintain, reinforce and legitimise these social constructs. Markram (2020) refers to this as patriarchal silencing that renders women powerless in their capacity to define or communicate their own experiences, as evident by Andrea, who kept 'quiet' and Kate who knew someone who remained 'silent.

Lottie's narrative suggests that a reason for not reporting is the perpetrators are known to the victims. Mbali and others, therefore, accepted and tolerated the behaviour. Gouws and Kritzinger (2007) revealed that students do not report the harassment as they believed that it comes with the territory. Markram (2020) found that the students who participated in the study at the University of Stellenbosch, accepted the behaviour and did not report it because they were often told that it was a normal display of masculinity.

In the female focus group discussions, students mentioned that they did not report the offences because of the fear of being labelled, stereotyped and victimised. They all declared that the harassment made them uncomfortable and that they knew that it was a violation, but they were afraid of retaliation from the perpetrators and possible physical abuse. Participants believed that authorities, especially males are dismissive, unwelcoming and insensitive and mock their experiences making the victim feel that they have exaggerated the incident. This they believe is secondary victimisation. According to Gqola (2020), patriarchal definitions of women and gender enable people to adopt protectionist discourses that place doubt on the victim of sexual harassment. Langa (2020); Gqola (2020) and Makhafola (2020) all concur that women in universities and society at large do not report incidents of sexual crimes because of fear of being doubted by peers, colleagues and law officials. It was the fear of retaliation, stigma and shame that kept Lottie, Andrea, Pretty, Kate, Pauline and Mbali, as well as the many victims on campus silent!

Some of the participants normalised the sexual harassment and even accepted blame for their experiences by nature of being female. Some were ashamed and humiliated to report. Others

viewed sexual offences as normal and unavoidable. The participants trivialised the behaviour (Lottie: *It's not been that serious* and Mbali: *it [is] just boys being boys*) so as to make it acceptable, to normalise it and reduce the impact that it may have on their lives.

Pretty in her narrative, *"Back home the men expect us to deliver the goods...."* alluded to GBV being downplayed and even dismissed as a non-issue.

Some of the females mentioned that no action was taken when victims had previously reported sexual abuse to an authority. Further, the report was not taken seriously, and they were made to feel that they had no one to turn to. Their complaints were downplayed. It seems from the narratives of the participants that the perpetrators have mastered the 'art of silencing' them. Ahmed (2015) suggested that victims come up against barriers that block them from reporting. Threats of disclosure, intimidation, fear of physical violence and other repercussions keep the victims, silent. This gives greater support to the idea of consent by the victims for the violations, and that sexual harassment is normative.

According to Davids (2020), individuals are more predisposed to committing GBV on campus because of their belief that they could get away with it. Non-reporting of violations has a direct result of no repercussions and thereby perpetuation of GBV and sexual harassment.

5.3.3 SOCIAL-ECONOMIC FACTORS

Research participants, male and female alike suggested in the individual and focus groups that social factors play a predominant role in the perpetration and perpetuation of GBV and sexual harassment. Narratives from research participants below point to this.

"Women submit to the abuse because we have money, and the female students are away from home. They have no money. They have needs. Its soma like a barter, cash for sex..." (Sniggers and laughs). (Gerald, male; Male focus group)

"I have had sex with a few first years. I paid for it... No big deal. She has what I want, and I pay for it. Most of the guys are doing this." (Sipho, male: Individual Interview)

"When we [are] out drinking, he gets violent with me, he does not realise what is happening ... he is sweet when he is not drunk. He says it's my fault. I stay with him for he pays for my stuff. Sees to my needs, even toiletries even when I Mensa." (Sanitary wear). (Nontobeko, female: Individual Interview)

“At home, we have no money. Nobody is working. I have NFAS to study. But there is no other money... I had relations where they [were] rough, I take it. Because they see me right. Pay for my expenses. Take me places.” (Zola, female-Individual Interview)

“Women are weak and depend on the male. They submit and are dependent. Most live away from home and are vulnerable. It’s accepted that the first years are difficult. We accept certain harsh behaviour from the men because they pay for most stuff.” (Portia, female-Mixed focus group)

“We abused back home. So, when I came to tegween (Durban) to study, I accepted it. I need someone to take care of my expenses. I know it won’t be forever. I will get a job after I study.”(Eve, female-Female focus group)

“Was desperate in my first year. I took all the shit. Got a part-time job in my second year. Now I’m orrite.” (Okay). (Pauline, female-Female focus group)

“When you first come to Durban. Money is tight. Sometimes even no food. The male students take advantage of the first years. The men control and dictate. Violence and other abuse is part of the deal.” (Kate, bisexual-Individual Interview)

Sindy: female: I learned to take the harassment as men’s nature and started to look for tips to be safe in my first year. I need to live; they have the money. I learned to ignore the other abuses.” (Sindy, female-Individual Interview)

Research conducted on South African universities by HEAIDS (2010) suggested that poverty, hunger, desperation and social mobility are contributing factors that have been identified for women to use their bodies to survive. Jewkes (2017) added alcohol abuse, childhood trauma and fewer gender-equitable economic roles are drivers for male intimate partner perpetration and sexual harassment faced by women and young people in South African Higher Education. Isaacs (2022) opines that unemployment and access to money are primary contributory factors to the increasing levels of GBV.

Men and women learn dominance and submission from home, as evident by the narratives of Ndumiso and Eve, these gendered norms are then maintained on campus as per the testimony of Phila and Sindy. In both cases, there is a relationship between the abuse and wanting economic support. CSVr (2016) conducted a GBV review in South Africa and stated that culturally males are often placed in a powerful position compared to women because they have

financial resources. Power and privilege are wound into the fabric of campus life, where men lay claim to controlling women and, in many cases, sexually harass women since they have the financial means to support the needs of the female students.

In all the discussions, interviews and focus groups participants revealed that the first-year female student is most vulnerable due to financial necessity. Sipho indicated that he had “sex with a few first years and that he *“paid for it”*. Pauline indicated that she *“was desperate in my first year. I took all the shit”*.

Lack of financial independence among women was seen as a key driver of GBV and sexual harassment on campus. It is difficult for women who are economically dependent on their partners to leave the violent, abusive relationship. All participants point to the strong link between poverty and GBV. Nontobeko accepted the abuse and stated that *“I stay with him for he pays for my stuff”*; Zola had no income at home (*At home we have no money*); Eve needed someone to support her needs *“I need someone to take care of my expenses”*. These findings are similar to data from GBV studies conducted by Shefer, et al. (2014) at a South African University, which revealed that it was common for female students to engage in sexual relationships to help them pay for photocopies, study fees or to raise their social status.

According to Mahlori, et al. (2018), data from Statistics South Africa between 2008 and 2015 reveal that women are likely to be economically dependent on men which further reduces their agency and therefore ability to resist GBV. Participants in the study reported that there was a synergy between poverty and low socio-economic conditions that seemed to exacerbate GBV. The fear of violence including harassment is a permanent fixture in their lives, especially first-year female students as narrated by Portia who accepted the *“harsh behaviour”* from the men as they supported her financially and paid for her necessities and *“most stuff”*. The extract from Kate, quite succinctly described the situation that first-year females find themselves in, *“When you first come to Durban. Money is tight. Sometimes even no food. The male students take advantage of the first years.”*

Those from lower socio-economic backgrounds face a proportionately high risk of GBV, as their poverty makes them vulnerable. Sindy's response bears testimony to this, *“I need to live, and they have the money. I learned to ignore the other abuses.”* Studies by Kiss, et al. (2012) have found that educated economically independent women are less likely to be abused, whilst Mahlori, et al. (2018) believed that a link exists between poverty and GBV and that better-resourced women should, therefore, be less susceptible. According to Peterman, Roy and

Ranganathan (2019), economic transfers, including cash and vouchers, are a key approach to reducing violence against women. However truly understanding the links between GBV and socio-economic insecurity is complex and far beyond the scope of this study, however, all the participants showed that a link does exist.

5.4 EFFECTS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Sexual harassment is an epidemic throughout global higher education systems and impacts individuals, groups and entire organisations in profound ways. Precarious working conditions, hierarchical organisations, a normalisation of gender-based violence, toxic academic masculinities, a culture of silence and a lack of active leadership are all key features enabling sexual harassment (Bondestam and Lundqvist, 2020). In this particular study, I focussed on three main effects of sexual harassment in the context of this research setting.

5.4.1 DIFFICULTIES IN STUDENTS SUCCESSFULLY COMPLETING THEIR ACADEMIC PROGRAMMES

Individual narratives of research participants during interviews and further expatiated during focus group discussions revealed that victims of GBV and sexual harassment experienced difficulties in successfully completing their academic studies and were at risk of not completing and or returning to campus.

“I know of girls who could not handle the stress, made them unhappy, they started to get low marks... did not submit all assignments ... failed and did not return to do second year.” Mbali, female-Individual Interview)

“It’s like a circle. I was abused in my first year. And I struggled a lot. I was getting low marks. Needed to repeat a few modules. Then online started. And I need to ask the guys for help. They know the tek part. They want sex. I am just not sure if I will return in 2022.” (Pretty, female-Individual Interview)

“Yah my baby momma had to leave. She is working now. Taking care of the baby.” (Phila, male-Individual Interview)

“I know of girls, who can’t handle the situation, especially when they sexually abused, they end up with depression, and find it hard to cope with all the assignments and the work. I try to help when I can. I also have my own drama.” (Pauline, female-Individual Interview)

“Eish... I sometimes think if it is the same for all races, but the life of African women is so hard. We [are] harassed, raped, then to study is soooo hard, I feel emotional, and have headaches and can’t concentrate on my studies. I think of leaving. But we are so poor. I am the hope to get a job after studying.” (Lottie, female-Individual Interview)

Mbali in her testimony revealed that she knew *“of girls who could not handle the stress”* after being sexually abused and that *“made them unhappy”*, as a result, *“they started to get low marks”*, were unable to complete and *“submit all assignments”* which led to them not passing *“and did not return to do second year”*. Pretty, revealed that she was contemplating not returning; *“not sure if I will return in 2022”*. Phila impregnated a girl, who dropped out of university, *“my baby momma had to leave. She is working now”*. Pauline was aware of female students who experienced extreme hardship coping with academic tasks especially once *“they sexually abused, they end up with depression, and find it hard to cope with all the assignments and the work”*. Lottie was even doubting and questioning her culture, race and gender. She was feeling extremely despondent and despite contemplating dropping out, continued despite the difficulties due to the hope and alleviation of poverty that may come with a successful job after completing her studies. *“Study is soooo hard, I feel emotional, and have headaches and can’t concentrate on my studies. I think of leaving. But we are so poor. I am the hope to get a job after studying.”*

The findings narrated in this particular study concurred with that of numerous researchers, including Olawale, et al. (2021); Oni, et al. (2019) and Onoyase (2019). They all confirmed that academic performance suffers; concentration declines, and victim participation in academic pursuits are reduced as a result of sexual harassment. In essence, the university environment became toxic when faced with sexual harassment as alluded to by Pauline, Lottie, and Pretty and therefore continuing with their studies was very difficult. Obiozor and Osuala (2018) found increased withdrawal and dropout from the institution. A study by Ekore (2012) in Nigeria, revealed similar results as the present study in that female students give up university education because they are unable or experience difficulty coping with academic tasks as a result of with the sexual harassment and GBV

5.4.2 EMOTIONAL AND RELATED PHYSICAL HEALTH CHALLENGES

Both the individual interviews and focus group sessions revealed that the victims of sexual harassment suffered, emotional, physical, mental and psychological effects.

"I know of many girls taking pilies (pills/medication) because they can't handle the stress after they abused." (Eve, female-Female focus group)

"I get nervous when I'm around a group of guys, you never know what they will do." (Phoebe, female-Mixed focus group)

"I have headaches now, often...worse when I meet up with guys in a group, I get tense." (Portia, female-Individual Interview)

"One time did not realise that she got hurt, so I paid for clinic and whatever she needed to sort herself..." (Sipho, male-Individual Interview)

"Many of us feel that we [are] inferior to the males. We have low self-esteem, and we accept the rough behaviour. And this makes us feel even worse. Makes us feel even more insecure. Some girls leave, I had to go to clinic for treatment". (Jabu, female-Female focus group)

"I don't go anywhere alone. I always try to be like on a mission or something. Not like standing alone. Can't go to library late. I don't make eye-contact, I look straight ahead if I see a group of guys. I feel stressed all the time. Like besaba futhi bekathazekile (afraid and anxious. I now suffer from headaches all the time. My stomach pains. I don't sleep very well". (Sindy, female-Individual Interview)

"I have difficulty trusting guys now. Not ready for a relationship. My tummy churns when I am alone, and I come across a group of guys. Sudden movements and touches from guys scare me. Emotionally ... I am not okay!" (Andrea, female-Individual Interview)

"This behaviour of the male students just angers. It irritates me. I worry sometimes. I hope that I don't become violent or bitch like because I get very angry when I see them harass (harassing) girls. They need to remove some of their "heads" (male genitals) or something. That's why I prefer the female partners". (Kate, bisexual-Individual Interview)

The narratives of Andrea ("emotionally ... not okay"); Eve ("taking pilies Can't handle ... stress"); Phoebe ("get nervous"); Jabu ("inferior...low self-esteem...deserve it"); Sindy ("stressed.... Besaba futhi bekathazekile ["afraid and anxious"]); Sindy and Portia suffering from headaches ("headaches all the time"; "I have headaches now") and Kate ("anger... irritates... become violent"), all revealed the stress, trauma, self-esteem issues, insecurity, irritation,

sometimes anger as well as fear and anxiety that they and other students who had experienced sexual harassment and GBV on campus experienced.

The findings in the research study were in synergy with previous studies by Olawale, et al. (2021), who examined sexual harassment among students at a technical higher institute in Nigeria and found, feelings of anger, health problems, depression, anxiety, negative self-esteem and poor academic performances. Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020); Young and Hegarty (2019); Oni, et al. (2019) and Machisa, et al. (2021) concur that intense anxiety, melancholia, irrational behaviour and intense psychological distress become common amongst victims of sexual harassment.

According to Wood, et al. (2018), students who experience or are exposed to sexual harassment have mental health and physical health issues as well as academic lags. They advance that sexual harassment correlates with negative outcomes, including depression, post-traumatic stress symptoms, diminished health, perceived isolation and helplessness, internalised shame, disordered eating, problematic alcohol abuse, nausea and sleeplessness and menstrual disorders as well as decreased academic satisfaction, perceptions of faculty engagements and performances.

Narrations from the study participants, supported by other researchers indicated that the repercussions and effects of sexual harassment and gender-based violence on the victims are profound. Examining the health aspects alone reveals that GBV and sexual harassment have implications for the psyche and health issues of the victims.

5.4.3 LABELLING AND STIGMATISATION

Labelling and stigmatisation of victims of GBV and sexual harassment is a major stumbling block in handling cases of GBV as it is the fear that keeps victims silent as well as leads to deleterious health effects.

“I have kept quiet about my harassment. I don’t want to be laughed at and called a slut. I know of a girl that ebizwa ngehule (called a slut) by both girls and guys.” (Nontobeko, female-Individual Interview)

“...They will label and pick on me. ...” (Mbali, female-Individual Interview)

“... Don’t want them to look at me, label me, and say I’m a tease...” (Pretty, female-Individual Interview)

“... More labelling and stereotyping.... Most of us put our heads down and get on with it.” (Mthoko, queer-Individual Interview)

“As it is I have such a tough time because I am attracted to girls and guys. ... I am called by vulgar names, male and female students give me a hard time. I don’t ever mention that I was roughed up. I will be laughed at even more. I feel ashamed that I can’t just be me.” (Angela, bisexual-Individual Interview)

“The boys call the victims’ names, and even girl’s snigger when they walk past. I will not tell anyone what happened to me. I do feel very alone... I think girls at the dorm know. They just stare and say nothing. I take tablets to cope. I do phuza a lot.” (Lottie, female-Individual Interview)

“I know of a girl who was made a laughing stuff (stock) for a day after her abuse and vulgar names and words.”(Eve, female-Individual Interview)

The research participants during individual interviews reported that many victims of sexual harassment suffered double distress, first as victims and then they had to face being labelled and stigmatised. Nontobeko is so very ashamed of being laughed at and called a slut, especially as she is aware of a fellow student who is called a slut,” *I don’t want to be laughed at and called a slut. I know of a girl that ebizwa ngehule (called a slut) by both girls and guys*”. It was obvious from Nontobeko, Lottie and Angela that it was both genders that perpetuate the labelling and shaming. It was not the exclusive domain of the male students.

Mbali, Mthoko and Pretty all concurred that labelling was a common result of GBV and sexual harassment. Mbali added that she experienced even harsher treatment as the harassment continued in the form of being constantly ridiculed, *“Pick on me”*. Mthoko being a queer was treated with *“stereotypical labelling”*. Pretty was afraid of being called a *“tease”*!

