

DURBAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

**REDUCING GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AT THE GREAT
ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY**

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NOVEMBER 2024



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ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY**

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in the Faculty of Management Sciences at the Durban University of Technology**

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ABSTRACT

Globally, institutions of higher learning are exposed to gender-based violence (GBV) and are feeling the impacts of its consequences, even though they are less willing to acknowledge its existence. Gender forms a fundamental component of both personal and collective distinctiveness, and disturbingly, GBV maintains a relentless presence in education. GBV is a global scourge, more specifically for educational institutions, habitually assumed to be peaceful ‘ivory towers’ and invulnerable to actions of violence. Across the globe, GBV cases continue to turn up at startling rates, and Zimbabwe is not exempted. The study sought to examine the nature, causes, extent and effects of GBV and devise, and implement an intervention plan (an action research component) at an institution of higher learning. This was achieved through focus group discussions with 10 male and 10 female undergraduate students and interviews with 5 male and 5 female undergraduate students. GBV was found to be prevalent and mainly existing as sexual harassment (transactional relationship between lecturers and female students, student to student intimate partner violence), cases of physical, emotional and spiritual abuse were also indicated to exist at the institution.

Though GBV is prevalent, few cases are reported, which may be the reason for failure by authorities to acknowledge its existence. The study adopted the Participatory Action research method in trying to reduce GBV. After exploring and expounding the GBV phenomenon, an action team with five male students was formed to answer the second part of the study. The team agreed it was best to conduct an educational training workshop with first year male students to impart positive attitudes and constructive masculinities that encourage gender equality and discourage violence perpetration. A one-day gender transformative workshop was, therefore, conducted with 15 first year male students. This helped them unlearn toxic attitudes and some myths associated with GBV. There is need for HTEIs to put in place efficient, accessible and trusted 24 hr crisis response system to encourage reporting of cases and prompt case solving. Universities should also develop GBV sensitive budgeting and advisory boards with the aid of government to secure sufficient and adequate information and funding for preventative programmes

DECLARATION

I Francisca Rumutsa hereby declare this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted to any other university for any other degree. All other sources used are cited and the complete references provided in the reference list.

Francisca Rumutsa

DEDICATION

I dedicate this to my late mom, Jemina Nechikumura Rumutsa. To my father, who recently graduated to heaven; you were there for part of the journey, (father of graduates) as you liked to call yourself - this is for you, boast in heaven.

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Thank you Lord God Almighty for being my ever-present help in time of need and for that gentle whisper that said *you can do it*, when I was at the verge of giving up.

To my supervisor, I cannot thank you enough Dr S. B. Kaye for your guidance, dedication and patience.

Handina Sigauke, Marian Shamairai, I appreciate you for being with me through it all.

My brothers, sisters, and sisters in love (Deputy Parents), for your financial and emotional support, love and encouragement, I appreciate and love you.

Maxwell Rumutsa Rumutsa, for being a pace setter and challenging me to study more, thank you.

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To everyone who ever said “hang on don’t give up” thank you, again, I say thank you.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AR	Action Research
CTT	Conflict Transformation Theory
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
ETV	Ecological Theory of Violence
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FSN	Female Students Network
FSNT	Female Students Network Trust
GB	Gender-based Violence
GZU	Great Zimbabwe University
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HIV	Human Immune Virus
HTEI	Higher and Tertiary Education Institutions
ICODZIM	Institute for Community Development in Zimbabwe
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
MHTEISTD	Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation and, Science, Technology and Development
PAR	Participatory Action Research
PTSD	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
RMA	Rape Myth Acceptance
SA	South Africa
SLT	Social Learning Theory
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
SRC	Student Representative Council
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USAID	United States of America Aid

VAW Violence Against Women
WHO World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

“All students have the right to live and study in an environment of dignity and respect, free from the fear of harassment or violence.”

*Olivia Bailey, National women’s officer: Hidden Marks,
National Union of Students (NUS) (2011)*

1.1 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

Gender-based violence (GBV) is a global predicament and a serious abuse of human rights. GBV presents itself in conflict and post conflict zones and adversely affects a broad array of developmental matters, as it restricts participation by victims. Males and females can be victims or perpetrators of GBV based on reports by the World Health Organisation (WHO) (2019). However, the WHO has stated women and girls are more probable victims of violence internationally, with one in every three women having suffered several forms of violence from their intimate partners, while 41 percent of men admitted to committing intimate partner violence (IPV) in their lifetime. Globally at least 35 in every 100 women are murdered by their intimate partners (WHO 2019).

GBV is a very troubling experience with negative costs for both males and females alike, engrained in gender inequality and power discrepancies between men and women, and exists across cultures, religions, races, and countries; it knows no boundaries and institutions of higher learning are not an exception (Cranney 2016; Mukamana, Machakanja, and Adjei 2020; Mutinta 2022: 4). Many measures have been taken by governments and international bodies to eradicate GBV and achieve gender equality in all spheres, in many instances through techniques to empower women. However, a smaller representation of women in the innovation and broader technological sector remains, with only 20 percent women in science, engineering, IT jobs and even science and technology positions in academia (Zacharia *et al.* 2020). The internet has exposed women and girls to online abuse with 38 percent women having experienced this type of abuse globally. Only a quarter reported this to authorities, while 90 percent decided to limit internet activities, thereby widening the digital gender gap.

GBV is entrenched in attitudes and discrimination that have produced gendered disparities in education around the world (Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020). Gendered violence is an immense human rights infringement, with immeasurable adverse effects on individual health and societal welfare at large, as well as economical costs. It also has negative effects on educational achievement (Fergus & Van 't Rood 2013). As a result, GBV is regarded as a pandemic, evidenced by research findings that reveal it affects up to one-third of women globally over the course of their lives (World Bank 2019). While GBV is not only a girls and women issue, evidence of disproportionate victimisation of women tends to create the impression that GBV only concerns women.

According to the WHO (2013), 35 percent of women worldwide are victims of non-partner sexual violence or physical and/or sexual IPV. Notably, the United Nations (UN) defines GBV as physical, sexual, or psychological injury or suffering inflicted on females, comprising intimidations of such acts, oppression, or subjective denial of liberty, occurring in both public and private life (WHO 2021). According to Sabria and Granger (2018), GBV occurs because of unequal power relations and normative values. GBV includes a wide variety of acts: physical or psychological violence, including IPV; harassment; stalking; and trafficking; as well as forced marriages; and female genital mutilation (Fergus & Van 't Rood 2013). Emanating from reinforced unequal gender power, utilising socially conceived distinctions amongst men and women, GBV is an act of violence intended for people and groups based on their gender or societally gendered roles. GBV encompasses detrimental actions reinforced by opinions regarding sexuality and gender roles.

Women play a vital role in society and sustainable development, yet GBV deprives them of opportunities and denies them the ability to operate to their maximum potential of their basic human rights (UN Women 2019). GBV includes but is not limited to physical, psychological, economic, and political, as well as emotional harm, which can be experienced in private and public life and perpetrated by intimate partners, relatives, family members, and colleagues, along with politicians, and those in positions of power. Some African countries record the highest cases of GBV in the world, ranging from 24 to 79 percent (Kimuna, Tenkorang, & Djamba 2018).

GBV is an extensive problem in Zimbabwe experienced for many generations. According to the ZIMSTAT (2019) quarterly digest, there was a tremendous increase in rape cases, IPV and

domestic violence, with at least one woman raped every hour. Zimbabwean culture is engrained with a rape culture and traditions that undermine women. Through *kuzvarira* (child pledging), which resulted in child marriages; *kuripa ngozi* (appeasing the spirits when you kill someone); *kugara nhaka* (wife inheritance), male child preference, and *lobola* (bride price/dowry) (Nhapi and Mathende, 2017; Mhaka, 2020). *Lobola* undermines women as they are considered commodities (Sithole and Dziva 2019), which legitimises male use of violence resulting in IPV.

The patriarchal nature of society and the socio-economic setting, as well as cultural values, among other factors, contribute to GBV. Mudekunya (2018) posits low-income status makes women more vulnerable to IPV, as they will be more dependent on their male partners; men will take advantage and treat women any way they want, knowing the women are unlikely to do anything due to their dependence. Patriarchy legitimises violence against women and deep-rooted social standards do not agree a husband can rape his wife (Waterman et al 2020).

The Zimbabwe Government, to align with conditions of regional and international bodies it is part of, has made efforts to eliminate GBV. This was done through enacting laws and policies such as the Criminal Law Act, 2006; Domestic Violence Act of 2007 (Zimbabwe 2006) reviewing the National Gender Policy 2013-2017, as well as setting up the Anti-Domestic Violence Council and amending the Constitution. The Constitution now has stipulations that forbid marital rape. Section 78 deals with obliteration of child marriages and Section 51 to 54(I) are concerned with elimination of all forms of violence in public and private spheres. Nonetheless, policies regarding GBV in institutions of learning remain lacking (Dhlomo *et al.* 2012: 272).

GBV as a universal plague continues to be tenacious in institutes of education from primary through to tertiary level (Beyene *et al.* 2019), becoming increasingly common on college campuses around the world. In the USA, GBV awareness was pivoted by some high-profile cases of sexual abuse and harassment, comprising legal action linking prestigious universities, where victims spoke out against the harm done to them, as well as their subsequent difficult journeys within the university and law enforcement agencies (Bagley, Natarajan, Vayzman 2012; Finchilescu and Dugard 2018; Orfan et al, 2022). GBV at institutions of higher learning remains a major concern in developing countries such as Ethiopia (Mamaru *et al.* 2015),

Zambia (Menon 2015), and Nigeria (Agbaje *et al.* 2021). Zimbabwe is also susceptible to the scourge.