In many cases, there seemed to be little sympathy and support for the victims of sexual harassment from other students. The opposite occurred where the victims were heckled and derided which further complicated the victim’s ordeal. Lottie stated that victims are called by names. She had not revealed her experience, and this had alienated and isolated her, made her *“feel alone”*; and as a result, she takes medication and alcohol to cope, *“I take tablets to cope. I do phuza a lot.”* Whilst Eve was aware of a student who was *“laughed at”* and had *“vulgar names”* and negative *“words”* direct towards her.

The findings of the study were aligned with a study by Wafula, et al. (2019) at Kenyan universities, which revealed that victims of GBV are laughed at, looked down upon, mocked and humiliated even by the actual perpetrators of the offences. These findings by Wafula (2019) were also corroborated by previous studies by, Chege (2007) and UNESCO (2003) who affirmed that stigmatisation and labelling are major challenges in GBV. Similarly, the narratives of the present study highlighted the fear, intimidation, embarrassment and psychological pain of stigmatisation and labelling experienced by victims of GBV and sexual harassment. The silence associated with the stigma is a major stumbling block in addressing GBV and sexual harassment on campus.

5.5 MEASURES TO ADDRESS SEXUAL HARASSMENT ON CAMPUS

On 3 June 2019, on the DUT website, the Deputy Vice-Chancellor issued a communique to all staff and students, stating that the Department of Higher Education and Training, noted the scourge of sexual harassment and sexual violence at universities. Adding that DHET had drafted a policy framework that had been issued and discussed in the public domain. Thereafter, Dr Naledi Pandor (2019) the then Minister of Higher Education appointed a task team, to ensure the proper reporting and efficient dealing with such cases. The communique indicated that the high prevalence of gender-based violence, harassment and bullying was of great concern at the university. It was further stated that the executive management recognised the seriousness of this offence and advised staff and students on the procedure to be followed in reporting all gender-based violence, harassment and bullying.

In an attempt to address sexual harassment and GBV, the Human Resources Department of the university held a virtual full-day workshop on harassment, gender-based violence (GBV) and bullying education on Microsoft Teams on Friday, 14 August 2020. The main speaker was Dasheni Emmanuel, the Human Resources and Training Manager. She unpacked sexual harassment, GBV and bullying in the workplace. Her aim was to alert the DUT staff about some of their rights and responsibilities when dealing with GBV and sexual harassment on campus. In the training, the discussion tackled how to handle sexual harassment. The effects of sexual harassment on the victim, how sexual perpetrators operate and the role of the employer.

These initiatives by the university must be applauded and commended. However, my interviews revealed that not enough was being done by the university to address the scourge of sexual harassment at the university.

"The University has to have an awareness campaign, with posters all over, with the effects, then maybe the guys will be discouraged." (Phila, male-Male/queer focus group)

"Maybe if I was actually aware of what is actually sexual harassment, it may change my behaviour. The University has to have more programmes informing us on what GBV and sexual harassment is." (Ndumiso, male-Male-focus group)

"If the punishment was greater, maybe guys would be more respectful towards the women. University must start to talk about these things. A strong and effective disciplinary procedure that is known by all students. Need awareness campaigns." (Lunga, male-Male-focus group)

"Need stronger rules in place. Need a hotline number. Encourage come forward. Need to reduce "friends with benefits policy" ... maybe reduce fraternisation in residences." (Nontobeko, female-Individual Interview)

"University must create opportunities for victims to speak freely, without feeling threatened. Opportunities for victims and perpetrators to talk about these issues, to have open dialogue. Need for a victim-centred approach, which allows conversations without feeling threatened to resolve these issues." (Kate, bisexual-Individual Interview)

"We need more information, show that they are caring university about GBV and sexual harassment. Talks...the victims and the perpetrators must talk... create a bond to engage. Students and staff must have formal and informal discussions." (Jabu, female-Female focus group)

"Compulsory module on GBV and sexual harassment awareness. Allow for practical discourse on behaviour management, assertiveness training." (Mthoko, queer-Mixed focus group)

"We don't even know what options we have as females, especially in our first year when we are abused and harassed. The University must increase information, awareness, educate on GBV and sexual harassment." (Eve, female-Female focus group)

"Staff, especially the security staff, need more GBV and sexual harassment training. They need to be more sensitive. Male students do not even know that what they doing is unacceptable. The RA at the residences, need to be empowered to deal with GBV and

sexual harassment cases. Even be able to notice vulnerable people. The University must have campaigns.” (Mbali, female-Female focus group)

“Regular education and advocacy programmes for students in residences, this must include drama, music and the like. Show us that they care about GBV, not only this 16 days of activism in December.” (Portia, female-Mixed focus group)

The interviews provided strong evidence that greater effort needed to be generated in order to tackle the scourge of sexual harassment at the university. The participants mentioned that the main areas of focus should be advocacy and awareness campaigns, approaches to impose sanctions on the perpetrators and create opportunities for dialogue. Some of the participants even suggested various awareness strategies that they felt would increase impact.

It seemed almost unanimous that participants; male and female alike, during individual interviews and during focus group discussions, were in synergy with male and female victims and perpetrators and the university staff have to work collaboratively to tackle the scourge of GBV and sexual harassment. In order for this to happen; there must be focussed, and ongoing awareness campaigns implemented. The campaign that I embarked on to tackle sexual harassment at the university was informed by the suggestion and proposals of the participants above.

5.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the nature, causes and effects of sexual harassment on students at one particular university in Durban. Important issues also emerged in the discussion of the measures to address sexual harassment at this university. This served to inform my campaign aimed to combat sexual harassment and eradicate this scourge among students attending this university. The next chapter provided a detailed discussion on how I planned and implemented my intervention campaign to combat sexual harassment.

CHAPTER SIX: INTERVENTION PROGRAMME

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the planning, implementation and evaluation of the intervention programme that was put into place as a result of the examination of sexual harassment and gender-based violence at the Yasethekwin campus. The programme attempted to produce awareness of the causes, nature and extent of sexual harassment and gender-based violence on campus and promote transformation and change. The evaluation phase sought to establish the extent to which the intervention was able to reduce sexual harassment on the campus.

The duration of the planning and intervention programme spanned a 10-week period. During the initial sample activity, via a zoom meeting participants suggested many strategies. This was the first and crucial step in the participatory action research in which rich data rested with the participants. I, therefore, had an open mind and developed fresh insights into how the problem could be addressed. I did not consider the participants as passive recipients but as active researchers and purveyors of knowledge on campus.

6.2 SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

6.2.1 THE INTERVENTION SAMPLE

The study participants were not all subjected to the intervention programme. Swartz, et al. (2018) in a longitudinal qualitative study that tracked students from eight diverse universities in South Africa, revealed that gendered experiences along with a deep patriarchal mind-set exist on campus. They emphasised that female students struggle with physical and sexual safety which included sexual exploitation by staff and student leaders. In most cases, the perpetrators were males, and the victims were females. It is for this very reason that the intervention programme targeted the four male participants to ascertain their perceptions and only three of the female participants of the study, one bisexual and one queer, so as to attain a gender-balanced view. The sample was selected on the basis of the participants' lived experiences as I considered that this would enable a greater probability of providing relevant data that will inform the research objectives and aim. Of note, is that the men who saw themselves as men engage as gender equality activists to address sexual and gender-based violence through collective action.

These participants were also more vocal during the interview. The participants came across as flexible, with creative instincts and a deeper understanding of the research topic. They were eager to engage on the topic, showing a passion to address the problem of gender-based violence on campus. They further indicated concern for the effect that GBV is having on society at large and mental health. They saw themselves as agents of change.

I chose students to participate in the intervention campaign who were more vocal in the interviews. These students were more passionate and determined to address the problem of gender-based violence and also provided intentions of wanting to make a difference and employ change. We decided to call this team, 'The Liberation Agents' (TLA).

Table 6. 1 Biographical information of participants in the intervention campaign

Pseudonym	Male	Female	Queer	Bi	Accommodation	Home
Mthoko			X		X	
Lunga	X				X	
Andrea				X	X	
Phoebe		X			X	
Jabu		X			X	
Gerald	X					X
Phila	X				X	
Sipho	X				X	
Zola		X			X	
Mbali		X			X	

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic and safety protocols (Disaster Management Act, 2020) and widespread work-from-home arrangements, access and implementation of the entire campaign were impeded and affected. Access to internet connectivity also affected zoom sessions.

6.3 THE INTERVENTION CAMPAIGN

Campbell and Chinnery (2018) reported on the Enhancing Women's Voice to Stop Sexual Harassment (STOP) project (2017-2021) and indicated that a multi-layered intervention is needed. The sexual harassment programmes had to be actionable and not just informative.

According to Bingham and Scherer (2001) programmes need to be interactive and participatory to support the development of new norms and shared meanings, to change attitudes, values, skills and new ways of relating to people.

According to Maphosa (2018), when developing a sound action research intervention, it is paramount that existing interventions be considered. Although there have been gender-based violence programmes in Africa and South Africa (Shai and Sikweyiya, 2015; Maphosa, 2018; Jewkes, et al., 2010) practical interventions on campus are limited. Crucial to this study was to identify effective interventions to address GBV and sexual harassment on campus.

A team meeting took place with the participants of the intervention programme. The objective was to discuss the intervention strategies and its aims. The ultimate aim of the intervention strategies was to find answers to the following research questions.

1. What are some of the ways to reduce sexual harassment at Yasethekwin University?
2. How can a participatory action research programme be used to prevent and reduce the prevalence of sexual harassment at Yasethekwin University?

6.3.1 THE ACTION PLAN

The intervention plan spanned a period of eight weeks. The days utilised were Tuesdays and Thursdays. Target times were from 11h00 to 14h00.

After consultation with all the participants, it was decided that the above dates and times suited all the campaign members. Some of the students were involved in other activities on Mondays and Wednesdays. Two students who lived away from the greater Durban area were still resolving personal issues and would only be available for activities before 14h00. After considering all these factors it was decided that Tuesdays and Thursdays between 11h00 and 14h00 would enable all members to attend and participate in the programme.

Below is the format of the intervention campaign.

- i. Focus Group Discussions:** Discussion on the nature, cause, extent and consequences of sexual harassment and GBV on campus.
- ii. Focus Group Discussion:** Discuss the campus response and policy on the issue.

iii. Plan the Campaign: Planning the programme, including organisation finalising arrangements and permissions. Present ideas and suggestions on tackling the scourge of gender-based violence on campus.

iv. Implement the Programme: Enacting the programme.

v. Reflection and Evaluation of the Programme

vi. Long Term/Sustainable Activities

The table below outlines the actual steps and time frames of the programme.

Table 6. 2 Steps and time frames of the intervention programme

DATE	EVENT	DESCRIPTION
9 Jan - 26 Jan 2022	Focus Group Discussions	<p>Provide opportunities for the participants to express their emotions freely, and without being judged, thus enabling them to become fully self-aware and free themselves.</p> <p>General discussions on the nature, cause, extent, consequences of sexual harassment and GBV on campus.</p> <p>Examine the campus response and policy.</p>
26 Jan - 02 Feb 2022	Planning of the Action Plan	<p>Each participant did a transect walk of the university campus to identify unsafe spaces where women feel threatened and where violent attacks are most likely to occur. Walkabout</p> <p>A student pledge: thumbs down to sexual harassment and GBV.</p> <p>Information pamphlets about GBV and sexual harassment reporting procedure</p> <p>DRAMA afternoon: on the quad; using mime to enact sexual harassment and GBV scenarios. Attempt to make it open theatre and draw spectators into the scene.</p>

DATE	EVENT	DESCRIPTION
		Edutainment focussing on sexual harassment and GBV issues.
02 Feb -15 March 2022	Implement the Action	Implement the various programmes over 6 weeks
16 March-20 March 2022	Reflection And Evaluation	Participants reflect on the success and areas of development of the programme, suggesting possible drawbacks and mitigating issues. Follow up, sustainable activities suggested
22 March - 22 June 2022	Sustainable Programmes	Set up structures for long term projects.

6.4. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Cohen, et al. (2011) asserted that in focus groups, participants engaged among themselves, and this enabled views to surface. I, therefore, acted as a facilitator channelling the discussion. The first focus group took place over Zoom and lasted an hour per discussion. There were four focus group discussions in total, each lasting one hour.

During the ice-breaker activities, participants got to know each other, becoming familiar and comfortable enough to connect and thus allow for rich data to be collected. The discussion was designed so as to promote conversation. After providing an explanation for the reasons, aims and objectives, outlining confidentiality and all ethical considerations, permission was attained to record all activities. Despite recordings, written notes were made throughout the sessions.

To stimulate discussion, a sexual harassment scene 'school is hard and so is your maths teacher' (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yllmLqOWhvq>) was shown. The female participants responded spontaneously, the men took a while to settle down and freely discuss issues of such a sensitive nature. With probing they began to interact freely. A general discussion on the nature, cause and extent of sexual harassment and GBV on campus

ensued. Participants began by sharing anecdotal information. According to Marshall (2006), the narrative is an important data collection tool relying on narrating own stories. This was also important for the females to show their experiences and for the men to provide their perception and understanding.

During the course of the sessions, a pool of views began to emerge. In general, the women participants believed that a lack of gender activism pointed to a lack of feminist consciousness and resulted in accepting sexual harassment and GBV and thereby creating a culture of fear on campus.

6.4.1 NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV

During the focus group discussions, the participants spoke about the nature of sexual harassment and their own and other students' experiences of gender-based violence. The participants mentioned that quid pro quo transactional sex existed on campus and that students enter into relationships and agreements of sex in exchange for favours, which include airtime, cash, meals, and transport costs. They believed that these transactions are not only among students, but also sex-for-marks transactions exists between academic male staff and female students, and even taxi drivers for free rides, as well. The participants also maintained that a 'hostel wives' phenomenon exists, when female students fulfil unpaid social reproductive work for male students. They strongly concurred that new first-year female students are also at greater risk and seen to be 'soft' targets.

The female students highlighted that the campus can be a hostile environment for female students who experience unwanted sexual advances; unwelcome sexual invitations; ogling; whistling; catcalls; derogatory sly comments; whistling and catcalls; being forcefully touched and groped. Participants reported knowledge of unwanted and unsolicited sexual advances, like making sexually suggestive remarks and groping from fellow students, guards and other staff on campus. The participants also insisted that the study environment can also get very difficult when female students feel threatened and coerced to engage in these transactions with academic staff.

Intimate partner violence, they agreed also existed between female students and their male partners. They suggested that the male partners are aggressive and physically violent. Females, they added, are slapped, pushed, raped, pushed around, intimidated and their

movements are monitored. The female students in the intervention programme who lived at the hostels spoke of date rape, filming of sexual encounters and distribution via social media, some male students cohabit in female residences.

Further discussion revealed that the female students quite often show a great deal of tolerance towards harassment and violence. Many have been socialised into submissive gender roles. They lack the assertiveness to resist. Many are also ignorant of their sexual rights. As a result, sexual harassment incidents go largely unreported. Most participants (male and female) revealed that students generally consider rape as the only form of sexual harassment that should be reported. This reinforces the concept that the vast continuum of sexual behaviours perpetrated by male students is regarded as normal gendered behaviour.

6.4.2 CAUSES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV

The discussion also included why sexual harassment was rampant on the campus and what were the possible causes in their opinions. Participants were of the view that the female students quite often show a great deal of tolerance towards harassment and violence. They acceded that many female students have been socialised into submissive gender roles and lack the assertiveness to resist. The strong opinion of the group was that many female students were also ignorant of their rights. Therefore, sexual harassment incidents go largely unreported. The female participants added that assertive female students were sometimes stigmatised, labelled and isolated. They added that some may be raped to be taught a lesson. As a result, they admitted that students who are assaulted are too embarrassed to report the incidents, for fear that they may be blamed for being too provocative and provoking the incident. Both male and female participants felt that the male students show aggressive behaviour as a sign of 'manliness'. Physical, sexual and aggressive prowess, according to the participants was regarded as 'manly' behaviour. The male students further added that male students are also encouraged by other male students to catcall, ogle and grope female students. The female participants were of the view that male students are even more aggressive and violent towards female counterparts when under the influence of alcohol and other stimulants.

6.4.3 EXTENT OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV

During the course of the discussions, all participants strongly endorsed the sexual harassment, violence and threats perpetrated by taxi drivers at the taxi ranks just outside the campus gates

as an immediate concern. They indicated that female students are touched inappropriately, physically pulled by conductors and jostled to fill up taxi spaces. The group indicated that female students are harassed in lecture rooms, lifts, toilets, on campus grounds and at residences. Equally troubling, they felt was when it took place in staff offices.

6.4.4 CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV

All the participants suggest that female students exposed to sexual harassment and gender-based violence either stop attending classes regularly or drop out. Many female students may also show signs of depression and stress as a result of sexual harassment. The group also reported unwanted pregnancies, which lead to unsafe abortions. In some cases, this may result in serious reproductive organ complications. They believe poor academic performance and drop in standards are common. Some female students become afraid and do not leave their residences in the late afternoon and evening. Many do not visit the library for fear of being accosted to and from. Female students prefer to be in groups and are afraid of wandering about alone.