GBV is epidemic in tertiary learning institutions and affects people, groups, and entire institutions in extreme ways (Kebirungi 2021). Perilous working environments, normalisation of GBV, poisonous university masculinities, silence cultures and absence of dynamic management are all key elements facilitating GBV. Although, it is often believed level of education is negatively associated with perpetration and experience of GBV. That is, the more the person is educated, the less he or she is likely to perpetrate and experience violence (Treffry-Goatley *et al.* 2018). However, what is happening in schools and campuses is contrary to this belief, as violence is being perpetrated by educated lecturers and professors on educated graduate students and undergraduates alike. Violence poses serious threats to education access and attainment, with attendance, performance, learning experience, and achievements all hindered by school/campus-based violence (Wang 2019). Women's future expectations, rights, emotional and physical well-being are impacted by violence that happens in and around school/campuses. Destructive norms of machismo and feminineness fuels GBV by tolerating violence and victim blaming (USAID 2015: 35). Fancy and Frazer (2014), documented that in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), GBV by teachers was generally aggravated by social traditions of placing blame on girls for 'tempting' teachers. In Zimbabwe it was documented that half of girls had experienced unwelcome sexual contact in their trips to and from school (Leach, Machakanja and Mandonga 2000).

Educational institutes are vital organs for gender socialisation, which help in shaping gendered identities and behaviours, in addition to students' understanding of feelings regarding manliness, feminineness, sexuality, and violence, along with gender impartiality (UNESCO, 2021). The current project was conceived based on this idea. Recently, GBV campaigns have gained much attention on campuses around the globe. However, while campus GBV has gained much recognition, tertiary institutions still struggle to develop interventions equitable for the entire campus population. Student activism remains the most adopted intervention to combat the epidemic, as institutional authorities are pushed to do something regarding GBV (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018).

Standard interventions are also familiar in the university setting, with Coker *et al.* (2015: 1505) asserting the strategies are effective in reducing violence acceptance, and experiences or cases

of violence. However, these have their setbacks, as the institutions are usually uninvolved in most of the campaigns and may even ignore these campaigns. This is true for Zimbabwean institutions, since student protests and campaigns are not popular and not encouraged (Veritas 2019). There is, nevertheless, a need for the federal government to be involved in the fight against campus GBV, through establishing national guidelines mandating tertiary institutions to respond and deal with campus GBV (O'Callaghan *et al.* 2021).

The Great Zimbabwe University (GZU) is one of the state-owned universities that has aligned its enrolment policy with government efforts to increase female student enrolment. It had achieved almost 50 percent female students in 2014 (Mureva 2014). This increase in enrolment has, however, not been coupled with changes to structures, environment and norms that challenge male dominance (Kanyemba and Naidu 2019). Some cultural norms exist where girls are viewed as only suitable to be stay-at-home spouses and caregivers, while another aspect includes name-calling of students who participate in sports (Mudekunye 2018).

There is, furthermore, less representation of female students in decision-making bodies such as the Student Representative Council (SRC). This also reflects what is happening at the national level, as there are less females in top managerial and political positions. Mounting knowledge exists, though reluctant, that universities, as microcosms of society, mirror broader societal experiences of GBV (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018). University campuses are not immune to GBV and the national statistics on GBV may be inclusive of GBV cases that happen on campuses. Reducing GBV and student perceptions of GBV is vital, because they represent society's beliefs and will influence policies and values in the future (Pugh and Becker 2018). Reducing GBV and a change in student perceptions and attitudes concerning issues around gender are critical to ensure the nation will have a healthy and skilled human capital. Students will model what they learn and influence policy making to be gender equitable as they comprise future policymakers, law enforcers, therapists, and health service providers, to mention a few (Wang 2018; Pugh and Becker 2018).

A baseline report by Murai (2015) proved nearly eight in every 10 female students have experienced some form of sexual harassment from academic and non-academic staff, as well as their male student counterparts. Studies conducted on sexual harassment in Zimbabwean tertiary institutions revealed the problem is highly prevalent but with minimal reporting for fear of stigmatisation, facing more severe consequences, no action from administration and support

of perpetrators by institutional authorities and management (Dlomo *et al.* 2012; Shumba & Matina 2002; Zindi 1994).

1.2 RESEARCH CONTEXT

Great Zimbabwe University (GZU) derives its name from the Great Zimbabwe monuments in the city of Masvingo. Currently, the university's main campus is in Rujeko, 7km east of Masvingo central business district (CBD) and shares infrastructure with Masvingo Teachers College, while it awaits construction of its own campus near the Great Zimbabwe ruins. Launched in 1999 as a Masvingo degree programme for the University of Zimbabwe (UZ) and upgraded in 2000 to UZ's Masvingo University College, it became Masvingo State University two years later (2002) and was renamed to GZU in July 2007, based on the recommendations of the then Chancellor of Universities and president of the Republic of Zimbabwe, R. G. Mugabe. It is a multi-campus institution with campuses in Mucheke Industrial site, Masvingo CBD and Mashava (GZU, n.d.). The university is closely linked to Masvingo Teachers College and Masvingo Polytechnic College, as they are geographically close to each other, and the university utilised the buildings of both colleges.

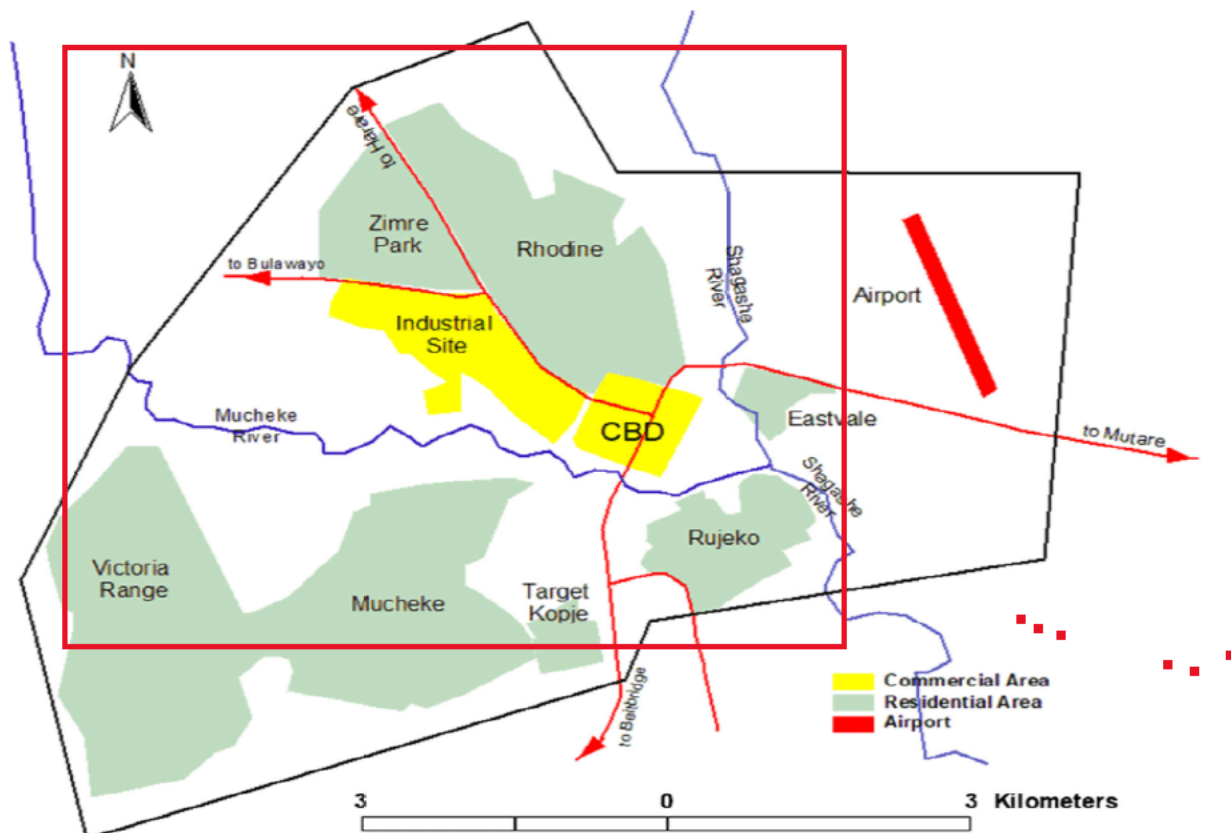


FIGURE 1.1: MAP OF MASVINGO TOWN

Source: Adapted from Chingwenya (2020: 1280)

The university has 14 342 enrolled students, as provided by the registrar's office. UNESCO (2021: 25) gives a break-down of male and female students at GZU, with female students making up almost 62 percent (8 885) and 5 457 male students. The university is not exempt from the scourge of GBV, with sexual harassment usually an unreported and unpunished problem. A notable case that made it to the courts and press, is that of a lecturer and student suing and countersuing each other on sex for marks allegations and defamation of character (Mtembo 2020: 10). On the one hand, the university's VC, Registrar and Dean of students at one point acknowledged the existence of GBV, with the VC saying he will not forgive a lecturer who asks students out and or abuses them. On the other hand, the dean pointed politicians out as perpetrators of violence during SRC campaigns and elections, where some are beaten for losing the elections and females are sexually harassed for financial reasons due to the bad economic conditions. The registrar accepted that reports on sexual assaults had little or no evidence, citing students "do not open up" (Moyo 2021: 9).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

GBV on university campuses has become rampant and mostly manifests as sexual harassment, among other forms (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018; Wood *et al.* 2018). A high level of the occurrence of GBV incidences persists, as does the high level of under-reporting GBV cases. Denial and ignorance concerning the existence of GBV on campuses also continues, as some are unaware certain actions and words constitute violence (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018). GBV has severe adverse consequences, for example, missed classes, poor academic performance, emotional trauma, unwanted pregnancies, depression and resorting to drug abuse (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018; Grinner *et al.* 2017; Wood *et al.* 2018). Hence, there is a need to understand GBV on campus and devise and implement measures for its reduction. The baseline report by the FSNT reported more than 74 percent students across the country have faced violence on campus from lecturers, non-academic staff and mainly from male students (Murai 2015).