6.5 DISCUSSION ON HOW THE UNIVERSITY RESPONDED TO GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

The university SRC was of the opinion that students did not utilise the forms of assistance and support that the campus offered. It was maintained that agents of social control (police and campus security) were least utilised. Very few students made formal complaints against the perpetrators, and this made resolution, and prevention extremely difficult. It was reported that available on-campus resources were under-utilised. Adding that although Student Counselling and Health Services were visited, this was done by very few students. Campus authorities indicated that health workers, campus psychological services and the student council are under-utilised following sexual experiences. Reasons for such remained unclear. According to university structures, the primary purpose of the department of Student Counselling and Health Services as a whole, was to provide critical, high-quality psycho-social emotional, academic and medical support services to students to prepare them for the world, work and society. According to the department of Student Counselling and Health Services, student counselling was offered as individual counselling for personal and relational issues as well as psychological crises/emergency. Adding that Student Counselling also had a radio feature, pre-COVID-19 on

DUT Radio “All about you”. This feature was run every Thursday from 12. 15 to 12. 45 and relevant psychological topics were discussed by trained psychologists.

I then asked participants to tell me about their views on how the university is dealing with gender-based violence.

The participants were very upset and spoke passionately about the universities approach to sexual harassment. They felt that the university does not focus enough importance on GBV. Most of the interventions are reactionary when an incident occurs and receives media attention. There are policies in place but little political will to successfully plan and implement effective GBV awareness and advocacy campaigns. All the participants indicated that students are unaware of where to report cases of sexual harassment and GBV. Most also indicated that students are unaware of the available support structures provided by the university. The female participants were rather vexed that they do not even know what procedures are to be followed when they face sexual harassment and GBV. They suggested that this is a major reason for the lack of reporting of their experiences. A participant suggested that education is needed with respect to the structures and services offered on campus.

Students remain oblivious to available structures and protocols and indicated that the messages that are posted by the Dean’s Office on the website regarding sexual harassment policy remain unread and accessed by few. They were adamant that these messages are posted just to meet the mandatory and minimum standards on a checklist and do not have the best interest of the students in mind in addressing sexual harassment and GBV. They added that available structures are ineffective. A few participants remained ardent that the university structures are ‘useless’ as sexual harassment cases are not treated seriously. This they suggested compounded the futility of reporting incidents. They had a perception that nothing or very little will be done, and this would empower the perpetrator even more. The male participants indicated that male students are also sexually harassed, however, reporting does not occur for fear of being stigmatised and labelled as weak, homosexual, and embarrassed.

Participants also indicated that while COVID-19 disrupted learning and work on the university campus and may have led to the distancing of many, sexual harassment and GBV continued unabated. They were vehement that the university seemed either oblivious of the high rate of sexual harassment students face on social network platforms like Facebook, Twitter and

WhatsApp or did not care. They indicated that harassing comments continued in electronic forums and even via emails. Fuelling this problem, they felt was tension in families, due to Covid-related illness, isolation, quarantine, unemployment, financial issues and frustrations with the lockdown. With the changing context of university education, participants felt that so is sexual harassment. The participants were in accord that the university's efforts in combatting sexual harassment and GBV needed to shift and adapt.

All the participants agreed that victims of sexual harassment and GBV need to report it, so that the perpetrators may face the consequences and thereby reduce its occurrence. The female students suggested compulsory attendance at programmes that address sexual harassment and GBV. Participants concurred that the university needs to do more. They opined that students needed to be made aware of behaviours that constituted sexual harassment, they even suggested that social media could be used as a tool to disseminate the information. A participant suggested that the university should create awareness by sending individual emails on sexual harassment education, so as to highlight its seriousness.

6.6 PLANNING THE ACTION

In planning the action, we tried to use the principles of the Transcend Method and the Tree of Life approach that was discussed in Chapter Two on conflict transformation. We adopted an approach that encompassed empathy and creativity rather than offence and bitterness. The Transcend model proposes dialogue to loosen and unlock conflict and to create a platform to explore alternatives to violence. Our aim was to shift pessimism to optimism and to find positive goals in tackling sexual harassment. We also used the Tree of Life concepts of storytelling and allowing victims to come together as a group to seek healing. Healing was necessary not just for the relief of the wounded but for the prevention of future violence caused by survivors taking revenge.

6.6.1 BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming was used as an idea-generating tool in addressing sexual harassment and gender-based violence on campus. According to Kumbar (2018), brainstorming is a creative problem-solving technique. It creates an environment conducive for individuals to present ideas, without attracting criticism. Ideas generated were recorded and considered as solutions to addressing sexual harassment and gender-based violence. Brainstorming is an effective

process of problem-solving and getting solutions to problems. The storyboarding creativity technique was used, in three 45-minute planning sessions. This allowed the interconnection of ideas and identified how each idea linked to the other. Peagram (2019) recommended the use of brainstorming, when conducting sexual harassment training, as it is more conversational, interactive and customised to fit into the organisational culture. The merit of using brainstorming as a technique is that it maximises creative idea generation. These ideas are formed collectively with active participation and are easy to implement. Brainstorm sessions are easy to set up, cost-effective and time-saving.

The brainstorming sessions yielded many ideas and thoughts. In our discussions, it was agreed that we would focus on the key issues around GBV and the types of actions that would be implemented to increase awareness and bring about change. Our first step was to build a common understanding of the campus context concerning sexual harassment and GBV.

Participants agreed to do a walkabout of the campus, to identify unsafe spaces where women feel threatened and where violent attacks were more likely to occur. These would be documented photographically and presented with own experiences. The group decided to use photo-voice, which is a creative tool to give their lived experiences of sexual harassment and GBV a voice. It is a process using video and photo images to capture aspects of the environment and experiences. These pictures will have captions and posted around campus to spur awareness and change. It was an attempt at critical consciousness. Wang (1999) stated that photo-voice gave women a voice, greater self-respect and a sense of increased self-control, whilst simultaneously the pictures serve to teach, and can influence policy, include general community and emphasises individual and community action.

Some suggestions for further action included:

1. A student pledge: thumbs down to sexual harassment and GBV.
2. Information pamphlets about GBV and SH reporting procedure
3. Drama afternoon: on the quad; using mime to enact sexual harassment and GBV scenarios. Attempt to make it open theatre and draw spectators into the scene. Whilst students wanted to do this. We had to take the contextual factors of the protracted protest action and students barely on campus. What we did do was set up a team's meeting targeting first-year students to have discussions on sexual harassment and GBV. The

session started with a repeat of the (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yllmLqOWhvg>)
[you tube video.](#)

4. Edutainment focussing on sexual harassment and GBV issues. Discussed but noting the timeframes and the numerous contextual factors taking place especially protest action, and COVID-19 protocols, it was agreed that this action would be a long-term activity (post-study).

6.7 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ACTION

The table below reflects the action plan, its expected target dates as well as the anticipated results. It shows the action steps to achieve the goal of increased awareness of sexual harassment and GBV among students and highlight the impact that is having on students. It clarifies the resources that were needed.

Table 6. 3 Plan of action

Activity	Target Date	Resources Required	Anticipated Result	Progress Notes
Campus walk-about	04 February 2022	Participant time Student population Campus staff and personnel	Identification of campus unsafe zones Make campus safer by highlighting areas that need increased monitoring	Convene a safety assessment focus group Effect safety improvement in vulnerable areas Conduct safety awareness programmes
Student pledge	On registration	All students' time Written pledge	Students pledge a thumbs down to sexual harassment and GBV	Promote the involvement of male students and male staff in reducing gender violence
Information pamphlets	Feb To March 2022	Pamphlets	Increased awareness of the cause, consequence and impact of sexual harassment and GBV on students	Monitor impact
Teams Meeting	March 2022	Participants General student population	Watch a video to spur conversation. TLA shares anecdotes and past experiences. Recruits share ideas, opinions and lived experiences on GBV and sexual harassment in general. Older students mentor new students.	Monitor and evaluate the impact

6.7.1 CAMPUS WALKABOUT

A campus walkabout was executed on Friday, 4 February 2022. The walk started at 9.00 with just three participants. The intention of the walk was to identify the hotspots on campus that promoted the possibility of enacting violence. We identified the poorly lit areas, the secluded areas of the campus and the areas that were not frequented by campus security. We used reflective vests with the branding, "Stop Gender Violence". Our group attracted a great deal of attention and did stand out as access to campus was very limited. We drew up a list of the unsafe zones on campus.

6.7.2 STUDENT PLEDGE

A pledge ceremony was implemented at a Teams meeting where male students took a pledge to show their solidarity and support for denouncing gender-based violence. The students that participated in the pledge were recruited by the LTA. It started with a short talk by a member of 'The Liberation Agents' (TLA). The theme of this activity was 'Thumbs down to GBV and sexual harassment #NotInMyName'. The young men accepted the pledge and were emailed with a thumbs down badge. The initiative was highly successful. TLA and participants decided that they would need actual badges which they can wear to show solidarity for the cause. A direct offshoot from the activity was resolutions taken by the students to refuse to remain silent about demeaning treatment, profane language, toxic behaviour, and demeaning jokes which were regarded as gender-based violence.

6.7.3 INFORMATION PAMPHLETS

The Liberation Agents (TLA) set aside a day where they would focus on the distribution of information via pamphlets that were designed during the planning stage. The pamphlets focussed on the definitions, how GBV manifests within higher education, preventing GBV and responding to violent episodes and a few emergency contact numbers. We divided ourselves into groups and identified certain points outside the campus gates where members would be stationed to distribute the pamphlets. We produced a total of 200 pamphlets. We initially decided to spend most of the day distributing the pamphlets and interacting with students and the general public especially as access to campus is very restricted and with tight Covid protocols and controls. However, the exercise generated so much interest that all pamphlets were distributed in the morning session.

We noticed that the distribution of the pamphlets improved awareness and understanding of GBV and created an awareness among students of how serious the problem actually is. TLA found that many students wanted to interact with them and engage in discussions about gender stereotyping and its effects on gender-based violence.

6.7.4 TEAMS MEETING

In the planning stage, it was decided that we will embark on a drama afternoon. However, this was not possible for us to implement as the study university was closed to students because of student unrest during the time of planned implementation. We decided to replace this activity with an online teams meeting.

An interactive teams meeting was set up by TLA in an attempt to create awareness of the gravity of the problem as well as to provide various types of information around issues of GBV and sexual harassment. A Teams meeting was set up from 18.00 TO 19.00. The session began with the YouTube video, (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yllmLqOWhvg>) you tube video.

A member of TLA shared hypothetical scenarios depicting sexual harassment and GBV and then asked for participant responses. The discussions that followed were very insightful. Female participants found it very healing, while male participants found it enlightening. The feedback reiterated the belief that the participatory sessions even via social media and the internet were a powerful tool to engage students around GBV and sexual harassment. We noticed that the sessions appealed to all students in both a subtle and overt manner and we were able to reach students in an entertaining and engaging manner. By incorporating participatory techniques, the audience was actively engaged by suggesting how the scenes could be altered. We also observed that the dialogue promoted and stimulated critical thinking in addressing violence amongst women and also enhanced understanding of personal knowledge and understanding of how to deal with issues of violence in personal and community life.

6.8 EVALUATION OF THE CAMPAIGN

In this section, I look back at the overall campaign to draw out learning outcomes that can be fed into future campaign work. My intention was not to look for proof of the campaign's success but rather to build evidence that could reasonably be used to improve further interventions. I ascertained the effects of a campaign for the people that it sought to improve and change.

In order to develop the evaluation, I collected the information through self-reports and observed behaviours. I wanted to evaluate whether the campaign produced positive changes in outcomes such as knowledge, attitudes and behaviours as well as social norms relating to gender-based violence.

The campus walkabout drew a huge amount of attention. The aim of identifying the hotspots for violence was achieved. The walkabout also served to create awareness about our campaign and served to emphasise the severity of gender-based violence on campus. It was very encouraging to note the positive feedback as we progressed with the walkabout through the campus. We interacted with each other and developed relationships due to their common interest in wanting to combat gender-based violence.

Only a selected number of students participated in the pledge online and were presented with online pledge badges. They wished to receive actual badges to wear to show support and solidarity and to generate conversations. Subsequently, we received many requests for badges from members who did not attend the pledge which indicated to us that this initiative had far-reaching consequences in our endeavour to tackle gender-based violence on campus.

The distribution of the pamphlets took place quickly and efficiently. The pamphlets were informative, and we were encouraged to see that no pamphlets were being left around or discarded by the students. This was a sign that students regarded the scourge of gender-based violence as a serious problem and wanted to know more about how they could get involved in combatting this problem.

We were very glad to see that students continued to discuss issues raised well after the online Teams discussions. Maybe this may be modified when access to campus is greater. Activities of this nature create dialogue and open a bilateral between victims and perpetrators where lived experiences may be shared.

Whilst the actual long-term impact of the edutainment is hard to assess, immediate dialogue and engagement between the Liberation Agents and students revealed that the edutainment would generate a certain degree of interest. The goal of edutainment is to promote awareness of gender issues, especially socially constructed roles, behaviour, activities, and attributes that society deems appropriate for males and females.

The edutainment is novel longer-term planning that needs to be done for this approach to achieve the desired outcome.

6.9 REFLECTION

The COVID-19 pandemic and the consequent restrictions of the Disaster Management Act impacted heavily on the progress of my study. The university also had policies in place that restricted movement and was also shut down at various intervals. This impacted my initial plans and time frames for the study and the intervention campaign. I also experienced anxieties and insecurities around the pandemic and the many protocols that I had to follow also placed a great deal of stress on my well-being.

The pledge would have been far more effective had it been done by all levels of students and campus personnel including staff at the highest levels.

It was obvious that more pamphlets need to be distributed at the beginning of each semester. It became evident that for lasting social norms to be challenged and changed, male students would be key allies in preventing violence.

The major success in my opinion was where survivors shared their experiences by participating in Teams meetings. However, more counselling is needed, and the establishment of sexual and physical violence trauma centres would make major inroads into combatting sexual harassment and GBV. It would have been beneficial to have included therapists and trauma counsellors as part of the team. It would also have been a greater benefit to have had more group discussions. In group discussions, the victims would have realised that they were not alone and that there is always someone who has had similar experiences, and this would have initiated greater participation.

6.10 CONCLUSION

According to Kaye (2016), participatory action research increasingly useful in contributing toward peaceful solutions to social problems. Kaye (2016) added that opportunities for group collaboration and close engagement create opportunities to solve challenging problems. The intervention campaign outlined in this chapter was an endeavour, to intensify the awareness of the scourge of GBV and sexual harassment on campus and to start a process to eradicate this blight on campus.

The intervention campaign revealed that students can be exposed to behaviour modification strategies and alternative behaviour to physical and sexual violence of GBV and sexual harassment. It was encouraging to find that despite social norms and patriarchy that many students want meaningful change for the betterment of themselves and society at large. I anticipate that with more regular campaigns and programmes with greater intensity and sustainability gender-based violence would diminish and be eradicated from the lives of university going students.

This would ultimately foster positivity and growth. As stated by Chirambi and cited by Kaye and Harris (2016), inclusion, participation, deliberation and dialogue are critical threads tying the various elements of participatory action research leading to peace building. The planning and implementation of the various activities discussed in this chapter attempted to create knowledge that would improve the social and personal lives of students on campus.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

President Cyril Ramaphosa (2020) in the foreword of the National Strategic Plan on Gender-based Violence and Femicide, stated that the unacceptably high levels of gender-based violence and femicide in South Africa are a blight on our national conscience and a betrayal of our constitutional order. The President further added that our country is in the throes of a deep crisis and that women and girls are abused, assaulted and murdered every day at the hands of men. This study offered an account of the narratives and lived experiences of a group of students at Yasethekwin University. In this chapter, the findings are synthesised, conclusions are drawn, and recommendations made based on the findings and the implementation of the campaign to combat sexual harassment at this university.

7.2 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND THE CHAPTERS

The study explored and analyzed the lived sexual harassment and gender-based violence experiences of a sample of students at Yasethekwin University. The study set out to answer the following research questions:

- a. What do students at the selected University perceive to be sexual harassment and GBV?
- b. What are the nature, causes and consequences of sexual harassment at the Yasethekwin University?
- c. What are some of the ways to reduce sexual harassment at the university?
- d. How can a participatory action research programme be used to prevent and reduce the prevalence of sexual harassment at the university?

In answering the research questions, the study adopted the Interpretivist paradigm using a qualitative approach. Purposive sampling in the form of snowballing was employed. Data was generated using individual interviews and focus group discussions and thematic analysis was used to analyse the data. The study drew on Lorber's social construction of gender theory (Lorber, 1994, 2000), which holds that gender is constantly created and recreated during social interaction.

In chapter 1, the rationale, background and focus of the study were outlined. The chapter included important definitions and an overview of the research design and methodological approach as well as the objectives of the study.

Chapter 2 unpacked the research topic using national and international literature and theoretical models used in the conceptualization of the existence of sexual harassment and gender-based violence from both victim and perpetrator perspectives. Approaches to promote peace and reduce violence were also presented.

For any meaningful discussion of sexual harassment and gender-based violence, there is a need for clear, concise widely accepted definitions of the term. Chapter 3, therefore, unpacked the definition and concept descriptions of sexual harassment and gender-based violence. The chapter introduced the forms of sexual harassment in higher education institutions. The chapter also discussed the prevalence of sexual harassment globally and focused on the student perceptions of gender-based violence and sexual harassment in South African universities. A few underlying causes of the phenomenon were offered, linking sexual harassment and gender-based violence to power and patriarchy; organizational toxic climate and social factors. The consequences and effects of sexual harassment and gender-based violence on the lives of victims were also explored. The chapter further presented general legislature and policy in the South African context on sexual harassment and gender-based violence.

Chapter 4 provided the details of and justification of the research approach and paradigm. The research instruments, sampling procedures and processes were unpacked. The difficulties of accessing students and adaptations due to COVID-19 Disaster Management Act and lockdown regulations were provided. Details of the tools used to gather data were presented. The method of analysis to find common themes and patterns was discussed. The chapter ended with a reflection on ethical considerations.

Chapter 5 discussed and analyzed the findings of the research conducted among university students, using the Theory of Social Construction of gender (Lorber, 1994). The main themes were unpacked and highlighted using narratives of the study sample. Measures to address sexual harassment on campus were also presented.

In Chapter 6, the planning, implementation and evaluation of an intervention programme to address the problem of sexual harassment in the university was presented in detail.

7.3 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN STUDY FINDINGS

The findings revealed that sexual harassment and gender-based violence were very prevalent on campus, based on the narratives of both male and female participants of the study.

7.3.1 WHAT DO STUDENTS AT THE SELECTED UNIVERSITY PERCEIVE TO BE SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV

The responses from the participants revealed divergent views on the definition and perceptions of sexual harassment on campus. Whilst the females were clear in that all behaviour, physical, verbal and non-verbal that made them uncomfortable was deemed sexual harassment, many of the males were unclear on the actual definition of what constitutes sexual harassment and gender-based violence. The male students perceived their behaviour as an attempt to show attraction and innocent flirtation maintaining that the female students interpreted the behaviour differently. Male and female participants agreed that females, especially first-year students are the most vulnerable and therefore victims. Female students indicated that the main perpetrators are male students. Based on Lorber's theory (1994, 2000) this behaviour may be a result of gendered norms and socialisation.

7.3.2 WHAT WAS THE NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY?

7.3.2.1 VERBAL HARASSMENT

The responses from the participants revealed that the male students held different views from that of the female students regarding the issue of verbal harassment. Most of the male respondents did not regard their suggestive remarks and crude sounds directed at the female students as harassment. Female participants, in contrast, were quite vociferous in that any behaviour that made them feel uncomfortable was regarded as sexual harassment with undertones of GBV. Although the male students did not see their actions as harassment, they did not deny the performances of these acts. The female students found the verbal taunting, jesting and teasing offensive. The interviews produced sufficient evidence to suggest that verbal harassment was very rife on campus.

7.3.2.2 NON-VERBAL HARASSMENT:

Male participants seemed to believe that these forms are mostly consensual and therefore acceptable, as it was within a relationship, or the girls act coy when exposed to this and that they only cried foul to their friends but enjoyed it with the guys. This was validated by the

responses from the males. The responses from the female students differed significantly regarding sexual harassment. The female students however saw this behaviour as sexual harassment, and some mentioned that they were very uncomfortable but gave in because of relentless pressure from the males.

7.3.2.3 PHYSICAL HARASSMENT

The research interviews and focus group discussions revealed that physical harassment was common on campus. The physical sexual harassment took the form of unwanted touching, smacking, subtle stroking and being physically rough. In the testimonies of the queer student and the bisexual student both mentioned that they were physically assaulted in an attempt to 'beat' and 'shake' them to 'fix' and to make them 'normal'. It was found that assault in numerous cases was to get victims to conform to societal expectations. In all of my discussions with male and female students, none of them mentioned incidents of rape. I cannot undoubtedly conclude that rape did not form part of sexual harassment on this campus or if the students were afraid to disclose incidents of rape for fear of the consequences.

7.3.3 CAUSES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

From the analysis of data, it was revealed that male students used violence against females to affirm their masculinity. Participants referred to men's power and a sense of entitlement by forcing unwanted touches and sexual advances. Lorber's (2000) view of a gendered male as the dominant gender, and the female as subordinate was realised from the data as well. The female students doubted themselves. The data analysis revealed that the male students used their patriarchal power, and subscriptions to certain forms of masculinity to dominate and harass the female students.

Research participants, male and female alike suggested in the individual and focus groups that social factors play a predominant role in the perpetration and perpetuation of GBV and sexual harassment. Power and privilege are wound into the fabric of campus life, where men lay claim to controlling women and, in many cases, sexually harass women since they have the financial means to support the needs of the female students. In all the discussions, interviews and focus groups, participants revealed that first-year female students were most vulnerable due to financial necessity. Lack of financial independence among women was seen as a key driver of GBV and sexual harassment on campus. It is difficult for women who are economically

dependent on their partners to leave the violent, abusive relationship. All participants point to the strong link between poverty and GBV.

7.3.4 EFFECTS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV

Individual narratives of research participants during interviews and further expatiated during focus group discussions, revealed that victims of GBV and sexual harassment experienced difficulties in successfully completing their academic studies and were at risk of not completing and or returning to campus. The victims suffered emotional, physical, mental and psychological effects of trauma. Evidence of labelling and stigmatisation of victims of GBV and sexual harassment was a major stumbling block, kept students silent and contributed to deleterious health effects.

7.3.5 UNDER/NON-REPORTING OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV

An important finding of this study was that sexual harassment and GBV were grossly under-reported on campus. During the individual interviews of the female participants, the majority mentioned that students did not take sexual harassment seriously unless it was rape. The reasons that students provided for not reporting sexual abuses ranged from them not regarding the violations as serious enough, fear of embarrassment and shame, accepting the offences as normal behaviour, fear of being labelled, stereotyping and concerns that no real action is taken by authorities if reported. Some of the females mentioned that no action was taken when victims had previously reported sexual abuse to an authority. Further, the report was not taken seriously and they were made to feel that they have no one to turn to. Their complaints were downplayed. The silence associated with the stigma is a major stumbling block in addressing GBV and sexual harassment on campus.

7.3.6 WAYS TO REDUCE SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Participants gave various suggestions on how to reduce sexual harassment and gender-based violence on campus. The main areas of focus should be on education, advocacy and awareness campaigns around GBV and sexual harassment. Approaches to impose sanctions on perpetrators need to be explored by the university. Participants suggested awareness and dialogue could be raised through discussions. Training of staff to recognise and be alert to forms, causes and effects of sexual harassment and GBV would assist to make the campus a safer environment.

7.4 HOW CAN A PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH PROGRAMME BE USED TO PREVENT AND REDUCE THE PREVALENCE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY?

The programme attempted to produce awareness of the causes, nature and extent of sexual harassment and gender-based violence on campus to promote transformation and change. The evaluation phase sought to establish the extent to which the intervention reduced sexual harassment on the campus. Various activities took place to create engagement and increase awareness of the research topic. Focus group discussions targeting the five male and five female students took place. The nature, cause and extent and consequences of sexual harassment and GBV were explored in depth. Perceptions of the university's response to GBV were also explored. A campaign to tackle GBV and sexual harassment was carefully planned. This involved a campus walkabout, a student pledge, distribution of pamphlets, drama afternoons and edutainment. Unfortunately, the drama afternoons and the edutainment proved beyond the scope and feasibility of this research due to the COVID-19 protocols and disaster management restrictions. This was compounded by other contextual factors on the campus of minimal return of students in 2020 and 2021 and online studies for the majority of students. The campus walkabout to identify the hot spots was conducted with fewer students than originally anticipated. Only a selected number of students participated in the pledge and the distribution of pamphlets. In spite of these challenges, the campaign proved to be most successful. It generated a huge amount of interest and served to create awareness of the seriousness of sexual harassment on campus. I definitely foresee this campaign being intensified when conditions are more conducive. The intervention campaign revealed that students can be exposed to behaviour modification strategies and alternative behaviour to physical and sexual violence. It was encouraging to find that despite social norms and patriarchy that many students want meaningful change for their betterment and society at large. I anticipate that with more regular campaigns and programmes with greater intensity and sustainability gender-based violence would diminish and be eradicated from the lives of university students.

7.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS

Despite a properly outlined purpose of the research, there were several challenges including but not limited to:

7.5.1 COVID-19 PANDEMIC

The pandemic, the Disaster Management Act and the Covid legislature severely affected not only data collection but more especially access to the research sample and the intervention programme was severely disadvantaged. While I tried to keep the intervention reliable and relevant, it is paramount that the campaign continues long after this study or is translated into a strategy for another study.

7.5.2 SAMPLE SIZE

Finding participants initially proved elusive especially due to the pandemic, the disaster management regulations and the unrest in KZN, however by snowballing and purposive sampling the researcher eventually had a sample size comprising twenty participants. These included five male, one queer, two bisexual and twelve female participants. A qualitative research design allows and accepts the use of a smaller sample size. Even though all of the undergraduate students were not participants, certain generalisations could be made from the sample

7.5.3 SENSITIVE NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND GBV

Even though the participants did so voluntarily, it became evident that the nature of the research topic made them a bit hesitant and reserved, this was more evident during the early stages of the individual interviews. They had to be assured of no secondary victimisation and confidentiality especially as the perpetrators were known to them and still very much a part of campus life. However, during the focus discussions, they became more vocal. It must also be mentioned that another reason that victims were hesitant to talk was due to the associated trauma of reliving a harrowing ordeal.

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

As previously elucidated this study followed a qualitative approach to explore and understand student perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment and GBV at a Durban university. To increase the validity and reliability and to allow for further generalisations, it is recommended that similar research be undertaken with larger sample size and be replicated at other universities in KwaZulu Natal and or South Africa. Moreover, the actual intervention campaign

did not achieve all its aims due to the pandemic. It is strongly recommended that the intervention must be continued independent of this research study.

Further study is necessary to explore the relationship between sexual harassment and socio-economic factors, especially poverty. It became evident that more studies are needed to explore the experiences of the LGBTQ community around sexual harassment, bullying and violence.

There is a need to engage with the university hierarchy regarding university policy and commitment to the safety of all students. Training of staff to identify and respond to sexual harassment and GBV is crucial. A database of first-year victims should be established, and a longitudinal study be conducted over a period of time to determine the long-term extent and effects of sexual harassment and GBV on their lives. Restorative justice and Peacebuilding programmes need to be generated across campus in all faculties.

The non-reporting of incidents is worrisome. Students need to be encouraged to report sexual harassment and GBV. The only way to curb sexual harassment and GBV is increased awareness and exposure. Policies should be developed to support female victims without fear of stigmatisation and labelling. With this is the need for a well laid out system to deal with complaints and prevention of secondary victimisation. If universities are to truly transform harmful power relations, exposing toxic relationships and the environment is paramount.

7.7 CONCLUSION

Even though the sample was small, and the study was severely hampered by the COVID-19 pandemic, the researcher succeeded in exploring the perceptions and understanding of university students about sexual harassment and gender-based violence. The research did shed some light on student experiences, and it is hoped that the findings will pave the way for larger studies. Conversations need to continue within the wider university community.

REFERENCES

- @AlyssaMilano. 2017. *If you have been sexually harassed or assaulted#MeToo*: Twitter. Available: <https://twitter.com> (Accessed 14 April 2019).
- Akpotor, J. 2013. Sexism and Sexual Harassment in Tertiary Institutions. *Gender and Behaviour*, 11 (1): 5237-5243.
- Ali, R. Education. 2011. *Dear Colleague Letter*. Washington: Office for Civil Rights. Available: <https://www.nsvrc.org/publications/dear-colleague-letter-sexual-violence> (Accessed 15 April 2019).
- Altrichter, H., Posch, P. and Somekh, B. 2007. *Teachers Investigate Their Work: An introduction to action research across the professions*. 2 ed. London: Routledge. (Accessed 20 March 2021).
- Alvi, M. H. 2016. A Manual for Selecting Sampling Techniques in Research. *Munich Personal RePEc Archive*, 70218. Available: <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/70218> (Accessed 14 April 2021)
- Aly, H. 2004. *Definitions of sexual and gender-based violence*. (Online). 2004. The New Humanitarian. Available: <http://www.thenewhumanitarian.org/feature/2004/09/01> (Accessed 13 November 2019).
- Andales-Escano, C. 2015. Peacebuilding Model in Diverse Conflict Lines Southern Philippines. In: *Land and Disaster Management Strategies in Asia*. New Delhi: SpringerLink, 215-243. Available: <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Peacebuilding-Model-in-Diverse-Conflict-Lines-Andales-Escano/0385a1a3a623de2914b5157390ca782aae56c584> (Accessed 10 December 2021).
- Anwar, F., Osterman, K., Afari-Korkor, J. and Bjorkqvist, K. 2020. Sexual Harassment and Victimization from Four Other Types of Interpersonal Aggression in Ghana: A Cycle of Victimization. *Journal of Educational, Health and Community Psychology*, 9 (1)
- Aranki, D., Sweis, R. J. and Suifan, T. 2019. The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Organizational Commitment. *Modern Applied Science*, 13 (4): 137.

- Arya, S., Kaushik, S. and Arya, A. 2019. Nature, Extent, causes and effects of sexual harassment faced by school girls. *The Pharma Innovation Journal*, 8 (11): 44-48.
- Avendano, A. 2019. Panel: Sexual Harassment in Higher Education: Understanding Root Causes and Developing Labour-Management Solutions. *Journal of Collective Bargaining in the Academy*, 1 (14)
- Barker, G. and Ricardo, C. 2005. Young Men and the Construction of Masculinity in Sub Saharan Africa. *Implications for HIV/AIDS, Conflict and Violence*, 26: 4-36.
- Barker, G., Ricardo, C. and Nascimento, M. 2007. *Engaging men and boys in changing gender-based inequity in health: evidence from programme interventions*. Geneva: World Health Organization/Instituto Promundo.
- Barling, G. and Cooper, C. L. 2008. Micro Approaches. *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Behaviour*. Available: <https://www.scribd.com> (Accessed 9 April 2019).
- Bell, C.C.1994. DSM-IV: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. *JAMA*, 272(10):828-829. Available: <https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jama/article-abstract/379036> (Accessed 19 September 2021).
- Bell, M., Turchik, J. and Karpenko, J. 2014. Impact of Gender on Reactions to Military Sexual Assault and Harassment. *Health & social work*, 39: 25-33.
- Bem, S. L. 1981. Gender Schema Theory: A cognitive Account of Sex typing. *Psychological Review*, 88: 354-364.
- Bem, S. L. 1993. *The Lenses of Gender: Transforming the Debate on Sexual Inequality*. New Haven. Yale University Press.
- Bennet, J. 2011. Policies and Sexual Harassment in Higher Education: two steps forward and three steps somewhere else. *Agenda: Empowering women for Gender Equity*, 23 (80): 7-21.
- Benya, F. 2019. Treating Sexual Harassment as a Violation of Research Integrity. *Issues in Science and Technology*, 35 (2)
- Benya, F. 2019. Treating Sexual Harassment as a Violation of Research Integrity. *Issues in Science and Technology*, 35 (2)

- Berdahl, J. L. and Moore, C. 2006. Workplace harassment: Double jeopardy for minority women. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91 (2): 426-436.
- Bingham, S. G. and Scherer, L. L. 2001. The Unexpected Effects of a Sexual Harassment Educational Program. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 37 (2): 125-153.
- BOARD, N.-U. 2019. Coming together to take a stand against Sexual Harassment. *UCLA Women's Law Journal*. 37
- Boland, M.L. 2002. *Sexual Harassment: Your Guide to Legal Action: What You Should Know and What You Can Do*. Washington: Sphinx Publication.
- Bondestam, F. and Lundqvist, M. 2020. Sexual harassment in higher education – a systematic review. *European Journal of Higher Education*, 10 (4): 397-419.
- Bongai, S. 2017. Student Sexual Harassment at a Rural University in South Africa. A Case Study of the University of Venda Masters of Arts (Youth Development), University of Venda. Available: <http://univendspace.univen.ac.za/bitstream/handle/11602/690/Dissertation-Bongai%2C%20s.-.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y> (Accessed 9 January 2019).
- Bourdieu, P. 1977. *Outline of a theory of Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bourdieu, P. 2002. *Sketch for self-analysis*. Paris: Le Seou.
- Boyle, K. M. and McKinzie, A. E. 2018. The Prevalence and Psychological cost of Interpersonal Violence in Graduate Law School. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*: 1-32.
- Boyle, K. M. and McKinzie, A. E. 2018. The Prevalence of Psychological Costs of Interpersonal Violence in Graduate and Law School. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 5 (2)
- Braine, J. D., Bless, C. and Fox, P. M. C. 1995. How Do Students Perceive Sexual Harassment/An Investigation on the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus. *South African Journal of Psychology*. 25 (3): 140-148.
- Brannen, J. 2017. *Mixing Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Research*. London: Routledge.
- Braun, V. and Clarke, V. 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*. 3 (2): 77-101.
- Brewer, G., Lyons, M., Perry, A. and O'Brien, F. 2019. Dark Traits and Perceptions of Sexual

Harassment. *Journal of Interpersonal Values*: 1-15.