The university's registrar pointed out that students are physically and sexually harassed by politicians during and after SRC campaigns and elections, on the one hand, reported cases are

not supported with evidence and “opening up” by students. A student, on the other hand, raised issues of mistrust in authorities and fear of re-victimisation from those they report to and the unavailability of a clear policy on GBV (Moyo 2021: 9). Females continue to be victims of GBV, while male students continue to be perpetrators, even after the implementation of a new sexual harassment policy at the University. GBV continues to manifest, even with the presence of the Female Students Network (FSN) and *Mugota/ Ixhiba*, a male group where they discuss GBV issues on campus. Another example is where female students are subjected to physical and sexual violence and forced to perform wifely duties by boyfriends/male students when they cohabit. The Institute for Community Development in Zimbabwe (ICODZIM) states the reason for such cohabitation is frequently linked to economic hardships (ICODZIM 2019).

Studies conducted by Dube, Ncube and Mlotshwa (2021); Gukurume (2011); Mukwidigwi (2018) in HTEIs on GBV in Zimbabwe have mainly focused on exploring the nature, causes and effects of GBV. No action-oriented research of this nature had been undertaken to address GBV on campus. This study was designed to promote the reduction and prevention of GBV, focusing on socialising first year students with positive masculinities that discourage GBV perpetration. Working with male students in the action component was essential, as men are traditionally perceived as perpetrators of violence, growing up with attitudes and philosophies that underpin GBV.

1.4 USING ONLY MALE STUDENTS IN THE STUDY’S INTERVENTION COMPONENT

For the exploration phase of the study, data were collected from both male and female students to obtain the views of both genders, with only male students included in the action component of the research to deal with toxic masculinities that encourage violence perpetration. The initial data collection stage proved male students held toxic masculinities’ views, making it vital to target them for the intervention programme.

Developing an educational engagement strategy with men is important, because it assists in their reflection of gender socialisation and promotes impartial, nonviolent gender relationships. Many of these behaviours are rooted in expected practices or entitlements that flow from hegemonic ideals of men who are strong, tough, in control over women and their bodies, as well as heterosexual and sexually dominant. The idea of hegemonic masculinity was described

by Connell (2013). It is being used extensively and helps to define those notions regarding expressions of masculinity connected to male supremacy and male violence on women and girls, with reference to male behaviours linked to IPV and non-partner rape. This tradition contributes to the perpetuation of patriarchy. Most behaviours originate from anticipated practices or prerogatives that emanate from hegemonic concepts of men who are strong, tough, in charge of women and women's bodies, heterosexual, and sexually dominant. Male gender identities and ways are constructs, and, as a result, can be altered.

The notion of hegemonic masculinity has been valuable in working with men on ending GBV. This is because the theory highlights positive masculinities that aim for more impartial, courteous, and harmonious gender relationships. The concept of positive masculinities contributes significantly for men to consider their socialisation, control, freedoms, and the expense to themselves as well as to women in adapting to harmful masculinities. Additionally, it makes it viable to stimulate positive masculinities, which entail more impartial, peaceable relationships between men and women.

One of the peacebuilding initiatives recommended by USAID entails education-based approaches. Where students' knowledge on toxic attitudes that encourage violence are narrowly focused on and the main focus emphasises increasing knowledge on equitable gender relationships, respect, nonviolence and values that discourage GBV perpetration (USAID 2014: 48). The intervention should be focused where it has the most potential to seek change in individual attitudes and behaviours and, most importantly, cultivating more equitable gender processes and norms within young men (*Ibid*). This sentiment agrees with those of conflict transformation theory (CTT). These initiatives are promising in reducing GBV.

1.5 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The overall aim of the study was to gain a thorough understanding of GBV on a university campus and devise and implement an intervention with male students that seeks to reduce GBV.

The specific objectives of the study were:

- **To examine the nature, extent, causes and effects of GBV at GZU.**
- **To explore student perceptions and attitudes on GBV.**

- **To design and implement an intervention programme with male students to reduce GBV.**
- **To evaluate the short-term impact of the intervention programme.**

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

A research design is an all-encompassing plan used to merge different facets or elements of a study in a clear, methodical, and articulate manner that ensures effective addressing of the research problem (Allen 2017). The research design was exploratory action oriented, following a positive transformative worldview. To gain an understanding of the nature, causes and impact of GBV from university students' perspective, the study utilised focus group discussions (FGDs) and interviews, both qualitative data collection methods. These data collection methods were used to ascertain a deeper understanding of student knowledge on GBV. 20 students participated in the FGDs 10 ten males and 10 females. Five males and five females participated in interviews. For the action research (AR) component, five students made up the action team, while 15 first year students participated in the educational training workshop.

1.6.1 Action Research

Participatory action research (PAR) was utilised in this research. According to Bryman and Bell (2011:30), AR is “an approach in which the action researcher and a client collaborate in the diagnosis of the problem and in the development of a solution based on the diagnosis.” In this study, the researcher and students, in the problem identification stage (both male and female), participated in exploring the nature, causes and consequences of GBV in general and at the specific university of the study. However, the planned implementation of the intervention had only male students participate. The intervention was comprised of four stages, each with its subsidiary phases, in order to rigorously evaluate the background and purpose of the study. It happened in real time by endorsing the cyclic four-step process of continuous and deliberate action: i) planning, ii) taking action and iii) evaluating the action, leading to iv) further planning, in implementing concurrent cycles of action and research (Coghlan and Shani 2018: 2). A detailed account can be found in Section 4.3.1. After ascertaining the problem in the exploration stage, through the utilisation of FGDs and interviews, an action team of male students was created to plan, develop and implement an intervention strategy (action component), with an educational training workshop decided upon and adopted.

1.6.2 Population and Sampling

As posited by Scheafer (1999: 1), a population is a defined group of specifically selected elements on which an impact must be made. It is a group of individuals a sample is drawn from. A study population is the total number of people on which a study focuses in order to answer a specific or related research questions. The study population wholly comprised undergraduate students at the GZU (14 342). Due to time and financial constraints, it is usually impossible to study the entire population, which makes sampling vital. Undergraduate students were chosen, as research shows the age group 18 to 24 years is the most susceptible to GBV victimisation and perpetration (Griner *et al.* 2020; Shamu, Shamu and Machisa 2018; UNESCO 2021). Most undergraduate students fall within this age range.

1.6.3 Sampling

A sample is a small manageable group drawn from the total population to help study a problem affecting the entire population. It is a small representation of the total population under study (Scheafer 1999). Since the study was qualitative in nature, a non-probability sampling technique was adopted. Selection of the sample was based on individual's acquaintance with the GBV phenomenon. As the researcher was interested to work with people with some knowledge of GBV, a purposive sampling method was adopted.

Purposive sampling, as postulated by Scutt (2006: 348), "... involves an iterative process of selecting research subjects rather than starting with a predetermined sampling frame. Akin to grounded theory, the selection process involves identifying themes, concepts and indicators through observation and reflection". Purposive sampling is used to choose individuals from a population based on specified features through cognisance of the target populace. For this study, a sample of 10 male and 10 female undergraduate students was selected for FGDs. The sample size is in line with what was proposed by Dilshan and Latif (2013), who inferred a FGD should range from 6–12 participants. Altogether, a sample of 26 students was used in this study. Due to participants' exam commitments only two male and two female students took part in follow-up interviews, who directed the researcher to four other students who were not part of the FGDs.

1.6.4 Data collection

Qualitative data collection methods were used in the study to explore and gain a deeper understanding of the nature, causes, effects, and extent of GBV, as well as exploring student perceptions and attitudes on the phenomenon. Data were collected through FGDs and interviews. One FGD was conducted with 10 female students and the other one with 10 male students. Due to examination commitments only four students from the FDGs agreed to participate in follow-up interviews (two male and two female students). The researcher then interviewed six new students who were not part of the FGDs, directed to them by those who participated in the FGDs.

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theories underpinning the study are the Ecological Theory of Violence (ETV), supported by Social Learning Theory (SLT) and CTT.

1.7.1 Ecological Theory of Violence (ETV)

According to the ecological model, no single reason produces GBV; rather, there are multiple factors that contribute to violence. Numerous variables that interact at various phases of the social ecology include the risk of a particular person becoming abusive, the possibility one group will experience more violence than another, and many other aspects (Heise 1998). The incidence and recurrence of violence in various societies thus cannot be explained by a single factor, where the complex interaction of individual, relationship, societal, and cultural, as well as environmental elements lead to violence (Heise 2011). One of the key steps in reducing violence is understanding how these elements link to it. ¹

Youth violence has also been studied using the ETV model, in addition to its use in studying GBV. Two significant notions of the ecological perspective are that behaviour both influences, and is influenced by, numerous levels of influence. Secondly, individual behaviour both shapes, and is shaped by the social environment (reciprocal causation). The important aspect of the ecological model is the multiple levels of influence that include the following factors:

- Intrapersonal or individual;

¹ The ETV is discussed in detail in Section 2.3.3.

- Interpersonal or close relational;
- Community;
- Societal.

The notions brought about by the ETV proved to be true in the study, as findings revealed GBV is caused by various factors, some emanating from an individual person, such as witnessing violence, to weak and unclear institutional policies on GBV, as well as poor economic conditions.

1.7.2 Individual level factors

Individual factors are characteristics of an individual's developmental experience or personality that shape his or her response to micro- and exosystem factors (Heise 1998: 265). These explain biological or personal behavioural factors and influence his/ her likelihood of becoming a victim or perpetrator of violence (WHO 2002: 8).