Brownlow, C. and O'Dell, L. 2002. Ethical Issues for Qualitative Research in Online Communities. *Disability and Society*, 17(6): 685-694(Accessed: 18 May 2021)

Brubaker, S. J. 2019. Campus-based Sexual Assault Victim Advocacy and Title IX: Revisiting Tensions between grassroots activism and the Criminal Justice System. *Feminist Criminology*, 14 (3): 307-329.

Bursik, K. and Geftter, J. 2011. Still Stable After All These Years: Perceptions of Sexual Harassment in Academic Contexts. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 151 (3): 331-349.

Campbell, H. and Chinnery, S. 2018. *What works? Preventing and responding to sexual harassment in the workplace: A rapid review of evidence*. Australia: CARE. Available: <https://www.care.org.au/wp-content/upload/2018> (Accessed: 16 January 2021)

Campbell, J. C., Sabri, B., Budhathoki, C., Kaufman, M. R., Alhusen, J. and Decker, M. R. 2017. Sexual Acts among University students correlates of victimization and perpetration. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*: 1-23.

Cannon, L.M., Sheridan-Fulton, E.C., Dankyi, R., Seidu, A., Compton, S.D., Odoi, A., Darteh, E.K.M. and Munro-Kramer, M.L.2020. Understanding the healthcare provider response to sexual violence in Ghana: A situational analysis. *Journal PlosOne*. Available: <https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0231644> (Accessed 15 March 2020).

Carlsson, M. 2019. Self-reported competence in female and male nursing students in the light of theories of hegemonic masculinity and femininity. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 76 (1): 142-158.

Cassino, D. and Besen-Cassino, Y. 2019. Race, threat and workplace sexual harassment: The dynamics of harassment in the United States: 197-2016. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 26 (9): 1221-1240.

CCMA. 2020. *Sexual Harassment*. Available: <https://www.labourguide.co.za/general/600-code-of-good-practice-on-sexual-harassment113> (Accessed 6 January 2020).

Chege, F. 2007. Education and Empowerment of Girls against Gender-based Violence. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education*, 10 (1): 17.

Cohen, L. E. and Felson, M. 1979. Social Change and Crime Rate Trends: A Routine Activity Approach. *American Sociological Review*. 44 (4): 588-608.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2011. *Research Method in Education*. 8 ed. UK: Routledge.

Coleman, C. 2020. *What is an Observation Schedule?* Available: <https://classroom.synonym.com/observation-schedule-7774047.html> (Accessed 20 April 2020).

Collins, P. H. 1990. *Black Feminist Thought: Knowledge, Consciousness, and the Politics of Empowerment*. Boston: Unwin Hyman.

Connell, R. W. and Messerschmidt, J. W. 2005. Hegemonic Masculinity: Rethinking the Concept. *Gender and Society*, 19 (6): 829-859.

Correspondent. 2004. Definitions of sexual and gender-based violence. *The New Humanitarian*, 1 September 2004 Available: <http://thenewhumanitarian.org/feature/2004/09/01> (Accessed 13 November 2019).

Correspondent. *NWU could be liable for harassment damages*. (Online). 2016. Available: <https://m.news24.com> (Accessed 9 April 2019).

Cortina, L. M. 2002. Coping in context: Social determinants of responses to sexual harassment. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 83 (2): 394-405.

Crittenden, C. A., Gimlin, A. M., Bennet, A. and Garland, T. S. 2018. Exploring faculty and students' attitudes about consensual sexual relationships and sexual harassment on college campuses. *Educational Policy* 2018: 1-26.

CSVR. 2016. *Gender-Based Violence in South Africa: A brief Review*. Pretoria: The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation. Available: <https://www.csvr.org.za> (Accessed 15 December 2019).

D'Agostino, J. P., Vakharia, K. T., Bawa, S., Sljivic, S. and Natoli, N. 2019. Intimidation and Sexual Harassment during Plastic Surgery Training in the United States. *Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery - Global Open*, 7 (e2493)

Dailey, R. M. 2006. Confirmation in parent-adolescent relationships and adolescent openness: Towards extending confirmation theory. *Communication Monographs*, 73 (4): 434-

458.

Dalhousie University. 2019. *Restorative Justice*. Available:

<https://www.dal.ca/dept/restorative-justice.html> (Accessed 22 December 2019).

Daniels, A. 2019. Nelson Mandela University silent protest against rapist's graduation.

TimesLive Available: <https://www.timeslive.co.za> (Accessed 5 April 2019).

Dastile, N. P. 2004. Victimisation of female students at the University of Venda with specific references to sexual harassment and rape. Master of Arts, University of Pretoria. Available:

<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org> (Accessed 15 November 2019).

Davids, N. 2020. Gender-based violence in South African universities: an institutional challenge. *Research Gate*,

Davies, M. and Hughes, N. 2014. *Doing a Successful Research Project* 2ed. UK: Palgrave MacMillan Education Trust.

Dekeseredy, W. S. 1988. Women abuse in dating relationships: The relevance of social support theory. *Journal of Family Violence*. 3 (1): 1-13.

Dela Cruz, P. A., Serrano, A. and Tripon, M. O. H. 2016. *State of the Filipino Women Report 2015*. Philippines: Commission on Women. Available:

<https://www.scribd.com/doc/316310437/Estado-Ni-Juana-the-State-of-Filipino-Women-Report> (Accessed 27 March 2020).

Delphy, C. 1993. Rethinking Sex and Gender. *Women's Studies International Forum*. 16: 1-9.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. 2012. *The Landscape of Qualitative Research*. 4 ed. USA: Sage Publications Inc.

De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Delport, C. L. S. and Fouche, C. B. eds. 2019. *Research at Grassroots: for social sciences and human services professions*. 4th ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C. B. and Delport, C. L. S. 2005. *Research at grassroots: For the social science and human service professionals*. 3 ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Dhirania, M. K. and Chawla, K. 2019. Workplace Management and Sexual Harassment. *International Journal of Research in Engineering, IT and Social Science*. 9 (3)

- Dlamini, B. 2019. Women retaliate against Patriarchy. *Independent on Saturday*, 14 March 2019: 4.
- Donnelly, K. 2019. Workshops to help students call out sexual harassment. *Irish Independent*, 26 January 2019 9 April 2019).
- Dudovskiy, J. 2018. *The Ultimate Guide to Writing a Dissertation in Business Studies: A Step-by-Step Assistance*. New York: Research-methdology.net. Available: <https://research-methodology.net/about-us/ebook> (Accessed 16 April 2020).
- Durbach, A. 2018. University students aren't reporting sexual assault and new guidelines don't address why? *The Conversation*, 23 July 2018 Available: www.theconversation.com (Accessed 9 April 2019).
- DUT. 2018. *DUT silent protest tackles gender-based violence*. Available: <https://www.dut.ac.za/silent-protest> (Accessed 10 April 2019).
- DUT. 2018. *DUT SILENT PROTESTS TACKLE GBV*. Available: <https://www.dut.ac.za> (Accessed 18 May 2020).
- DUT. 2018. *Message of support from Dut Vice Chancellor and Principal: Professor Mthembu Thandwa*. Available: <http://www.dut.ac.za/wp-content/uploads>. (Accessed 20 May 2019).
- DVC. UJ. 2019. *Policy on Prevention and Management of Student Sexual Harassment and Rape*. Johannesburg: Council. Available: <https://www.uj.ac.za/about/corporate-governance%E2%80%8B/Documents/Policy%20on%20Prevention%20and%20Management%20of%20Student%20Sexual%20Harassment%20and%20Rape.pdf> (Accessed 5 December 2019).
- Eisenhardt, K. M. 1989. Building Theories for Case Research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14 (4)
- Ekore, J. O. 2012. Gender Differences in Perceptions of Sexual Harassment among University Students. *Gender and Behaviour*, 10 (1): 4358-4370.
- Elliot, J. 1991. *Action Research for Educational Change*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Escano, C. 2015. Peace building Model in Diverse Conflict Lines Southern Philippines. 215-243. Available: <https://www.verywellmind.com/gender-nonconforming-definition-4582878> (Accessed 9 January 2020).

Encyclopaedia Britannica. 2010. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica Inc. Available: <https://mail.google.com> (Accessed 28 March 2019).

Evans, A. E., Currin, J. M., Garos, S., Stokes, A., Cox, K. and Meyer, C. L. 2022. 'Wasn't This Already Considered Sexual Harassment?' Exploring the Confusion around the Law Mandating Consent to Receive a Nude Sext Message. *American Journal of Sexuality Education*: 1-25.

Executive Director. UKZN. 2017. *Sexual Harassment Policy*. Durban: Human Resources. Available: <https://aessupport.ukzn.ac.za/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/Sexual-harassment-policy.pdf> (Accessed 5 December 2019).

Farley, L. 1978. *Sexual Shakedown: The Sexual Harassment of Women on the Job*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fattah, E. A. 1991. *Understanding criminal victimisation: An introduction to theoretical victimology*. Scarborough: Prentice-Hall.

Fengu, M. 2018. Few rules against women abuse at universities. *City Press*, 11 August 2018 Available: <https://citypress.news24.com> (Accessed 9 April 2019).

Fielding-Miller, R., Shabalala, F. and Masuku, S. 2019. Epidemiology of Campus Sexual Assault among University Women in Eswatini. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 36: 088626051988820.

Finchilescu, G. and Dugard, J. 2021. Experiences of Gender-Based Violence at a South African University: Prevalence and Effect on Rape Myth Acceptance. *J Interpers Violence*, 36 (5-6): Np2749-np2772.

Fineran, S., Bennett, L. and Sacco, T. 2003. Peer Sexual Harassment and Peer Violence in adolescents in Johannesburg and Chicago. *International Social Work*, 46 (3): 387-401.

Fiske, S. T. and Glick, P. 1996. Ambivalent Sexism. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. 33: 115-188.

Fogel, R. L. 1974. Social Services impact: Information for Legislative Action. *Policy Studies Journal*, 2 (3)

Fournier, A. B. 2019. *What Does Gender Nonconforming Mean?*

Freyd, J. J. 2016. Polgreen, L. The Problem with "Required Reporting" of Sexual Violence on College Campuses. Available: <https://m.huffpost.com> (Accessed 12 November 2019).

Garofalo, J. 1987. *Reassessing the Lifestyle Model of Criminal Victimization*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc. Available: <https://www.ncjrs.gov> (Accessed 20 November 2019).

Gavidia, M. L. L. 2019. Using a social norms framework to study Latino Youth Beliefs about sexual harassment in High School. *Social and Behavioural Science Commons*.

Gawali, S. 2019. Unpacking Sexual Harassment of Women in the Context of the #MeToo and the Pinjra Tod Campaigns: Feminist Understandings. *Jindal Global Law Review*, 10 (2): 287-302.

Gergen, K. J. and Davis, K. E. eds. 2012. *The social construction of the person*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Gibbons, A. *Harvard bans former anthropology chair after finding persistent sexual harassment* (online). 2021. American Association for the Advancement of Science. Available: <https://www.science.org/content/article/harvard-bans-former-anthropology-chair-after-finding-persistent-sexual-harassment> (Accessed 10 June 2021).

Giglio, V., Schneider, P., Madden, K., Bond, Z., McKay, P., Bozzo, A., Bhandari, M. and Ghert, M. 2022. Perpetrators of Gender-Based and Sexual Harassment in the Field of Orthopaedic Surgery. *JBJS Open Access*, 7 (1): e21.00098.

Girdhar, S. and Rajput, D. S. 2019. The Incidence of Sexual Harassment at Higher Education Institutes. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*: 148-154.

Goh, J. X., Bandt-Law, B., Cheek, N. N., Sinclair, S. and Kaiser, C. R. 2021. Narrow Prototypes and Neglected Victims. In: *Proceedings of*.

Goldi, S., Maass, A. and Cadinu, M. 2014. Objectifying Media: Their Effect on Gender Role Norms and Sexual Harassment of Women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. 38 (3): 394-413.

Gordon, S. F. and Collins, A. 2013. "We face rape. We face all things": Understandings of gender-based violence amongst female students at a South African university. *African Safety Promotion*, 11 (2): 93-106.

Gouws, A. and Kritzinger, A. 1995. Sexual Harassment of Students: A Case Study of a South African University. *South African Sociological Review*, 7 (2): 1-24.

Gouws, A. and Kritzinger, A. 2007. Dealing with sexual harassment at institutions of higher learning: Policy Implementation at a South African University. *South African Journal of Higher*

Education, 21 (1): 68-84.

Gqola, P. D. 2015. *RAPE: A South African Nightmare*. Auckland: MF Books.

Griner, A. 2018. The better way to support rape victims: Put their needs first. *The Guardian*, 13 March 2018 Available: www.theguardian.com (Accessed 10 April 2019).

Gunnarsson, B. L., Linell, B. and Nordberg, B. eds. 2014. *The construction of professional discourse*. New York: Routledge.

Gunnarsson, B. L., Linell, P. and Nordberg, B. eds. 2014. *The Construction of Professional Discourse*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Gutek, B. A. 1985. *Sex and the workplace: Impact of sexual behaviour and harassment on women, men, and organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bates.

Gutek, B. A., Morasch, B. and Cohen, A. G. 1983. Interpreting Social-Sexual Behaviour in A Work Setting. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*. 22: 30-48.

Haider, S. 2016. The Shooting in Orlando, Terrorism or Toxic Masculinity (or Both?). *Men and Masculinities*, 19 (5): 555-565.

Hamlall, V. 2013. Constructing Peaceful Masculinities in the Face of Conflict among High School Boys. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 36 (3): 255-267.

Hamlall, V. 2018. Heterosexual relationships among young black men in the construction of masculinity at a South African University. *Social Dynamics*, 44 (2): 306-321.

Hammarberg, K., Kirkman, M. and de Lacy, S. 2016. Qualitative research methods: When to use them and how to judge them. *Human Reproduction*, 31 (3).

Hanson, L.L.M.2020. Work related sexual harassment and risk of suicide and suicide attempts: prospective cohort study. *BMJ*, 370: M2984. Available: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7463167/#!po=80.3571> (accessed: 17 June 2021).

Haurwitz, R. K. M. 2018. At UT, an inappropriate relationship alters futures, and raises questions. *Statesman*, 19 August 2018 at 12: 01 Available: <https://www.statesman.com> (Accessed 4 July 2019).

HEAIDS. DHET. 2010. *National Student Sexual Health HIV Knowledge, Attitude and*

- Behaviour Survey*. Centurion: Government Printing Works. Available: https://www.heaids.ac.za/site/assets/files/1248/lgbti_final_version_full_report.pdf (Accessed 15 April 2019).
- Heber, A. 2017. You thought you were Superman: Violence, victimization and masculinities. *British Journal of Criminology*, 57 (1): 61-78.
- Heilman, B. and Barker, G. 2018. *Masculine Norms and Violence: Making the connections*. Washington, DC: Promundo-US.
- Heilman, B., Barker, G. and Harrison, A. 2017. *The Man Box; A study on Being a Young Man in the US, UK, and Mexico*. Washington, Promundo_US.
- Helman, R. and Dery, I. *What is toxic masculinity, and how do we need to be talking about it*. (Online). 2018. Sekunjalo Investments. Available: <https://www.iol.co.za/capeargus/opinion> (Accessed 2 March 2020).
- Hill, C. and Silva, E. 2005. *Drawing the line: Sexual Harassment on campus*. Washington: American Association of University Women.
- Hindelang, M. J., Gottfredson, M. R. and Garofalo, J. 1978. *Victims of Personal Crime-An Empirical Foundation for a theory of Personal Victimization*. Cambridge: Ballinger Publishers.
- Hites, L. S., Fifolt, M., Beck, H., Su, W., Kerbawy, S., Wakalee, S. and Nassel, A. 2019. A Geospatial Mixed Methods Approach to Assessing Campus Safety. *Sage Research Methods*: 1-22. Available: ISBN: 9781526498137 (Accessed 27 June 2019).
- Hopkins, D. 1993. *A Teachers Guide to Classroom Research*. Michigan: Open University Press.
- Howard, V. *Restorative Approaches to Harassment and Sexual Violence in Post-Secondary Institutions* (online). 2018. Available: <https://www.lexology.com/library/detail.aspx?g=389699b0-d7b9-4b95-a837-26d87420457a> (Accessed 22 December 2019).
- Hunt, J. C., Gonsalkorale, K. and Murray, S. B. 2013. Threatened Masculinity and Muscularity: An Experimental Examination of Multiple Aspects of Muscularity in Men. *Body Image*, 10 (3): 280-299.

IDH. 2018. *How to address sexual harassment and other forms of Gender-based violence*. Kenya: IDH: the Sustainable Trade Initiative. Available: <https://www.idhsustainabletrade> (Accessed 15 December 2019).

Jewkes, R. 2017. Gender-based Violence in South African-Higher Education: Best Practice in Prevention and Responses? Paper presented at the *HIGHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING HIV/AIDS PROGRAMME*. Durban International Convention Centre, Available: <https://www.heaidsconference.co.za> (Accessed 15 December 2019).

Jewkes, R. and Morrell, R. 2018. Hegemonic Masculinity, Violence and Gender Equality: Using Latent Class Analysis to Investigate the Origins and Correlates of Differences between Men. *Man and Masculinities*, 21 (4): 547-571.

Jewkes, R., Morrell, R., Hearn, J., Lundqvist, E., Blackbeard, D., Lindegger, G., Quayle, M., Sikweyiya, Y. and Gottzen, L. 2015. Hegemonic masculinity: combining theory and practice in gender interventions. *Culture, Health and Sexuality*. 17 (2): 112-127.

Johnson, P. A., Widnall, S. E. and Benya, F. eds. 2018. *Sexual Harassment of Women; Climate, Culture, And Consequences in Academic Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine*. Washington: The National Academies Press.

Jordan, J. 2018. Power not Gender. *HRFUTURE* June 2018. Available: <https://www.hrfuture.co.za> (Accessed 27 June 2019).

Joseph, J. 2015. Sexual Harassment in Tertiary Institutions: A comparative perspective. *Temida*, 18 (2): 125-144.

Kabaya, S. 2016. Understanding Sexual Harassment amongst Students at a Selected University of Kwa -Zulu Natal Campus. Masters of Education, University of Kwa-Zulu Natal. Available: <https://hdi.handle.net/10413/13923> (Accessed 10 April 2019).

Kalra, G. and Bhugra, D. 2013. Sexual Violence against women. Understanding cross-cultural intersections. *Indian Journal of Psychiatry*. 55 (3): 244-249.

Kapila, P. 2017. Theoretical Perspectives to Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*, 6 (9): 32-35.

Kawulich, B. B. 2005. Participant Observation as a Data Collection Method. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 6 (2)

- Kayuni, H. M. 2009. The challenges of studying sexual harassment in higher education: an experience from the Malawi's Chancellor College. *Journal of Women's Studies*. 11 (2): 83-99.
- Keenan, M. and Zinsstag, E. 2014. Restorative justice and sexual offences: can 'changing lenses' be appropriate in this case too. *Monatsschrift for Criminology*, 97 (1)
- Kendra, C. 2019. *Sociocultural Theory of Cognitive Development*. Available: <https://www.verywellmind.com/what-is-sociocultural-theory-2795088> (Accessed 9 January 2020).
- Khan, S., Greene, J., Mellins, C. and Hirsch, J. 2020. The Social Organization of Sexual Assault. *Annual Review of Criminology*, 3
- Kirby, R. 2019. 2019. Kirby, M. Toxic Masculinity: the problem with men. *Trends in Urology and Men's Health* (Blog). Available: www.trendsinmenshealth.com/blog (Accessed 17 February 2020).
- Knight, L., Ranganathan, M., Abramsky, T., Polzer-Ngwato, T., Muvhango, L., Molebatsi, M., Stöckl, H., Lees, S. and Watts, C. 2020. Intervention with Microfinance for AIDS and Gender Equity (IMAGE): Women's Engagement with the Scaled-up IMAGE Programme and Experience of Intimate Partner Violence in Rural South Africa. *Prevention Science*, 21 (2): 268-281.
- Koss, M. and Achilles, M. *Restorative Justice Responses to Sexual Assault* (online). 2008. Available: <https://www.vaw.net> (Accessed 26 December 2019).
- Koss, M. and Lopez, E. 2018. *Gender Policy Report*. Minnesota: University of Minnesota. Available: <https://genderpolicyreport.umn.edu/restorative-justice-for-sexual-misconduct-not-if-but-when/> (Accessed 25 December 2019).
- Koss, M. P. 2014. The Restore Program of Restorative Justice for Sex Crimes: Vision, Process and Outcomes. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. 29 (9): 1623-1660.
- Koss, M. P., Wilgus, J. K. and Williamsen, K. M. 2014. Campus Sexual Misconduct: Restorative Justice Approaches to enhance compliance with Title IX. *Trauma, Violence and Abuse*. 15 (3): 242-257.
- Kuzel, A. J. and Like, R. C. 1991. *Standards of trustworthiness for qualitative studies in Primary Care*. California: Sage.

- Langa, M. 2020. *Becoming Men: Black Masculinities in a South African Township*. Johannesburg: Wits University Press.
- Lather, P. 1986. Research as Praxis. *Harvard Educational Review*. 56 (3): 257-277.
- Leach, F. 2013. *Corruption as Abuse of Power: Sexual Violence in educational Institutions: International Global Corruption Report*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
- Leavy, P. ed. 2014. *The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative Research*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lee, J. H. 2020. Perceptions and Actual Experiences of Sexual Harassment in Clinical Placement among Physical Therapy Students. *Korean Physical Therapy*, 32 (1): 7-13.
- Llewellyn, J., Macisaac, J. and MacKay, M. 2015. *Report from the Restorative Justice Process at the Dalhousie University Faculty of Dentistry*. Dalhousie: Department of Dentistry. Available: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2879539> (Accessed 26 December 2019).
- Lorber, J. 1994. *Paradoxes of Gender*. London: Yale University Press.
- Lorber, J. 2000. Using gender to undo gender. *Feminist Theory*, 1 (1): 79-95.
- Lui, C. H. and Mathews, R. 2005. Vygotsky's philosophy: Constructivism and its criticisms examined. *International Educational Journal*, 6 (3): 386-399. (Accessed: 15 April 2020).
- Luzon, G. 2017. Criminalising Sexual Harassment. *The Journal of Criminal Law*, 8 (5)(Accessed: 20 December 2021).
- Mamaru, A., Getachew, K. and Mohammed Y. 2015. Prevalence of Physical, Verbal and Nonverbal Sexual Harassments and Their Association with Psychological Distress among Jimma University Female Students: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Sciences*, 25(1):29-38. Available: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/273156486> *Prevalence of Physical Verbal and Nonverbal Sexual Harassments and Their Association with Psychological Distress among Jimma University Female Students A Cross-Sectional Study* (Accessed 15 May 2020).
- Mahlori, X. F., Byrne, C. and Madube, L. A. 2018. Perceptions of Gender-Based Violence among University Staff: Interim Results. *Reproductive Health in Sub-Saharan Africa-Original Research*, 1 (14): 14.
- Makhafola, K. P. 2020. Hidden Narratives of Sexual Harassment in South Africa's Academy:

- Exploring Women Students' Experiences at the University of Johannesburg. Master of Arts, Johannesburg. Available: file:///C:/Users/SAHARA/Downloads/Makhafola%20KP%20%20-%20Dissertation.pdf.pdf (Accessed 15 January 2022).
- Mamaru, A., Getachew, K. and Mohammed, Y. 2015. Prevalence of Physical, Verbal and Nonverbal Sexual Harassments and Their Association with Psychological Distress among Jimma University Female Students: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Ethiopian journal of health sciences*, 25: 29-38.
- Manamela, B. 2018. *African Rising Dialogue* Tshwane University: Government Printing Works. Available: <http://www.polity.org.za/article/sa-buti-manamela-address-by-deputy-minister-during-interaction-with-tshwane> (Accessed 12 December 2019).
- Mansfield, K. C., Beck, A. G., Fung, K., Montiel, M. and Goldman, M. 2017. What constitutes sexual harassment and how should administrators handle it? *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership*. 20 (3): 37-55. (Accessed: 18 January 2021).
- Maphosa, B. C. 2017. Reducing gender-based violence; action research among Zimbabwean youth. In: Kaye, S. and Harris, G. eds. *Building Peace via Action Research*. Addis Ababa: UPEACE Africa Programme, 95-117. (Accessed: 18 January 2021).
- Markram, J. 2020. A Qualitative Study Exploring Female University Students' Experiences of Sexual Harassment. Master's in Research Psychology, Stellenbosch University. Available: file:///C:/Users/SAHARA/Downloads/markram_study_2020%20(3).pdf (Accessed 15 December 2021).
- Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. 1995. *Designing Qualitative Research*. 3 ed. London: SAGE.
- Mashiri, L. 2013. Conceptualisation of Gender-based Violence in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 3 (15). (Accessed: 18 December 2021).
- Maurice, C. 1991. *Consequences: Beyond resisting rape*. Berkley: Newbury Press.
- Mayekiso, T. V. and Bhana, K. 1997. Sexual Harassment Perceptions and Experiences of Students at the University of Transkei. *South African Journal of Psychology*. 27: 230-235.
- Mazur, A. P. 2019. Sexual Harassment and confirmation theory: How recipients perceive the dimensions of acceptance and challenge. Master of Arts, Michigan State University. Available:

<https://serach.proquest.com> (Accessed 3 December 2019).

McCold, P. and Wachtel, T. 2003. In Pursuit of Paradigm: A Theory of Restorative Justice. *Restorative Practices Forum*: 1-15.

Mchunu, E. S. 2010. *Media Statement: MEC for Education Pietermaritzburg*: Government Release. Available: www.sanews.gov.org.za (Accessed

McNiff, J. 2013. *Action Research: Principles and Practice*. 3 ed. London: Routledge.

McNiff, J. and Whitehead, J. 2011. *All You Need to Know About Action Research*. 2 ed. London: SAGE.

Messerschmidt, J. W. 2019. The Saliency of "Hegemonic Masculinity". *Men and Masculinities*, 22 (1): 85-91.

Mika, H., Achilles, M., Halbert, E., Amstutz, L. S. and Zehr, H. 2004. Listening to Victims—A Critique of Restorative Justice Policy and Practice in the United States. *Federal Probation*, 68 (1): 72-85.

Miller, P. and Biele, N. 1993. *Twenty years later: The unfinished Revolution*. Minneapolis: Milkweed Editions.

Mkhwanazi, S. 2019. Ministers promise students pepper sprays. *Independent on Saturday*. 7 September 2019: 7.

Moagi, L. 2018. Sexual harassment plagues academia. *City Press*, 1 April 2018. Available: <https://m.news24.com> (Accessed 4 April 2019).

Mokati, N. 2019. The triggers of Gender-Based violence are going off. *Mercury*: 11 September 2019(Accessed: 19 December 2021).

Morrell, R., 2020. Raewyn Connell and the Making of Masculinity Studies in South Africa. *Boyhood Studies*, 13(2):117-128.

Morrell, R., Jewkes, R., Lindegger, G. and Hamlall, V. 2013. Hegemonic Masculinity: Reviewing the Gendered Analysis of Men's Power in South Africa. *South African Review of Sociology*, 44 (1): 3-21.

Morrell, R., Jewkes, R., Lindegger, G. and Hamlall, V. 2013. Hegemonic Masculinity: Reviewing the Gendered Analysis of Men's Power in South Africa. *South African Review of*

Sociology. 44 (1): 3-21.

Mtshali, M. 2019. Open Letter. *The Mercury*. 11 March 2021. (Accessed: 4 May 2021)

Muchemwa, C. 2017. Building friendships between Shona and Ndebele ethnic groups in Zimbabwe. Doctor of Philosophy, Durban University of Technology. 20 June 2021).

Napikoski, L. 2020. *Feminist Literary Criticism*. Available: <https://www.thoughtco.com/feminist-literary-criticism-3528960> (Accessed 20 December 2021).

Neuman, W. L. 2006. *Social Research Methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. 6 ed. Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

Ngcai, T. 13 Sexual Violence Cases reported at UCT in 4 months. (Online). 2016. Available: <https://m.news24.com.2016/05/26> (Accessed 6 April 2019).

Ngidi, N. and Moletsane, R. 2015. Using transformative pedagogies for the prevention of gender-based violence: Reflections from a secondary school-based intervention. *Agenda* 2015: 1-13.

Ngwenya, D. 2016. "Our Branches Are Broken:" Using the Tree of Life Healing Methodology with Victims of Gukurahundi in Matabeleland, Zimbabwe. *Peace and Conflict Studies*, 23: 2.

Obiozor, O. R. and Osuala, L. N. 2018. Control Strategies for Sexual Harassment of Female Learners in Tertiary Institutions in Nigeria. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 11 (1): 489-4162.

OCHA. UN. 2003. *Sexual Harassment*. Geneva: Lowcock, M. Available: <https://www.unocha.org/> (Accessed 20 June 2019).

October, L. S. 2020. Antiforeigner Resentment as a Manifestation of Xhosa Hegemonic Masculinity. *Journal of Immigrant & Refugee Studies*, 18 (4): 421-433.

Olawale, A. I., Olurin, O. A., Kehinde, A. and Maroof, S. A. 2021. Analysis of Sexual Harassment and its Perception among students of Technical Higher Institutions. *Academic Journal of Current Research*, 8 (12): 10-17.

Oni, H. T., Tshitangano, T. G. and Akinsola, H. A. 2019. Sexual harassment and victimization of students: a case study of a higher education institution in South Africa. *African Health Science*, 19 (1): 1478-1485.

- Onoyase, A. 2019. Prevalence of Sexual harassment of female students at Tertiary Education in Taraba State, North-East Nigeria: Implications for counselling. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 8 (1): 77-83.
- Paechter, C. 2003. Learning masculinities and femininities: power/knowledge and legitimate peripheral participation. *Women's Studies International Forum*. 26 (6): 541-552.
- Paludi, M. A. 1990. *Ivory Power: Sexual Harassment on Campus*. New York: University of New York Press.
- Paquette, G., Martin-Storey, A., Bergeron, M., Dion, J., Daigneault, I., Herbert, M., Ricci, S. and Castonguay-Khounsombath, S. 2019. Trauma Symptoms Resulting from Sexual Violence among Undergraduate Students: Difference across gender and sexual minority status. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. 1-26(Accessed 18 April 2021).
- Patton, M. Q. 2002. *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. 3 ed. California: Sage.
- Payne, M. 2005. *Modern Social Work Theory*. Palgrave: MacMillan.
- Peacock, D. *Stop Gender Violence: A National Campaign* (online). 2019. Sonke Gender Justice. Available: <https://genderjustice.org.za> (Accessed 26 November 2019).
- Pettifor, A. E., Measham, D. M., Rees, H. V. and Padian, N. S. 2004. Sexual power and HIV risk, South Africa. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 10 (11): 1996-2004.
- Polit, D. F. and Hungler, B. P. 2004. *Nursing Research and Evaluation METHODS*. Philadelphia: Lippincourt Williams and Wilkins.
- Ramaphosa President, C. 2019. *Address to Parliament*. Cape Town:
- Reeler, T., Chitsike, K. and Maizva, B. A. 2009. Tree of Life: a community approach to empowering and healing survivors of torture in Zimbabwe. *Torture*, 19 (3): 180-194.
- Reeves, N. D. and Hedburg, J. C. 2003. *Interactive Learning Systems Evaluation*. New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications.
- Reilly, T., Carpenter, S., Dul, V., Bartlett, K. and Brewer, M. B. 1982. The factorial Survey: An approach to defining Sexual Harassment on Campus. *SPSSI Journals*, 38 (4): 1540-4560.
- Renzetti, C. M., Curran, D. J. and Maier, S. L. 2012. *Women, Men and Society*. 6 ed. Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

Ruiz-Eugenio, L., Toledo del Cerro, A., Crowther, J. and Merodio, G., 2021. Making Choices in Discourse: New Alternative Masculinities Opposing the “Warrior’s Rest”. *Frontiers in psychology*, 12: 674054.

Rivers, I. and Duncan, N. 2013. *Bullying: Experiences and Discourses of Sexuality and Gender*. United Kingdom: Routledge.

Romito, P., Cedolin, C., Bastian, F. and Saurel-Cabizolles, M. J. 2019. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 34 (14): 2960-2974.

Romito, P., Cedolin, C., Bastian, F., Beltramini, L. and Saurel-Cabizolles, M. J. 2017. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health*, 45: 528-553.

Rosenthal, I. and Banks, R. 2018. *An initial review of sexual assault and sexual harassment prevention and response at the University of Tasmania*. Tasmania: Tasmania University 4 July 2019).

Rotherham, P. *South Africa's Shocking Gender-Based Violence Statistics*. (Online). 2019. Available: <https://albertrecord.co.za> (Accessed 26 November 2019).

Saal, F. E. 1996. Men's misperceptions of women's interpersonal behaviours and sexual harassment. In: Stockdale, M. S. ed. *Sexual Harassment in the Workplace: Perspectives, frontiers and responses*. London: Sage Publications Inc.