1.7.3 Interpersonal level factors

At this level, focus is directed towards social relations between a person and other people, as well as to the subjective meanings that accrue from those interactions. The micro level encompasses close relationships such as: within a family, between or among intimate partners, workmates and peers; and examines how these relationships enhance the chances of being a victim or a perpetrator of violence (WHO 2002: 8). Micro level factors manifest in two ways: within the family and as male dominance in extra-familial settings.

1.7.4 Community level factors

Social norms surrounding gender and power, which sustain or reject violence, shape GBV at community level. Different communities and societies have different social norms; however, religious and cultural beliefs fund the dominant framing of the community. In other words, they contribute to what the community understands to be GBV and its justification. Community level effects are factors that increase risks, grounded on individual experiences and relationships with community and social environments, for example schools, places of work, and other localities.

1.7.5 Societal level factors

These factors are both formal and informal social structures that influence the immediate settings in which a person lives (Heise 1998: 273). According to the WHO (2002: 16), these are broad societal or cultural factors that create an environment in which violence is normalised or inhibited. Culture has an enormous impact on people's lives and informs their behaviours and attitudes through governing the way they think and act.

The SLT complements the ETV, in that some factors in the SLT and ETV are similar, particularly individual factors such as witnessing violence and early victimisation. The theory asserts individuals learn behaviour from models who can be family members, or figures of authority within the community and are socialised either to accept or reject violent behaviour.

1.8 CONFLICT TRANSFORMATION MODEL

The model deals with the broader picture of a grassroots problem by examining the causes, contents, and underlying patterns of the immediate presenting situation. A solution then involves those affected in the constructive transformation engagement process. The model stresses for constructive transformation to be achieved, there is a need to explore the presenting situation, envision the desired future and develop change processes that link the two (Lederach and Maiese 2003). In this case, GBV is the problem, and we need a future with no or less violence. An intervention programme will be developed in this study that addresses the problem and helps to achieve low or no cases of GBV.

Conflict affects individuals, relationships, structures and cultures and calls for changes in these four categories by asking what patterns and effects are emanating from the conflict and asking about the intention and value of the required change process (Lederach and Maiese 2003). At an individual level, conflict affects a person cognitively, emotionally, perceptually, and spiritually. At a relational level it affects how people interact, communicate, and interdepend on each other, while conflict resolution observes how inter-personal, intergroup and intragroup relations are structured. At cultural level, conflict changes the way cultures deal with and respond to conflicts, as well as help those involved in the conflict to identify, promote and develop constructive ways of dealing with conflict in that setting, using available mechanisms and resources (Lederach and Maiese 2003). Conflict transformation aims to address the social

root causes of collective violence by creating human security, catering to basic human needs, and supporting justice and reconciliation.

In Zimbabwe, the socio-economic, cultural norms and values and patriarchy contribute more to all forms of GBV experienced in the country than other factors. Conflict transformation, as postulated by Francis (2002: 7), entails:

...not only the shift of specific conflicts from the arena of violence into that of democratic politics, based on the rule, but also the transformation of cultural assumptions about the exercise of power, the substitution of power with for power over, and the assumption of responsibility by ordinary people, individually and collectively, for the things that affect their own lives and others.

Culture is subject to change and there is need for transformation in some beliefs that undermine women and give men power to subordinate women in private and public life. CTT was used to deal with GBV and underpinned the planning of the intervention strategy. As stipulated by the theory, those involved in the problem are supposed to be part of both problem identification and problem solving. This was done by involving students in all the study processes.

1.9 FINDINGS

As detailed in Chapter Five of the study, it was noted GBV is prevalent at the university, and extends to attachment places. It is a serious abuse of individual rights, with adverse academic and life consequences. Furthermore, lecturers abuse their positions of power and victimise students, with “semester marriages” a fertile ground for IPV perpetration.

The education workshop included 15 first year male students and the action team and the intervention ended with the 1-day workshop. During implementation of the educational training intervention, it was noted male students are socialised to assume the role of providers, to be non-emotional and socialised into believing in some toxic gendered roles. Students justified wife or girlfriend beating for not cooking, refusing sex and going out without telling ‘the husband’. The way a victim dresses was also viewed as inciting rape; hence, victim blaming was common among the male students. The evaluation of the immediate intervention outcomes proved to have transformed student perceptions on who to blame in the face of violence, and a change in attitudes with regard to gender roles; as one participant said about the intervention workshop:

“It made me appreciate women and all they put up with and all they go through because of culture and what society says. When they do not even have to go through it. I should have learned how to cook at an early age the food I am now eating is trashy. Chores are for everyone, you struggle when you are alone and you are not used to cook, wash and clean for yourself, am sure this is the reason some gents rush into marriage and cohabiting on campus. I learnt that you don’t marry to treat a woman as property but as a partner in decision making and everything”.

1.10 RATIONALE AND MOTIVATION OF STUDY

The study was designed to gain knowledge of university GBV and to consider possible solutions to the problem, while also devising a programme that mitigates GBV in university settings. AR was adopted as an appropriate method of developing a programme. This has been done in relation to university GBV in Zimbabwean Higher and Tertiary Education Institutions (HTEIs). As Mutinta (2022: 1) states, there is need for intensive implementation of campus GBV prevention measures to curb these human rights violations. Most GBV cases at the university in Masvingo are from informal channels and via the grapevine. Therefore, as much as this research is action oriented, it seeks to add to knowledge on university GBV. Studies previously done in Zimbabwean HTEIs mainly focused only on sexual harassment; for example, studies by Dlomo *et al.* (2012), Shumba and Matina (2002), and Zindi (1994). The baseline research by Murai (2015) made the researcher realise something had to be done in HTEIs regarding mitigating GBV on campuses. GZU was selected as it is located in the researcher’s hometown and the main campus and the Mashava campus are regarded as hotspots for informal news.

1.11 DELIMITATIONS

The study is limited to GZU; therefore, the results might not be applicable to other settings, however, some universities may have similar characteristics as the results were in consensus with studies done at other universities.

1.12 THESIS STRUCTURE

The study comprises eight chapters, structured as shown below:

Chapter One: In this chapter, the background of the study, research problem, study aim and objectives form part of the discussion.

Chapter Two: The chapter starts in familiarising the readers with concepts such as gender, violence and GBV, providing a discussion of the relevant theories that underpin this study.

Chapter Three: The review of literature detailed in this chapter focuses on the nature, causes and consequences of GBV in general and on universities.

Chapter Four: The chapter deals with the research methodology and methods utilised in this study and a discussion of why they were utilised.

Chapter Five: An outline of the findings from the FGDs and interviews is provided in this chapter.

Chapter Six: A discussion of the themes determined in this study is presented in this chapter in relation to the findings of others and the review of literature.

Chapter Seven: Education training workshop planning are detailed, along with their implementation, as well as the workshop findings and discussions.

Chapter Eight: The chapter focusses on the concluding remarks, study implications and recommendations.

1.13 SUMMARY

The chapter provided a summation of what the study is all about giving a brief insight on the research methodology, and findings of the study. It also focused on the study background and context, the problem statement and the research objectives. The subsequent chapter gives a detailed description of GBV and an analysis of the theoretical frameworks underpinning the research.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUALISING GBV AND THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes an analysis of past studies, intended to aid in the development of a more trustworthy and credible study, examining concepts related to GBV pertinent to this research. The nature of GBV, its causes, effects, and student beliefs and attitudes toward GBV are among these concepts.

2.2 CONCEPTUALISING GENDER, VIOLENCE AND GBV

GBV can be understood in a variety of ways, can be brought about by a wide range of contributing factors, and can have negative repercussions for individuals, societies, and nations at large. The gendered dynamics present in all cultures and societies will serve as foundation for this study. It is of utmost importance to start by conceptualising and understanding terms such as gender, and violence before venturing on a discussion of GBV. It is also vital to address the distinction between GBV and violence against women; sometimes used interchangeably when, in truth, they are distinct though closely related.

2.2.1 Gender

Blackstone (2003: 335) defined gender as “meanings, values and characteristics that people ascribe to different sexes”. Gender thus denotes “generally constructed standards and ideas that determine how men and women should act or behave”, according to the United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund (UNICEF) (2013). Gender is hierarchical and creates disparities that intersect with other public and economic disparities, while it also has advantages and disadvantages, both financially and politically, as well as culturally, that come with being male or female. The societal definitions of being male or female differ significantly from culture to culture also in addition to becoming altered or modified as times change (Kangas, Haider and Fraser 2014).

On the one hand, gender is an array of collectively established roles and relations, personality characteristics, behaviours, attitudes ideals, and comparative power and influence that society attributes to the two sexes on a differentiated basis. On the other hand, gender also refers to the differences in how these factors are experienced by individuals of the two sexes. It is a learned, acquired identity that evolves with time and differs extensively, with variations in cultures and civilisations.

The concept of gender is relational; it does not only mean being female or male it also includes the connection between the two. In some societies, when people talk of “gender”, they are referring to the norms, morals, and behaviours associated with their sex; that is, being male or female (Blackstone 2003). Furthermore, the term "gender" refers to all societally and culturally specified qualities, roles, activities, and responsibilities associated with being a male (masculinity) or a female (femininity) in that society. Masculinity and femininity are both socially and culturally identified as related (Fidan and Bui 2016).

1. Gender Roles

Different people and societies establish societal standards of behaviour, ethics, and attitudes considered proper for men, women and relationships among them (Mugweni *et al.* 2012). These norms can be broken down into four categories: behaviour, values, attitudes, and relations (Blackstone 2003). Instead of being determined by biological factors, these roles are determined by society. For instance, the ability to bear children is exclusively a female trait (biological factor), because men are unable to do so. However, while both men and women are capable of being parents, society often expects mothers to take on that role. In Zimbabwe it is the man’s role to provide for the family, while the upkeep of the home and cooking (household chores) are the woman’s duty (Fidan and Bui 2016). These engendered roles are also encountered in schools, where sweeping and mopping the classroom is considered something done by girls.