Saferspaces. 2019. *Gender-Based Violence at Higher Education Institutions in South Africa*. Available: <https://www.saferspaces.org.za> (Accessed 15 December 2019).

Saferspaces. 2020. *Alternatives to Violence Project* Available: <https://www.saferspaces.org.za/organisation/entry/alternatives-to-violence-project1> (Accessed 26 March 2020).

Saferspaces. 2020. *Toxic Masculinity and Violence in South Africa*. Available: <https://www.saferspaces.org.za> (Accessed 24 February 2020).

Sanday, P. R. 1990. *Fraternity Gang Rape: Sex, Brotherhood and Privilege on Campus*. New York: New York University Press.

SAPS. 2019. *Crime Statistics*. South Africa: Police Service. Available: <https://www.saps.gov.za> (Accessed 2 August 2019).

Scheff, T. J. 1990. *Microsociology: Discourse, Emotion and Social Structure*. Chicago:

University of Chicago Press.

School is Hard and so is your maths teacher (online video). 2018.

(<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yllmLqOWhvq>. (Accessed 20 Jan 2020).

Schmuck, R. 1997. *Practical Action Research for Change*. Arlington Heights: Skylight Training and Publishing.

Schwartz, M. D. and Dekeseredy, W. S. 1997. *Sexual assault on the college campus: The role of male peer support*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Shackford-Bradley, J. 2018. Sex Issues: What can restorative justice offer in this #MeeTooMovement? *The Daily* 13 February 2018 22 June 2019).

Shah, S., King, S. and Stauffer, C. 2018. *Restorative Justice Listening Project*. United States: Zehr Institute. Available: <https://zehr-institute.org/publications/restorative-justice-listening-project/> (Accessed 26 December 2019).

Shai, N. J. and Sikweyiya, Y. 2015. Programmes for change: Addressing sexual and intimate partner violence in South Africa. *South African Crime Quarterly*, 51

Short, R. 2019. *Restorative Practices*. Available: <https://robynshort.com/services/restorative-justice-dispute-resolution-models/> (Accessed 25 December 2019).

Simelane, N. 2001. Sexual Harassment: A case study at University of Natal. Masters, UKZN.

Simon, J. 2019. *Restorative Justice* Available: <https://restorativejustice.org.uk/> (Accessed 24 December 2019).

Singh, S., Mudaly, R. and Singh-Pillay, A. 2015. The what, who and where of female students fear of sexual assault on a South African University Campus. *Agenda*, 29 (3): 97-105.

Skidmore, W.C. and Bell, M.E. 2020. Providing Medical Care to Survivors of Sexual Assault and Harassment in the Military. *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence*: 85-112. Available: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/340227209_Providing_Medical_Care_to_Survivors_of_Sexual_Assault_and_Harassment_in_the_Military (Accessed 18 December 2021).

Skoog, T., Gattario, K. H. and Lunde, C. 2019. Study protocol for PRISE: a longitudinal study of sexual harassment during the transition from childhood to adolescence. *SpringerLink*, 7

(71): 1-31.

Smiley, S. 2017. Melbourne residents calling for Australian Universities to institute a blanket ban on sex between faculty members and students. *ABC Premium News*, 23 November 2017 7 April 2019).

Smit, D. and DuPlessis, V. 2011. Sexual Harassment in the Education Sector. *Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal* 4: 172-217 (Accessed 4 June 2019).

Snyman-Van Deventer, E. and De Bruin, J. 2002. Sexual harassment in South African and American law. *Acta Academia*, 2: 196-221.

Sobuwa, Y. *Why did Khensani Mseko end it all?* (Online). 2018. Available: <https://www.sowetanlive.co.za>. (Accessed 9 April 2019).

South Africa. 1996. *Constitution of Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996*. South Africa: National Legislative Bodies. Available: www.justice.gov.za (Accessed 8 August 2019).

South Africa. 2016. *Community Survey 2016*. South Africa: Statistics South Africa. Available: www.statssa.gov.za (Accessed 20 April 2019).

South Africa, Department of Basic Education. 2019. *Gender-Based Violence in South Africa*. Council on Higher Education. Available: <https://www.che.ac.za> (Accessed 12 December 2019).

South Africa, Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs. *Disaster Management Act 57 of 2002*. Pretoria. Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs. Available: https://www.cogta.gov.za/cgta_2016/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/DISASTER-MANAGEMENT-ACT.pdf (Accessed 20 November 2021).

South Africa, Department of Education. 2010. *Address by KwaZulu-Natal MEC for Education, Senzo Mchunu, during the handover of the torch of peace, Dundee Secondary School*. KwaZulu Natal: Department of Education. Available: <https://www.gov.za/address-kwazulu-natal-mec-educatio> (Accessed 15 November 2021).

South Africa, Department of Government Communication and Information System. 2020. *President Cyril Ramaphosa: Joint sitting of Parliament on gender-based violence*. Pretoria:

The Presidency. Available: <https://www.gov.za/speeches/address-president-cyril-ramaphosa-joint-sitting-parliament-crisis-violence-south-africa> (Accessed 20 January 2021).

South Africa, Department of Government Communication and Information System. 2021. *President Cyril Ramaphosa: Women's Day 2021*. Pretoria: South African Government. Available: <https://www.gov.za/speeches/president-cyril-ramaphosa-> (Accessed 18 December 2021).

South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training. 2019. *Policy Framework to address Gender-Based Violence in the Post-School Education and Training System*. Pretoria: Government Printing Works. Available: www.dhet.gov.za (Accessed 10 December 2019).

South Africa. 2020. Department of Higher Education. *Policy Framework to address Gender-Based Violence in the Post-School Education and Training System*. Pretoria: Department of Higher Education. Available: www.dhet.gov.za (Accessed 25 December 2021).

South Africa, Department of Justice. 2007. *Criminal law (sexual offences and related matters) Amendment Act 32 of 2007*. Pretoria. Department of Justice. Available: <https://www.justice.gov.za/legislation/acts/2007-032.pdf> (Accessed 18 December 2021).

South Africa, Department of Justice. 2003. *Domestic Violence Act 116 of 1998*. Pretoria. Department of Justice. Available: <https://www.justice.gov.za/legislation/acts/1998-116.pdf> (Accessed 20 January 2021).

South Africa, Department of Justice. 2003. *Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000*. Pretoria: Department of Justice. Available: <https://www.gov.za/documents/promotion-equality-and-prevention-unfair-discrimination-act> (Accessed 16 April 2020).

South Africa, Department of Justice and Correctional Services. 2011. *Protection from Harassment Act 17 of 2011*. 558. South Africa: Justice Department. Available: www.justice.gov.za (Accessed 17 April 2019).

South Africa, Department of Labour. 1998. *Employment of Equity Act 55 of 1998*. Pretoria: Department of Labour. Available: <https://www.gov.za/documents/employment-equity-act> (Accessed 19 December 2021).

South Africa, Department of Labour. 1995. *Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995*. Pretoria: Department of Labour. Available: <https://www.gov.za/documents/labour-relations->

https://www.stopvaw.org/quid_pro_quo_sexual_harassment (Accessed 18 May 2020).

Thomas, G. 2017. *How to do your Research Project: A guide for students*. London: Sage. (Accessed 2 June 2020).

Thompson, M. E. and Armato, M. 2012. *Investigating Gender*. Cambridge: Polity Press. (6 April 2021).

Till, F. 1980. *Sexual Harassment: A report on the sexual harassment of students*. Washington D.C.: National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs. Available: <https://files.eric.ed.gov> (Accessed 15 July 2019).

Tilley, A. and Dey, K. 2018. Rape, unresolved-crime stat highlight urgent need to address gender-based violence. *The Daily Maverick*, 10 September 2018 Available: <https://www.dailymaverick.co.za> (Accessed 8 April 2019).

Tinkler, J. E. and Zhao, J. 2019. The Sexual Harassment of Federal Employees: Gender, Leadership status, and Organizational Tolerance for Abuses of Power. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*. (Accessed 15 May 2020).

TRANSCEND Method (online). 2011. New Jersey: Wiley Online Library. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470672532.wbepp280> (Accessed 15 December 2021).

Trottier-Chi, C. 2017. Allegations of sexual violence lead to SSMU VP External David Aird's resignation. *The McGill Tribune*, 8 March 2017 Available: <https://www.mcgilltribune.com> (Accessed 7 April 2019).

UNESCO. 2021. *Fighting Gender-based Violence and Harmful Practices against Women and Girls with Disabilities*. Available: WWW.UNESCO.ORG (Accessed 10 January 2022).

United Nations and World Conference on Women.1995. Beijing Declaration and the Platform for Action. Paper presented at the *Fourth World Conference on Women*. China, 1995.New York: United Nations, Available: <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/declar.htm> (Accessed 15 April 2020).

United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs. 2003. *OCHA Standard Operating Procedures on Sexual Misconduct: Protection from Sexual Exploitation and Abuse and Sexual Harassment*. Available: https://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/OCHA_SoP_Sexual_Misconduct_FINAL.pdf

(Accessed 20 March 2020).

Universities Australia. 2022. *Guidelines for University Responses to Sexual Harassment and Sexual Assault*. Available: <https://www.universitiesaustralia.edu.au/media-item/students-at-the-centre-new-guidelines-for-university-responses-to-sexual-harassment-and-sexual-assault/> (Accessed 18 January 2022).

University of KwaZulu Natal. 2019. *Sexual Harassment Policy*. Available: <https://aessupport.ukzn.ac.za/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/Sexual-harassment-policy.pdf> (Accessed 18 March 2020).

University of Johannesburg. 2021. *Policy on Prevention and Management of student sexual harassment and Rape*. Available: <https://www.uj.ac.za/wp-content/uploads/2021/12/prevention-and-management-of-student-sexual-harassment-and-rape-approved-2018.pdf> (Accessed 18 June 2020)

Valentine-French, S. and Radtke, H. L. 1989. Attributions of responsibility for an incident of sexual harassment in a university setting. *SpringerLink*, 21 (8): 545-555.

Van Deventer, E. and De Bruin, J. 2002. Sexual harassment in South African and American law. *Sabinet*, 2002 (2). (Accessed 16 March 2020).

Van Dalen, J. 2019. WA universities respond to sexual assault and harassment incidents. *Agenda*, 27 (September 2019): 6-7. (Accessed 18 June 2021).

Van Ness, D. 2019. *Restorative Justice*. Available: <http://restorativejustice.org/contact/#sthash.akVyVHKt.dpbs> (Accessed 20 December 2019).

Van Ness, D. W. 2019. *Restorative Justice*. Available: <http://restorativejustice.org/about-us/#sthash.ddBRnGIX.dpbs> (Accessed 24 December 2019).

Vanska, A. E. 2019. Young women's perceptions on safety in public spaces of Mumbai: negotiating patriarchy by transcending victimhood. Lund University. Available: <https://lup.lub.lu.se> (Accessed 5 December 2019).

Vitak, J., Shilton, K. and Ashktorab, Z. 2016. Beyond the Belmont principles: Ethical challenges, practices, and beliefs in the online data research community. In *Proceedings of the 19th ACM Conference on Computer-Supported Cooperative Work & Social Computing*. 941-953 (Accessed 9 December 2021)

- Wafola, J. A., Achoka, J. S. K. and Kassilly, J. N. 2019. Tackling Stigmatization Health Problem in GBV Issues: The Case of Kenyan Universities. *Journal of Science Technology Education and Management*. 17. (Accessed 18 May 2020)
- Walklate, S. 1989. *Victimology: The Victim and the Criminal Justice Process*. Illinois: Unwin Hyman.
- Wanyane, D. M. 2012. Students Perceptions of Sexual Harassment at a Gauteng University Campus. Masters in Social Work, University of Johannesburg. Available: <https://ujcontent.uj.ac.za> (Accessed 15 July 2019).
- Warren, F. 2001. *The Myth of Male Power*. 2 Ed. New York City: Berkley Trade.
- Weller, N. B. 2020. The Tree of Life: A Simple Exercise for Reclaiming Your Identity and Direction in Life through Story. *Story telling* (Blog). Available: athanbweller.com/tree-life-simple-exercise-reclaiming-ide (Accessed 4 February 2021).
- Welsh, S. 2003. Gender and Sexual Harassment. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 25 (1): 169-190.
- Welsh, S., Carr, J., Macquarie, B. and Huntley, A. 2006. "I'm Not Thinking of It as Sexual Harassment": Understanding Harassment across Race and Citizenship. *Gender and Society*, 20 (1): 87-107.
- Wemmers, J. A. 2018. Judging victims: Restorative choices for victims of sexual violence. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 22 (4): 493-508.
- Wemmers, J. A. and Cyr, K. 2004. Victims' Perspectives on Restorative Justice: How Much Involvement Are Victims Looking For? *International Review of Victimology*, 11: 259-274. (Accessed 16 MAY 2021).
- Wemmers, J. A. and Cyr, K. 2016. Gender and Victim expectations regarding their role in the criminal justice system. *Women and Children as Victims and Offenders*: 233-248. (15 June 2021).
- Were, J. 2019. *Sexual Gender-based Violence*. Kenya: Global Giving. Available: <https://www.globalgiving.org/pfil/12479/projdoc> (Accessed 5 December 2019).
- West, C. and Zimmerman, D. H. 1987. Doing Gender. *Journal of Gender and Society*. 1 (2): 125-151.

Western Cape. 2019. *Restorative Justice*. Western Cape: Department of Social Development Available: <https://www.westerncape.gov.za/general-publication/what-restorative-justice> (Accessed 26 December 2019).

Wexler, L. and Robbennolt, J. K. 2019. #MeToo and Restorative Justice. *ABA Journal*: 243-254. Available: https://www.americanbar.org/groups/dispute_resolution/publications/dispute_resolution_magazine/2019/winter-2019-me-too/metoo-and-restorative-justice/ (Accessed 4 February 2022)

Wikipedia. 2019. *Crime in South Africa*. Available: <https://en.m.wikipedia.org> (Accessed 12 May 2020).

Wikipedia. 2019. *Hypersexuality*. Available: <https://en.m.wikipedia.org> (Accessed 15 December 2019).

Wikström, M. C. 2019. Gendered Bodies and Power Dynamics: The Relation between Toxic Masculinity and Sexual Harassment. *Granite Journal*, 3 (2): 28-33.

Wood, B. 2018. Faculty members don't speak to one another and students. *The Salt Lake Tribune*, 29 March 2019 Available: <https://www.sltrib.com> (Accessed 4 April 2019).

Wood, J. T. 2009. *Communication, Gender and culture: Gendered Lives*. 8 ed. United States: Wadsworth.

Wood, L., Hoeter, S., Kammer-Kerwick, M., Parra-Cordona, J. R. and Busch-Armendaeiz, N. 2018. Sexual Harassment at Institutions of Higher Education: Prevalence, Risk and Extent. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*: 1-25.

World Health Organization. 2012. *Understanding and addressing violence against women: Intimate partner violence*. Available: <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/WHO-RHR-12.3> (Accessed 23 February 2022).

World Health Organization. 2019. *RESPECT women: preventing violence against women*. Available: <https://www.who.int> (Accessed 12 May 2020).

Yellapantula, S. 2018. Students at SLS Hyderabad spar over sexual harassment. *Times of India*, 30 October 2018 Available: <https://m.timesofindia.com> (Accessed 7 April 2019).

Young, J. L. 2009. College Sexual Assault Prevention Programs: A literature Review.

Masters, Pacific University. Available: <http://commons.pacif.edu/spp/73> (Accessed 15 December 2019).

Young, J. L. and Hegaty, P. 2019. Reasonable Men. *Feminism and Psychology*: 1-22.

Young, K. M., Minh, T. H., Trang, Q. T., Cheong, Y. F., Bergenfeld, I. and Sales, J. M. 2020. Preventing sexual violence in college men: a randomized-controlled trial of Global Consent. *BMC Public Health*, 20 (1)

Zehr Institute. 2019. *Restorative Justice*. Available: <https://zehr-institute.org/> (Accessed 26 December 2019).

Zehr, H. 2014. *The Little Book of Restorative Justice*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Zevallos, Z. 2020. *Institutional-action-on-sexual-harassment*. TWITTER. Available: <https://othersociologist.com/2020/03/> (Accessed 1 April 2020).

Zulani, X. P., Porter, A. M. and Christians, P. J. 2019. Holistic approaches to ending violence. *Mail&Guardian*, 1 November 2019. Available: <https://mg.co.za/article/2019-11-01-00-holistic-approaches-to-ending-violence/> (Accessed 19 December 2021).

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LETTER OF INFORMATION



Title of the Research Study: Addressing sexual harassment among students at a Durban University

Principal Investigator/s/researcher: Sahara Jagath: BPAED; BED; HONOURS (HMS)

Co-Investigator/s/supervisor/s: Dr. Vijay Hamlall (PhD)

Brief Introduction and Purpose of the Study:

Good day. I hope that you are as well as can be during this most difficult of times.