2.2.2 Violence

Violence is an intentional infliction of harm on someone who does not want to be harmed, nonetheless, it can also be used as a way of defence or retaliation to protect oneself from an abuser. People attend self-defence classes and learn ways of blocking and hitting the abuser as a means of defending themselves (Hamby 2017: 168). Violence is further described as: “The intentional use of physical force or power threatened or actual, against oneself, another person,

or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation” (Krug *et al.* 2002: 5).

Galtung’s conceptualisation of violence presented a core distinction between three types of violence, which are: personal, structural, and cultural forms of violence (Galtung and Høivik 1971). Whereas personal violence involves a subject, structural violence does not, while cultural violence legitimises the before-mentioned types of violence (Galtung 1990). The institutionalisation and incorporation of violence into societal systems contribute to what is known as structural violence. The inequalities in power and resources as a result of structural violence, brings about direct or personal violence between individuals. Galtung (1990) further elaborates the definition of violence, in association to the extent of harm caused, and in relationship to hindered individual needs. It is, therefore, important to conclude both indirect and direct violence interfere with the need for physical and emotional/mental integrity, basic non-material and material needs.

There is a connection between gender and various forms of violence, inclusive of structural, direct and cultural violence. The lens of gender enables an appreciation of how these underlying structures can be subverted. “An approach sensitive to gender dynamics makes it possible to investigate covert power dynamics and brings to light a mode of violence that is conceivable on scales ranging from the individual to the global” (Wilding 2012: 2).

When examining non-material and symbolic systems that offer justification and legitimacy to the use of violence, Galtung's understanding of cultural violence is valuable as a lens through which to examine these systems; his contention is the roots of violence can be tracked to the non-material scope of human existence. As posited by Galtung (1990: 291), cultural violence is: “... those aspects of culture, the symbolic sphere of our existence – exemplified by religion, language and art, empirical science and formal science that can be used to justify or legitimise direct or structural violence” (Galtung 1990: 291).

GBV can take on all forms of violence; that is, it can either be direct, cultural or structural; it is direct violence when it is directed at an individual by another individual. For example, when a person sexually assaults, and/or bullies, and/or emotionally manipulates another. These actions threaten a person’s life and inhibit their ability to function physically and mentally. GBV is structural when people are harmed by the prejudices of society. For example, discrimination against women as village heads or chiefs. GBV becomes cultural violence through the

justification of, for example, rape and wife beating, based on the provisions of religion and cultural practices.

2.2.3 Gender Based Violence (GBV)

According to Ott (2017), GBV is violence directed at an individual, based on his or her biological sex or gender identity. It is inclusive but not restricted to physical, sexual, verbal, and emotional, as well as psychological abuse, threats, coercion, and economic or educational deprivation, whether occurring in public or private life. This definition is inclusive of all sexes. In addition, GBV is violence that can be committed and experienced by both men and women alike and not confined to a place, situation, and nature of any relationship. It can be committed and experienced in homes, schools, at work, and in church; it knows no boundaries. Presenting in various forms, GBV can be perpetrated by someone close, either physically, verbally, or emotionally. At present, through the advent of technological progression, a person far away can be victim or perpetrator of GBV through cyber bullying, defamation of character, slandering online, or online publication of someone's personal information such as nude photos.

GBV is understood in distinctive ways, depending on the perspective from which it is defined. It is often used interchangeably with Violence against Women (VAW), as women and girls are mainly the victims and have always been at the receiving end of violence economically, socially, and spiritually. While on the one hand, GBV is violence directed at a person regardless of their gender, sexual orientation and inclusive of everyone victimised; VAW, on the other hand, is self-defined, using the biological identity of the victim. As propounded by Heise, Ellsberg and Gottmoeller (2002: 6), VAW “is any act of verbal or physical force, coercion, or life-threatening deprivation, directed at an individual woman or girl that causes physical or psychological harm, humiliation, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty and that perpetuates female subordination.”

To better understand the skewed bias implied by GBV towards women, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) points out the reality that, historically, women were not allowed to work, and when they were, received far less remuneration than men. In addition, girls were not sent to school, with the means of production, land and wealth controlled by men, who had absolute power over women in all spheres and aspects of life. Moreover, women only had subordinate positions and were neither allowed to hold positions of power nor could they be

voters. The debate this overwhelming scenario raises is the implication of men not being victims of GBV, which is untrue as men and boys also suffer GBV, although the cases are low. Often, males have a problem with this perception that men and boys are not victims of GBV from women (UNFPA Zimbabwe 2016). The first definition of GBV was coined by the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (CEDAW) in 1993 (UNGA 1993). Although GBV can be defined in a variety of ways, Maphosa (2018) asserts it is a developing phrase. These explanations differ depending on one's point of view. Nonetheless, as seen from the description by Kanjiri and Nomngcoyiya (2020: 43), “The general societal perception of GBV is that it is primarily a women's issue, resulting in the phenomenon being largely associated with women”. As a result, the term Violence Against Women (VAW) has become widely accepted as a synonym for GBV. This viewpoint is consistent with the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women, which in 1993 stated that:

Article 1: “Any act of gender-based violence, whether public or private, that causes or is likely to cause bodily, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivations of liberty”

Article 2: “The declaration argues that the definition should include, but not be limited to, acts of physical, sexual, and psychological violence in the family, community, or inflicted or tolerated by the state, wherever it occurs. Spousal battery; sexual abuse, including of female children; dowry-related violence; rape, including marital rape; female genital mutilation/cutting and other traditional practices harmful to women; non-spousal violence; sexual violence related to exploitation; sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in school, and elsewhere; trafficking in women; and forced prostitution are examples of these acts”. (UNGA 1993: 2).

Mashiri and Mawire (2013: 97) express similar ideas, describing GBV as:

“... a form of violence to which girls and women are subjected primarily because of their female gender identity. As females, they face systematic discrimination from an entrenched and rationalized system of gender-based power relations which then perpetuate an almost universal pattern of subordination that leave girls and women highly vulnerable to acts of physical, sexual or psychological harm from male members of their families and communities, including husbands, lovers, brothers, fathers, teachers and employers”.

Such a viewpoint has, however, been seen as problematic because it raises questions regarding the phenomenon's feminisation. GBV affects both men and women, according to the European

Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE) (2020), women are capable of perpetrating violence (Dayimani 2020) though women and girls represent the majority victims.

While it is true GBV is not limited to girls, Bloom *et al.* (2014) point out it is a broad term that encompasses violence as a result of normative role expectations associated with each gender, as well as unequal power relationships between the two genders, in the context of a given society. This echoes the earlier argument Bloom (2008) made, asserting power imbalances in gender inequality and patriarchal discrimination against women are the root causes of GBV. In patriarchal views, men are frequently favoured over women, however, Bloom's hypothesis explains why women are disproportionately affected by GBV. The WHO (2013) agrees men commit the majority interpersonal GBV acts against women, and the man who commits the violence is frequently known to the woman, such as a spouse or family member.

There is no single factor that can explain the causes of GBV. Generated by an interaction of individual, relationship, communal, and economic, as well as cultural, and religious elements, GBV is found at many levels of society, according to various research (Krug *et al.* 2002). Individual, relationship, and society factors, according to the WHO (2012), are used to categorise GBV causes, and these categories are individual factors, relationship factors, and societal factors. As a result, these elements can be divided into two categories: systemic and immediate causes of GBV.

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.3.1 Introduction

The present section focuses on the theories that explain GBV violence perpetration and victimisation. The SLT combined with the ecological theory bring to light an understanding of the causes and conceptualisation of GBV and fail to address the transformation part of those causes or risk factors so as to reduce this scourge. As this study is conceived AR the theory underpinned for mitigating GBV is a peace theory for bringing a positive change a societal problem through transforming conflicts.

2.3.2 Social Learning Theory (SLT)

GBV has spread to the point where it is no longer a one-off occurrence, but rather a widespread behavioural pattern. Albert Bandura's SLT asserts behaviour can be learnt; thus, it is a learned

phenomenon. According to this theory, when people watch a model's behaviour, they recall the sequence of events and use this information to guide subsequent action (Bandura 2001, cited in Usher & Schunk 2018). According to Kazemi *et al.* (2019), SLT behaviour is developed as a result of mutual relationships among personal, environmental, and behavioural elements.

Robinson-Tyrance (2013) states SLT is a useful tool for illustrating and understanding GBV due to a complex interaction of learning, environmental, and cognitive factors. Humans are social organisms that learn specific behavioural qualities from their social environment (McAlister, Perry, and Parcel 2008). When examining GBV against this, the problem becomes an internalised behaviour, later employed and manifested as GBV in adulthood (Zhu and behaviour's consequence is relevant for individuals, hence, it is natural to conclude GBV is a symptom of men's quest for power. In this respect, while GBV is frowned upon, it demonstrates men's desire to control women, which is a crucial trait in maintaining patriarchy (Rakovec-Felser 2014). SLT views violence as emanating from being socialised in various ways in behaviours that promote the perpetuating of violence.

Violence socialisation by children manifests through numerous means, inclusive of verbal underpinning of violence, violence witnessing, and self-experience of violence from family and neighbours (Delaney 2015). The three may overlap, however, each may have a different effect on individuals. College students' violence acceptance and perpetration are affected by violence socialisations, as modelled by the college community, societies, and cultures they are from, as well as the entire nation (Bacchini *et al.* 2015; Jennings *et al.* 2017; Steel *et al.* 2017).

People interact with some groups such as families, peers and their neighbourhood and these groups can endorse positive or hostile classifications of unlawful or lawful behaviours. The strength of the interaction's impact on an individual's present behaviour is modulated by factors such as priority, intensity, duration, and frequency (Pratt *et al.* 2010). Individuals learn opinions, connotations, attitudes and consequently, "definitions" for particular behaviours, as decent or bad from their natural setting (Akers *et al.* 1979; Pratt *et al.* 2010). When an individual holds a positive or neutral meaning for a specific behaviour, the individual will be highly likely to engage in the behaviour. Differential reinforcement denotes how balance between anticipated and definite incentive or punishment affects behaviour (Akers 1996). Behaviours positively supported by incentives are highly likely to recur; the more they are reinforced, the more they are repeated, and the opposite is true for negative reinforcement.

Lastly, imitation denotes engaging in some kind of behaviour, subsequent to seeing it modelled by a person regarded as a role model (Akers and Jennings 2009; Pratt *et al.* 2010).

Straus *et al.* (1999) detailed violence socialisation as the result of three processes: advised violence, witnessed violence, and victimised violence. Each of these processes is discussed below.

1. Advised violence

This is when a person is verbally coached to instigate a hostile reaction or retribution to deal with a situation. Violent behaviour is cultured as a proper response to problem solving from validations for using violence by family community members (Chen *et al.* 2016, Herrenkohl and Jung 2016). “Advised violence,” refers to positive reaction to violent actions. This form of acculturation is learnt through modelling and reinforcement (Bandura 1978). Previous studies supported the association, that is, encouragement by parents or other adult relatives, toward aggressive peer interactions may have considerable effects on a child. Encouragement from a parent or relative for infant or peer hostile interactions substantially influence a child’s inclination to aggressive and revengeful attitudes (Chen *et al.* 2016; Johnson *et al.* 2011). For example, childhood perceptions of parent attitudes concerning fighting are significantly related to their own destructive behaviours, such as fighting at school and carrying weapons.

Explicitly, more aggressive youth are those who allegedly perceive support for fighting and interpret it as approval for exhibiting hostile behaviour. Advised violence may be experienced from pro-violence messages or societal norms. For instance, marginalised societies can have informal violent guidelines or beliefs for insolence and alleged attacks as self-defence (Anderson 1999). Peer attitudes regarding violence play a crucial part in a child’s view of violence, offering models for behaviour and defining customs and standards of violence (Herrenkohl and Jung 2016; Zimmerman and Messner 2011).

2. Witnessed violence

Vicarious watching or observing is one way children are socialised to violence (Bandura 1978). When they witness violent actions being rewarded, they tend to view violence in a positive way (Akers 1996; Bandura 1978). For example, when a child perceives the father’s violence led to the mother’s transformed behaviour, such as being submissive to the father, therefore, the child will think of violence as an important device used to gain what one wants. In this setting, witnessing violence leads to destructive behaviour, as a result of the facilitation of such social

learning methods (Schwartz & Proctor 2000). Children raised in families where interparental violence is prevalent and they witness it, are more likely to imitate and tolerate these violent actions than those raised in nonviolent families. Violence can also be witnessed from the neighbourhood, which will instil thoughts that conclude aggressive behaviour is a legal way of resolving community problems.

3. Victimised violence

People who were victims of violence from their families and communities when growing up are associated with violence acceptance and hostile behaviours (Wolfe & Stuart 2013). Specifically, the consequences of violent acculturation through physical child abuse, which propagate additional brutal offenses, has been investigated for years producing a model named the “Cycle of Violence” (Milaniak & Widom 2015). An association between exposure to violence and a child’s internalised effects, such as being depressed and anxious; and externalised effects including delinquency and aggressive behaviour, are well documented *ibid*.

The ETV framework, complementary to the SLT, was also used to explain why individuals are survivors and perpetrators of violence. On the one hand, the SLT mainly focuses on behavioural components when explaining violence. However, on the other hand, the ecological theory further on goes to explain the interrelation between the multiple elements that influence behaviour. SLT merely focuses on behaviour modelling as an influence of how a child will react and act. The ecological theory is complementary as it considers various factors which affects behaviour from family, schools and other environments that have direct or indirect influence on an individual.

2.3.3 Ecological Theory of Violence (ETV)

Initially proposed in the 1970s by Bronfenhenner from his studies on child abuse, Bronfenhenner’s (1977) Ecological Systems Theory established child development is an intricate classification of relationships impacted by various factors of the surrounding setting; from the direct surroundings of family and school, to comprehensive social ethics, laws and customs. He identified five structures and named them the “micro, meso, exo, macro and chrono systems”. The five systems are interconnected, therefore, the impact of one system on a child is dependent on its relationship with the other systems (Guy-Evans 2020).

Heise (1998), developing from ecological systems theory, added some modifications, and named it ETV, which has been used as a benchmark by academics on violence (WHO 2002: 9). As a conceptual instrument for understanding violence, the theory has been undergoing continuously ongoing adaptations. The model is used to examine the elements that influence behaviour, as well as those that increase the risk of engaging in violent behaviour. It additionally provides a deeper understanding of GBV, conceptualising it as complex and influenced by a manifold of factors, operating at distinct levels inclusive of cultural, situational, personal, and social factors (Heise 1998: 263).

ETV is a unified model that explains all the factors involved in violence perpetration, as well as victimisation. Additionally, the WHO (2002: 18) contends causes of violence cannot be explained by a single factor; many factors are in play to explain why some individuals are susceptible to violence victimisation and perpetration, when others are not. The strength of the model lies in its capacity to differentiate between the countless factors that cause or prompt violent behaviour, while simultaneously establishing a relationship between the two. Violence should not be exclusively considered as caused by masculinity for violence only but as caused by multiple factors. Heise (1998: 265) asserts the ETV provides a broader understanding of GBV, through a reflection of the intricacy of issues amassing to women's actual lives including own history, relationships, societal and exosystem factors (Bronfenhenner 1977, Atuhaire, 2018).

2.3.3.1 Individual factors

These are aspects and characteristics of an individual's personality or the formative year experiences that play a role in determining their reaction to influences of micro and exosystems (Heise 1998: 265). Individual factors provide explanations for biological/ personal aspects that contribute to a person's behaviour and influence the possibility and an individual's susceptibility to being a victim of violence or of becoming a violence perpetrator (WHO 2002: 8). Some of these aspects are analysed below:

1. Witnessing violence as a child

Children who grow up in violent, abusive homes have the potential to develop into abusive adults themselves; their violence is a learned behaviour. This is particularly true when exposure to violence happened when still young. Studies reveal men are more likely to be aggressive towards women in most cases when they were exposed to violence growing up or even

experienced it themselves. A boy who witnessed his father beating his mother may normalise physical violence and tend to perpetrate it as it was conditioned in him (Seto and Lalimeiere 2010: 529; Wolfe & Stuart 2013).

There are internalised and externalised risk factors associated with witnessing violence that are inclusive of but not limited to depression, anxiety, dishonesty, and bullying, as well as cheating (Johnson 2008). As a result, there is a likelihood of bad academic performance and relationships challenges as their social competences will be affected. When violence is learnt, it can be unlearned, and people choose to be violent, therefore, there is no justification whatsoever for GBV. It was noted in the findings that a girl stayed in an abusive relationship because she had witnessed her mother suffering at the hands of her father.

2. Early victimisation

As documented by Heise *et al.* (2002), there is extensive and widespread global child-sexual exploitation and this is likely to affect the victim in his/her future relationships due to internalised risk factors (Morrow and Smith 2007: 292). In concession, Saffitz (2010: 86) alluded that SLT is vital in understanding behaviour and argued behaviour is modelled and learnt by observing and enacting the observed behaviour of those considered role models. Behaviour can be modelled and learnt from the entire cultural environment and then transferred, as with gender roles and societal norms, to the next generations.

Studies contend childhood sexual abuse can be linked to the probability of an increase in perpetrating sexual violence by men (Seto and Lalimeiere 2010: 529; Whitaker *et al.* 2008). Boys who are sexually abused at a young age are more likely to molest others in the future (WHO 2002: 6). However, contradicting this sentiment, Heise *et al.* (2002: 6) postulate just because a boy was sexually abused does not automatically imply he will perpetrate violence. In contention with this, Fulu *et al.* (2013: 85) established men's childhood victimisation is related to their perpetration of rape. Research in development studies reveal being exposed to abuse as a child affects mental development resulting in low self-esteem, insecurity, and resentment. These risk factors result in boys engaging with a toxic group of friends and adopting violent behaviour.

3. Drug and substance abuse

Alcohol and drugs often inhibit a person's better judgement, with intoxication frequently resulting in, on the one hand, violent behaviour and on the other hand, vulnerable to

victimisation as they become incapable of protecting themselves (Heise 1998: 276). Some ladies, when intoxicated, sleep anywhere, making them easy rape targets and reporting such cases culminates in victim blaming. A song by the late Zimbabwean music icon, Dr Oliver Mutukudzi, 'Chipembenene', exposes that sometimes people use alcohol as a scapegoat for premeditated actions - they drink solely to incite violence and blame it on intoxication. This is in line with the common expression by people after being offended and wanting revenge: "*uyu ndoda kumudhikirwa achandiona*" (I am going to get intoxicated for this one and he/she will see what I am capable of). This infers most people premeditate engaging in violent acts, becoming intoxicated solely to shift responsibility for their actions to alcohol.

2.3.3.2 Microsystem Factors

At this level, the focus is on how a person reacts to others socially and the subjective effects resulting from those interactions. It includes close relations in a family, between intimate partners, work acquaintances, and schoolmates, as well as peers, examining the probability of being a victim or perpetrator because these relationships enhance/ encourage potential violence triggers (WHO 2002: 8).