My name is Sahara Jagath and I am a Master's Degree candidate at the Durban University of Technology's International Centre of Nonviolence (ICON). I am currently undertaking a research study titled Addressing sexual harassment among students at a Durban University.

The study seeks to explore students understanding, perceptions and experience of sexual harassment. The objectives of this study would be to assess the nature, extent and causes of sexual harassment at a Durban University. Participatory action research will be used to plan and implement a programme aimed at creating a safe positive working environment. The short-term outcomes of the programme will be evaluated.

Invitation to the potential participant: I would like to invite you to participate in the research, as a research participant.

What is Research?

Research is a careful consideration of a particular concern or problem using scientific methods. Research begins by asking the right questions and choosing an appropriate method to investigate the problem. After collecting answers to particular questions, the findings will be analysed to draw reasonable conclusions and make recommendations. This study will act on the conclusions and recommendations through an action intervention programme.

Please note that your participation in this study is voluntary and that you reserve the right to decline or withdraw from being part of the research process. Even though the interview will be

recorded, please note that all information shared will be treated with the anonymity it deserves. You may ask as many questions as you wish, to ensure clarity and understanding. You may discuss the study with your family and friends and are not obligated to commit at this stage. A copy of this letter of information will be given to you.

Outline of the Procedures:

If you decide to partake in the study, you will be asked to engage in the following activities:

One face to face semi-structured interview will be conducted with you. The interview will take approximately 50 minutes. The interview will take the form of two sections. The first section will serve to provide biographical information about you. The second section will provide insights into the ethos, climate and policies regarding sexual harassment and how these impacted on student behaviour. The interview will explore your first-hand experiences and insights about the nature and possible causes of sexual harassment at the university. To overcome bias, tape-recordings and transcribed verbatim interviews from tapes will take place.

Standard operating procedures for the prevention of Covid-19 in institutions will be followed. The interviews will be conducted in an isolated room that will be sanitized before we enter. All the participants will complete a questionnaire indicating if they are displaying any of the COVID 19 symptoms. The temperature of each participant will be taken and recorded. If a participant is displaying any of the symptoms of the Corona virus and/or if they have a high temperature, then the interview with that particular participant will not take place. All participants will be required to use a mask at all times during the interview. Social distancing of 2 meters will be observed during the interviews.

There will be three gendered focus groups. One focus group will consist of males only, the second will consist of females only and third will be a mixed gender focus group. Each focus group discussion will be of one-hour duration. The focus group discussions will take place virtually using Microsoft Teams. You may be asked to voluntarily form part of a group to help in developing and implementing a sexual harassment prevention programme.

Risks or Discomforts to the Participant:

Although this study in no way intends to harm the participants, the focus on sexual harassment is a sensitive topic and may, as a result at times, cause discomfort. Should you wish to discontinue with the interview, you reserve the right to inform the researcher of your change of mind without stating any reasons.

Explain to the participant the reasons he/she may be withdraw from the Study:

Your participation is completely voluntary, and you reserve the right to decline or withdraw from the study irrespective of reason, with no adverse consequences whatsoever. Should you wish to discontinue with the interview, you reserve the right to inform the researcher of your change of mind without stating any reasons. Also, in light of the pandemic and protocols the research may be postponed and or terminated in line with disaster management protocols. You will be notified and updated accordingly.

Benefits:

Your involvement is purely for academic purpose and there is no financial benefit involved. The findings of the study will be published locally and internationally.

Remuneration: No remuneration will be received by you for participation in this study.

Costs of the Study:

You are not allowed to cover any costs of the study. The researcher will travel to meet you at the agreed comfortable venue.

Confidentiality:

Nothing that you say will be traced back to you. All the information collected will be locked in a safe place and destroyed after five years as per IREC's data storage guidelines.

Results:

The results of the study will form part of the master's thesis. This will also be published online as per the University regulations. All personal information will remain confidential and treated with utmost secrecy. If any significant event and /or result occurs, you will be notified accordingly.

Research-related Injury:

Since the research will be conducted using interviews that will be audio recorded, no research-related injury is envisaged.

Storage of all electronic and hard copies including tape recordings:

All the information collected will be locked in a safe place and destroyed after five years as per IREC's data storage guidelines.

Persons to contact in the Event of Any Problems or Queries:

Please contact the researcher, Sahara Jagath, on cell-number 0763067756, or my supervisor, Dr. V. Hamlall, cell-number 0834190441 or the Institutional Research Ethics Administrator on 031 373 2375. Complaints can be reported to the Director: Research and Postgraduate Support Dr L Linganis on 031 373 2577 or researchdirector@dut.ac.za.

Yours in Education

Mrs. Sahara Jagath (Researcher)

Cell: 0763067756

email-address: saharajagath@gmail.com

Supervisor: Dr. Vijay Hamlall

Cell: 083 419 0441 email-address: vijayham1@gmail.c

APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT CONSENT



Statement of Agreement for your participation in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, Sahara Jagath about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: _____.
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerised system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent of participation in the study.
- I have had enough opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to take part in the study.

I understand that significant new findings developed during this research which may relate to participation will be made available to me.

_____	_____	_____	_____
Full Name of Participant	Date	Time	Signature / Right Thumbprint

I, Sahara Jagath, herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Sahara Jagath

Full Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

Full Name of Witness (If applicable)

Date _____

Signature

Full Name of Legal Guardian (If applicable)

Date _____

Signature

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – FOR PARTICIPANTS



Topic: Addressing sexual harassment among students at a Durban university

Respondent No_____

INTRODUCTION:

My name is Sahara Jagath. I am a master's student from Durban University of Technology (DUT) in Durban. As part of my studies, I have to undertake a research project on sexual harassment. My topic is "addressing sexual harassment among students at a Durban University'. The objectives of the study are to explore students understanding and perceptions of sexual harassment at the University and to assess the nature, causes and consequences of sexual harassment at the university. An attempt will be made to investigate students' experiences of sexual harassment at the university. The focus of the study will be to explore ways to reduce sexual harassment on the campus by using restorative justice and action research to plan, implement a programme aimed at creating a safe positive environment

In order to capture our discussions accurately, I would like to make use of a Dictaphone as a back-up to ensure that your views are correctly interpreted during transcription of data. Do you have a problem with the use of the Dictaphone? You have a right to ask for a transcription to review it before any use is made of it or to totally cancel it. Please be assured that whatever you say or do, or show will be treated with complete confidentiality. Do you understand the Research question? Do you have any concerns that you want to raise about the purpose and use of the interview, confidentiality and anonymity or any other concern?

SECTION A: Biographical characteristics of Respondent

1. GENDER:

MALE	
FEMALE	
LGBTQI	

2. WHICH AGE GROUP DO YOU FALL UNDER?

18-20	
21-24	

3. ETHNICITY?

BLACK	
WHITE	
COLOURED	
INDIAN/ASIAN	
I CHOOSE NOT TO ANSWER	
OTHER; PLEASE SPECIFY	

4. KINDLY INDICATE YOUR YEAR OF STUDY?

UNDERGRADUATE	
---------------	--

SECTION B: Perceptions and experiences of Sexual Harassment

1. Which of the following behaviour/s would you regard as sexual harassment?

Kindly indicate your answer using the 5-point scale below where:

1 =strongly disagree

2 =Disagree

3 = Neutral

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
--	----------------------	----------	---------	-------	-------------------

Being rated based on your appearance	1	2	3	4	5
Repeated or unwelcome requests for dates	1	2	3	4	5
Sexist remarks or jokes	1	2	3	4	5
Wolf whistling	1	2	3	4	5
Revealing of private body parts	1	2	3	4	5
Unwanted touching/fondling	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Rape</u>	1	2	3	4	5
Stalking	1	2	3	4	5
Leering (looking slyly)	1	2	3	4	5
Electronic harassment (pornography, emails, social media)	1	2	3	4	5

2. Please elaborate further on your perceptions of sexual harassment.

3. To what extent is sexual harassment taking place on campus? Elaborate

4. Who do you think are the main victims of sexual harassment on campus?

5. Who do think are the main offenders of sexual harassment on campus?

6. Have you experienced/witnessed or heard about any incidence of sexual harassment on campus? Please can you elaborate further?

7. Are you aware of options/avenues available to victims/witnesses of sexual harassment?

8. In your opinion do victims of sexual harassment usually report the abuse?

9. Do you know of the process that happens when sexual harassment is reported?

Probe: What happens to the perpetrator? What happens to the victims? How does the community of university students respond/react? Is this response different in terms of males/females?

10. What do you think are the causes of sexual harassment?

11. What do you think can be done to prevent sexual harassment on campus?

12. What do you think can be done to protect students from sexual harassment?

13. How can services/structures to assist sexually harassed students be improved?

14. What role do you think students should play in preventing sexual harassment on campus?

15. Have you personally had any experiences of sexual harassment on campus?

Probe: Can you explain what happened?

Thank you very much for your time.

APPENDIX D FOCUS GROUP SCHEDULE – FOR PARTICIPANTS

ADDRESSING SEXUAL HARASSMENT AMONG STUDENTS AT A DURBAN UNIVERSITY

INTRODUCTION AND ICE-BREAKING

Thank participants for attending

1. Personal introduction and personalia.
2. Explain the purpose of the research which is to address sexual harassment on campus and suggest ways to reduce sexual harassment.
3. Stress CONFIDENTIALITY and ANONYMITY of the participant and seek consent to RECORD the interview.

STIMULUS: SCENARIO

Kathy and Bob are colleagues at university doing the same course. They were acquainted with each other, sometimes having lunch together on campus. When speaking to Kathy, Bob would often touch her shoulder.

One morning Bob asked Kathy if she would talk to him in private in the conference room, and she consented as he had something important to tell her. When they got there, Bob closed the door and kissed Kathy on the mouth. Kathy drew back and said, "Please don't do that. I'm sorry, but I'm not interested." Bob responded by kissing her again.

1. What do you think is happening in the SCENE?
2. Can such behaviour be construed as sexual harassment?
3. What behaviour can be perceived as being sexual harassment?
4. Is such behaviour taking place at campus?
5. Have you witnessed or experienced sexual harassment? Has a fellow student shared /confided in you, on their exposure to sexual harassment?
6. Who may be victims of such behaviour?
7. What avenues are available for victims of such behaviour?
8. Who may be possible perpetrators of such behaviour?
9. What are some of the effects of sexual harassment, abuse and rape on victims and students?
10. What are the causes or reasons for the perpetration of sexual harassment, rape and abuse?

11. Are you aware of support structures that exist for students dealing with sexual harassment? How effective are such structures?
12. As students, what can be done to assist students facing such sexual harassment and abuse?
13. How can we reduce incidents of sexual harassment on campus? What can be done to make victims feel safer?
14. How can we make perpetrators realise the effects of their behaviour? What positive structures are available to channel negative behaviour traits?

POST DISCUSSION:

1. Do you have a greater awareness of behaviour that is perceived as sexual harassment?
2. How has your understanding of the effects of sexual harassment increased?
3. What changes and structures can we introduce to assist victims and perpetrators?
4. Will you participate in an intervention to provide a support structure for victim and perpetrator? Are you able to create support structures for victims of sexual harassment?
5. Are you aware of campus structures to assist with sexual harassment? How can these structures be strengthened? How effective are these structures at present?
6. What can be done to make the campus safer? What are some of the programmes/activities that may be introduced to make campus safer?
7. Will you participate in a peace club to bring meaningful change on campus?
8. What changes can such programmes (answer to 5 and 6) have on the greater South African society?

Thank you very much for your valuable time and input.

APPENDIX E: GATEKEEPER'S PERMISSION



*Directorate for Research and Postgraduate Support
Durban University of Technology
Tromso Annexe, Steve Biko Campus
P.O. Box 1334, Durban 4000
Tel.: 031-3732576/7
Fax: 031-3732948*

11th August 2021
Mrs Sahara Jagath
Department of Public Management and Economics
Faculty of Management Sciences
Durban University of Technology

Dear Mrs Jagath

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE DUT

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers. I am pleased to inform you that the Institutional Research and Innovation Committee (IRIC) has granted **Gatekeeper Permission** for you to conduct your research "Addressing sexual harassment among students at a Durban University" at the Durban University of Technology. **Kindly note that this letter must be issued to the IREC for approval before you commence data collection.**

The DUT may impose any other condition it deems appropriate in the circumstances having regard to nature and extent of access to and use of information requested.

We would be grateful if a summary of your key research findings would be submitted to the IRIC on completion of your studies.

Kindest regards.
Yours sincerely

DR LINDA ZIKHONA LINGANISO
DIRECTOR: RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE SUPPORT DIRECTORATE

APPENDIX F: IREC APPROVAL



18 August 2021

Mrs S Jagath
2 Hampton Court
2 Jesslyn Avenue
Malvern
4093

Dear Mrs Jagath

Addressing sexual harassment among students at a Durban University
Ethics Clearance Number: IREC 097/21

The Institutional Research Ethics Committee acknowledges receipt of your gatekeeper permission letter.

Please note that FULL APPROVAL is granted to your research proposal. You may proceed with data collection.

Any adverse events [serious or minor] which occur in connection with this study and/or which may alter its ethical consideration must be reported to the IREC according to the IREC Standard Operating Procedures (SOP's).

Please note that any deviations from the approved proposal require the approval of the IREC as outlined in the IREC SOP's.

Yours Sincerely

Prof J K Adam
Chairperson: IREC

APPENDIX G: TURNITIN REPORT

Turnitin Originality Report

turnitin

Thesis version 2 by Sahara Jagath

From PhD and master's chapters (PhD and master's 2021-

Processed on 29-Mar-2022 09:32 SAST

ID: 1795867849

Word Count: 48875

Similarity Index

19%

Similarity by Source

Internet Sources:

16%

Publications:

3%

Student Papers: _____

7%**sources:**

1 1% match (Internet from 12-Feb-2021)

<http://docplayer.net/31162482-April-gender-based-violence-gbv-in-south-africa-a-brief-review.html>

2 1% match (student papers from 13-Jan-2016)

Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal on 2016-01-13

3 1% match (Internet from 31-May-2019)

https://www.mysheleeds.com/uoloads/1/2/1/4/121403943/2018_nasem_sxhrs_report.pdf

4 1% match (Internet from 19-Jul-2020)

https://www.utas.edu.au/data/assets/pdf_file/0009/1115982/SASH-Review-Report-Final-23-April-2018-002.pdf

1 5 1 < 1% match (Internet from 01-Dec-2020)

<http://docplayer.net/33543235-Beyond-patriarchy-essays-by-men-on-pleasure-power-and-change.html>

< 1% match (Internet from 21-Mar-2022)

<http://docplayer.net/35719690-Service-quality-and-customer-satisfaction-among-bank-clients-inmrwanda.html>

< 1% match (student papers from 03-May-2017)

submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal on 2017-05-03

8 < 1% match (student papers from 09-Dec-2020)

Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal on 2020-12-09

9 < 1% match (student papers from 28-Oct-2018)

Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal on 2018-10-28

10 < 1% match (Internet from 16-Oct-2008)

<http://www.goneboarding.co.uk/Forum/Show>

11 < 1% match (Internet from 29-Sep-2021)

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/339975323_Gender-based_violence_in_South_African_universities_an_institutional_challenge

12 < 1% match (student papers from 13-Sep-2010)

Submitted to University of Hull on 2010-09-1

13 < 1% match (student papers from 14-May-2017)

Submitted to University of Hull on 2017-05-14

14 < 1% match (Internet from 21-Feb-2022)

<https://ujcontent.uj.ac.za/%20vital/access/services/Download/qj-42932/SOURCE1>

15 < 1% match (Internet from 20-Nov-2021)

<https://ujcontent.uj.ac.za/vital/access/services/Download/ur-28436/SOURCE1>

APPENDIX H: EDITOR'S REPORT

Sury Bisetty Academic Editing Services –

CIPC No. 2021/360666/07



The pen is mightier than the sword

To whom it may concern,

I have edited the thesis entitled: Addressing sexual harassment among students at a Durban University, by S. Jagath, Student number: 21959528, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree, Master of Management Science: Public Management (Peace Building) in the Faculty of Management Sciences at the Durban University of Technology.

Sury Bisetty Professional Language and Technical Editor

05 April 2022

CONTACT DETAILS

Email: surybisetty11@gmail.com

Cell no: 0844932878

Tel.: 031 7622 766

MEMBER OF:

Professional Editor's Guild (BIS002)

South African Council of Educators (222277)

SAMEA (761237008553)

CERTIFICATION:

PEGSA: Critical Reading

Editing Mastery: How to Edit to Perfection

Complete writing, editing master class.

ELSEVIER – Editor's guide to reviewing articles

Disclaimer: Please note, I provided language and technical editing as per discussion with the client. The content and structure of the dissertation were not amended in any way. The edited work described here may not be identical to that submitted. The author, at his/her sole discretion, has the prerogative to accept, delete, or change amendments/suggestions made by the editor before submission.

NB – in keeping with POPIA regulations all work related to this report will be deleted 3 months after completion.