1. Male dominance

It is documented that men who are raised in male-controlled families are highly likely to perpetrate GBV (Capnoli and Boyer 2001; WHO 2002: 161). As postulated by Heise (1998: 277), research on masculinity's role in enhancing VAW contains characteristics related to forcefulness, power/strength, toughness, and domination. The dominance manifesting in that, men control not only the economic resources of the family, but every aspect of the family, including decision-making. Some dictate the groceries to be bought and what to eat daily, battering women and raping them. In agreement with this, Francis (2004: 63) propounded that "a culture of ascendancy translates to violence because the toxic characteristics of culture make direct and structural violence justifiable".

Socially construed gendered pyramids similarly produce power asymmetries that typically leave women at a disadvantage, leading to violence (Thornton and Whiteman 2013: 104). In Zimbabwe, such hierarchies exist in academic institutes and spheres of Government where women have subordinate roles. As women become empowered through education, men's socialisation as leaders and in control becomes questionable and will lead to the perception of being disempowered. This perception often leads to over compensatory behaviour and

dominant masculinities; with men trying to gain more control, and violence certainly becomes imminent. Men typically assume control of sexual matters in relationships, decisions on when, how and where to have sex, whether to use protection, when to get pregnant. Men's need for control leaves women vulnerable to sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), Human Immune Virus (HIV), unsafe sexual practices, and unwanted pregnancies (Ragnarsson *et al.* 2010; Shai *et al.* 2012; Kerr-Wilson *et al.* 2020). Men objectify and violate women as a way of maintaining control over them (UN Women 2020: 16).

2.3.3.3 Exosystem_Factors

These are cultural values and economic factors that permeate a community and apprise other phases of social ecology. They are fixated in the environment in which social relations occur, namely workplaces, Universities, and a specified environment. Factors that influence GBV are related to socio-economic factors and peer associators.

1. Low Socio-economic Status

Research reveals, due to poverty, men may feel upset and insecure for the perceived inability to fulfil their traditionally specified role as “provider”, more so following a conflict (Heise 1998: 274). Men perceive conflict will result from their inability to make a financial contribution. Additionally, scholars contend poverty most probably increases the occurrence of conflicts over limited resources and there is a high chance of exposure to violence for people raised in poor and underprivileged communities (Uthman *et al.* 2009). Research establishes that violence is used to settle the connection between poverty and sexual violence resulting from men's identity crisis (WHO 2002: 161). This investigation demonstrates a connection between poverty and both perpetrating and experiencing sexual assault. Males with a bruised ego also often turn to violence, both against women and other men, as a way to compensate for their perceived weakness.

Pittaway (2004: 42) notes when a man's sense of self is endangered, the likelihood of domestic violence increases, leading some men to commit violent acts in an effort to regain their power and self-respect. Pittaway's theories are reinforced by Saffitz (2010: 86), who claims a man's inability to support himself and his family financially, can lead to feelings of inferiority and become a challenge to his male identity, which can then result in his acting violently. For instance, male students are typically perceived as financially unstable and often fail to provide for their girlfriends. However, this failure often translates to violence, particularly when there

are “blessers” who show interest in the girl. Subsequently, girls may turn to blessers for financial support because of poverty, with GBV imminent in these kinds of relationships.

Associating with felonious friends is another exosystem factor that encourages drug and alcohol intoxication; already established as a risk factor above. People experiencing mental effects of victimisation as children, such as depression, are more likely to associate with the wrong kind of peer groups that engage in criminal and violent acts. As a way of blending in and showing commitment to the group, a person can be tasked with engaging in violent acts for the group, such as to physically hurt someone or steal to prove he is ‘aggressive enough’ and ‘has what it takes’ to be part of the group. However, not all previously victimised people enjoy associating and engaging in violent behaviours; some prefer isolation. The interlink between various levels shown in this paragraph prove the uniqueness of the ETV.

2.3.3.4 Macrosystem Factors

Considered as prescribed and informal societal structures that impact a person's immediate surroundings (Heise 1998: 273), these macrosystem factors are significant socioeconomic or cultural elements, according to the WHO (2002: 16), that contribute to the normalisation or suppression of violence. According to Francis (2004: 63), culture has a significant influence on people's lives and shapes their attitudes, behaviours, and conduct by dictating how they think and act. Francis (2004: 63) states culture remains a complex and significant aspect to be considered because of this. The other three levels of social ecology are influenced by these cultural values and beliefs. For instance, as previously stated, male dominance affects how power is organised in communities and how decision-making authority is distributed within families, as dictated by cultural norms and values (Thornton and Whiteman 2013). These norms and attitudes include those that give men control over family resources, prioritise parental rights over children's well-being, deny women financial security, and reinforce male dominance over women and children. This is due to culture being crucial in defining what constitutes both acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, as well as the appropriate response to violence (WHO 2002: 19).

Francis (2004: 63) adds physical violence is both acceptable and embedded in our civilizations because violent parts of culture, such as dominant models of power, are typically condoned. Logic dictates male dominance causes female subjugation, which eventually results in violence against women and girls. Government laws may afford women a worsened status, deny them

of their property rights, and/or permit their husbands to reprimand them on a regular basis (actual violence). This complicates resisting the husband's control and encourages her physical assault. Francis contends by doing this, certain cultural practices become acceptable, since they are supported by the laws and policies of the nation or society in question (Francis 2004: 63). Other major reasons are inflexible gender norms, male entitlement to, or ownership of, women, and support for physical punishment of women, which is widespread in Zimbabwe.

The macrosystem encompasses a culture's practices, attitudes, beliefs, and laws, as well as values, which all influence a person's evolution (Becker and Todd 2018: 1122). According to Thomas and Myers (2015), it is based on the concept that beliefs, culture, and society provide a set of instructions for how social circumstances are created and established among children. Bronfenhenner (2002: 266) emphasises the macrosystem's behavioural and conceptual models are passed down from generation to generation through various cultural institutions, such as the family, school, congregation, and workplace, as well as administration, which serve as intermediaries in the socialisation process. "The environmental contexts around the individual are nested and interacted through social and cultural norms of the macrosystem" (Rudasil *et al.* 2017: 38).

The macrosystem impacts the topmost layer of a child (Berk 2000). This environment is where people's mindsets are shaped by cultural values, customs, and laws (Härkönen 2007: 13). Since cultural values are the foundation of who we are, it is thought the macrosystem penetrates all strata (Paquette and Ryan 2001). Puroila and Karila (2001: 224) emphasised it is through this lens that the bounds of the macrosystem includes not only civilization but also cultures and subcultures. The social and cultural dimensions of the macrosystem, as emphasised, are the major tenets of the macrosystem, as noted by Härkönen (2007: 13).

Two vital aspects of the ETV are that human actions and behaviour both impact and are impacted by multiple levels of influence. Furthermore, individual actions form and are formed by the social environment (reciprocal causation). Despite offering an intriguing analytical tool for conceptualising violence and its intricate interactions, ETV is not conclusive, because it does not address the disputes that result from these risk factors. The theory is either incomplete or insufficient and does not provide a long-term remedy for the risk factors that contribute to violence. It is evident ETV is a powerful tool for explaining violence, however, it has limitations, in that it does not make provision to address risk factors. Further limitations include

that no element or group of elements is strong enough to certainly predict the likelihood of a person's perpetuating or experiencing violence, while poor academic performers are not always previous victims of violence or are not always likely to become violent (Atuhaire, 2018).

The two theories assist in explaining the likelihood of a person to perpetrate or experience violence, which is crucial when answering objectives one and two that seeks to answer the causes, effects, and people's attitude on GBV. As the study is action oriented and seeks transformation, there was need for a peace theory that aids in developing the intervention strategy, hence the adoption of CTT, discussed below.

2.3.4 Conflict Transformation Theory (CTT)

This section concentrates on CTT, how it opposes violence, and makes provision for violence prevention.

As conceptualised by Lederach and Maiese (2003), conflict transformation:

“... is to envision and respond to the ebb and flow of social conflict as life-giving opportunities for creating constructive change processes that reduce violence, increase justice in direct interaction and social structures and respond to real life problems in human relations.”

Lederach (2014) proposed the CTT when attempting to realise positive resolutions to the world's brutal conflicts. The theory tries to create positive change and provide a greater meaning to settling conflicts than mere conflict resolution and management, as evidenced by literature from many backgrounds (Miall 2004; Rodriguez and Inturias 2018). Stated differently, the theory shapes and reframes peacebuilding, making it the foundation for long-term peace. Lederach (1995a: 201) advocated for a shift in the focus by peace practitioners from conflict resolution to conflict transformation, in order to achieve peace in the world's ever-changing conflicts. Conflict transformation becomes accurate because “it is involved in constructive change activities that encompass and go beyond the resolution of specific problems” (Lederach 2014: 9).

CTT promotes nonviolence as a means of achieving peace (Lederach 2014: 9). It is important to stress this is a positive response to violent conflict that will lead to long-term peace. There has been an acceptable tendency of employing violence to resolve issues, and in most situations, there will be no concrete resolution. As a result, according to Miall (2004), conflict transformation, which calls for non-violent peace methods, is increasingly relevant to current

conflicts that require non-violent involvement. In outlining the non-violence intervention, Lederach (2014) pushed for discussion, providing all parties the opportunity to air their grievances and share ideas for coexistence. Conflict transformation, according to Miall (2004), is a process of involving the parties to the conflict, modifying their relationships, and resolving the issue of interests and discourses. Non-violence thinkers and theorists have promoted peaceful conflict resolution as a means of achieving long-term peace (Sharp 1973; Wehr, Burgess and Burgess 1994; Clark 2000).

Through conflict transformation, local people are encouraged to participate in peacebuilding in order for peace to last. The very society impacted by the conflict, as well as those who have supported the continuation of violent conflict, must be present at the peace talks. In simple words, conflict transformation is predicated on local people's belief in peace. Miall (2004: 4) opined people among conflict parties, within the impacted society or region, and outsiders with relevant human and material resources, all have complementary responsibilities in the long-term peacebuilding process. This offers a broad and comprehensive approach, emphasising support for conflicting factions within society, rather than outsider mediation. Within a specific location, conflict transformation must actively envisage, include, respect, and promote human and cultural resources.

To achieve this transformation requires a change in perception, where the location and its inhabitants are not regarded as the problem and the outsider as the solution. Instead, the long-term purpose of change can validate and expand the people and resources in the setting (Lederach 1995). Conflict transformation, according to Rupesinghe (1995, 1998), is a holistic method that promotes grassroots participation for peace. Conflict resolution, as described by Miall (2004: 3), emphasises intervention by skilled but powerless third parties, working unofficially with the parties to foster new thinking and new relationships, while largely ignoring the participation of locals, who are a vital stakeholder for peace in that particular society.

Conflict transformation initiatives typically aim to instil knowledge and abilities in those affected by conflict with regard to certain conflict resolving methods (Graf *et al.* 2006). Lederach (1998: 26) explained conflict transformation is centred on the conscientisation concept, “the process of growing awareness of self-in-context that creates individual growth and social change for peace”.. He also noted people are key resources for peace prevalence in

their societies. Lederach argues people are aware of, capable of naming, interacting with, and responding in dynamic ways to their own realities. As a result, conflict transformation through local empowerment for peace is the most beneficial and productive method to resolve disagreements and foster long-term peace.

Conflict disrupts the natural flow of interactions in everyday situations, and this relationship becomes complicated, not as easy and smooth as it once was (Lederach 2014). Conflicts are transformed from life-destroying to life-affirming in the conflict transformation lens (Miall 2004). The process of conflict transformation initiates the process of reconciliation and the establishment of new peaceful connections between the conflict parties (Graf *et al.* 2006). Conflict transformation, according to Lederach (2014), "brings a clearer knowledge of the need of positive connections following a conflict for the continuation of peaceful coexistence". Lederach upheld Curle's (1971) concept for relationship transformation from imbalanced to balanced relationships through a process of conscientisation, confrontation, negotiation, and development (Miall 2004).

In human relationships, conflict is natural, and conflict is a catalyst for change (Lederach 2014). Lederach's rationale was to modify the status quo in order to go from a war situation to peace. Conflict transformation is accurate because it is involved in positive change initiatives that include, but are not limited to, the resolution of specific issues (Lederach 2014). Conflict resolution is regarded as a critical agent or catalyst for change (Miall 2004). Vayrynen (1991) advocates for transformation rather than resolution, emphasising the importance of comprehending how conflicts are transformed in dynamic terms. Transformation is made up by the following:

"... actor transformation, – internal changes in parties, or the appearance of new parties; issue transformations – altering the agenda of conflict issues; rule transformations – changes in the norms or rules governing a conflict; and structural transformations – the entire structure of relationships and power distribution in the conflict is transformed ..." (Vayrynen 1991).

When this is implemented, all issues that promote conflict will be turned into issues that promote peace.

Miall (2004) advocated for a re-conceptualisation of conflict resolution, stating it is more than merely the resolution of conflict. According to Lederach and other experts, conflict resolution is short-term because it focuses on ending a conflict without addressing underlying causes.

Furthermore, conflict transformation, according to Lederach (2014: 29), is a longer-term vision that goes beyond the worries of urgent demands. The majority root causes of conflict cannot be resolved, however, they can be transformed, which is why we use the phrase conflict transformation (Notter and Diamond 1996). Lederach's work, as Miall (2004) asserted, is one of the most complete statements on conflict transformation to date. Peacebuilding, according to Lederach, is a long-term transformation of a war system into a peace system, motivated by a search for the principles of peace, justice, truth, and mercy, which are often overlooked in conflict resolution.

Galtung described peace as not being a fixed reality or a predetermined goal, rather, it is something that is created. This means peacebuilding is a proactive process aimed at increasing the capacity for peace by those impacted. Miall (2004) states the primary characteristics of conflict transformation processes, are changes in the personal, structural, relational, and cultural aspects of conflict, which occur over distinct time periods (short-, mid-, and long-term) and affect different system levels at different times. As a result, peacebuilding is viewed as a structure-process.

A suitable strategy, such as networking between mid-level leaders with ties to opposing parties, is linked to an appropriate timeframe, for instance, concentrating on mid-term steps to build a peace constituency, while simultaneously embracing a vision of the desired future and an awareness of the current crisis. Lederach brought together decision-makers, social groups, churches, and the media, as well as grassroots community leaders, to draw out a national peace map. This idea was alluded to by Miall (2004) as a holistic peace process that addressed complimentary improvements at all levels. His paradigm has the advantage of broadening its perspective beyond the conflict and the conflict parties, indicating the potential to obtain peacebuilding resources from the broader population (Miall 2004).

Lederach raises the topic of sequencing in the context of conflict intervention. What form of action or intervention is suitable, by whom, and at what time? (Miall 2004). The contingency theory of Fisher and Keashly (1991) was based on the premise that the form of intervention should be suited to the stage of the conflict. In contrast to imposing third-party intervention, Lederach added intervention should be done when the opposing parties are eager to engage for peace. Lederach (1997) also discussed the need to make progress in the fight for peace by promoting justice. Conflict transformation, according to Lederach (2014: 22), therefore,

focuses on developing adaptive solutions to human conflict through change processes that improve justice and decrease violence. Justice or fairness in resolving conflicts encourages reconciliation and reduces conflict recurrence or spill over. Miall (2004) defined this as the journey from conflict to desirable goals.

When direct violence is eliminated, people experience direct peace; similarly, structural peace is realised when structural violence is eradicated. Furthermore, people can only experience cultural peace when cultural violence is rooted out. Mitigating GBV is only possible when individual mindsets and institutions are transformed. This project focused on transforming individual mindsets through education training workshops to impart knowledge on constructive attitudes and norms that encourage peace by reducing GBV on campus.

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter presented a detailed analysis of the Social Learning Theory, Ecological Theory of Violence and Conflict Transformation Theories, the theories underpinned in the study. A detailed description of GBV and related terms form part of the discussion as a foundation of the next chapter that narrows down on GBV on campus among other aspects.

CHAPTER THREE

UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE, EXTENT, CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF GBV

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Developing from the previous chapter, this chapter narrow down the nature, causes and effects of GBV. It also analyses past studies on student perceptions and attitudes towards GBV.

3.2 NATURE OF GBV

Violence directed at someone because of their gender can take many different forms, including physical, sexual, emotional, and financial assault (Alesina, Brioschi and La Ferrara 2016). An intimate spouse, family members, neighbourhood members, or strangers can all be perpetrators. Despite physical and sexual abuse identified as the most common forms of abuse in many countries, including Zimbabwe (Postmus *et al.* 2020), other forms of violence have serious consequences for victims.

TABLE 3.1: ACTIONS UNDER EACH TYPE OF VIOLENCE

Physical violence	Verbal abuse	Economic abuse	Technological violence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Punching -Slapping -Kicking -Torture -Burning -Choking -Denying people with disabilities their mobility devices -Withholding medication -Pushing someone down the stairs -Dragging someone 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Yelling and screaming at someone -Making hurtful and humiliating jokes -Excessive and unfair judgement and criticism -Spreading false rumours -Making unwanted comments (catcalling) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Preventing a woman from finding a job -Controlling a woman's finances -Withholding money for essentials such as food, medical treatment etc. -Denying women rights to own their deceased husband's properties and land -Preventing girls from going to school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Sharing sexual and violent images via social media with or without consent -Accessing someone's social accounts without their consent -Using social media, texts and emails to harass, threaten, intimidate and bully people

	-Blaming someone for what they did not do	-Paying women less money for the same role	
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Sexual violence	Cultural, religious practices and abuse	Social violence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Stalking -Rape (within or outside marriage) -Forcing someone to watch pornography -Video recording having sex without a partner's consent -Sexual humiliation -Genital mutilation -Selling women into sexual slavery -Unwanted touching -Unwanted sexual comments -Forced penetration by an object -Forcing someone into any sexual activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Making women prove their virginity -Accusation of sorcery and witchcraft -Using religion to keep a woman in subordinate positions -Traditional practices such as bride price and compensation can be violence when used to justify or not take action against VAW -Using someone's religious or spiritual beliefs to manipulate them -Preventing someone from practising their religion -Ridiculing someone's religious and spiritual beliefs -Forcing children to be raised in a faith a partner did not agree to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Threatening to expose a woman's secrets -Threatening to have a woman's children taken away -Threatening to commit suicide to stop a woman from leaving -Intentionally embarrassing a woman in public -Telling a woman she is ugly and unlovable -Telling a woman what she can and cannot wear -Stopping a woman from having friends and visiting her family

Source: UN Women (2015: 32)

3.2.1 Physical Violence

Physical violence is the most prevalent kind of domestic violence, with the World Health Organization (WHO 2012:5) defining physical violence as "the deliberate use of force in an attempt to cause impairment, harm, or death to others." As a result, physical violence encompasses punching, kicking, slapping, and hitting, along with the use of any weapon, including guns and knives, but it is not limited to this. While domestic violence is often

unintentional, the form and quantity of physical harm suffered by the victim is often used to gauge the severity of its effects.

Londt (2014) asserts physical aggression or assault by male partners against their female intimate partners are frequently the outcome of African communities' attitude towards women. Most African societies are patriarchal, which leads to male partners employing violence and physically abusing their spouses, who do not report it, because intimate violence is common in most African countries. This, according to Londt (2014), explains the high proportion of intimate physical attacks in African countries, including Zimbabwe.

Despite males being the perpetrators of physical violence in the majority documented cases, it is also crucial to emphasise women are capable of inflicting physical violence against men. According to Karakurt and Silver (2013), there are more male victims of domestic abuse than documented in official data. Men, on the other hand, rarely report or speak of domestic violence because they are afraid of being mocked and stigmatised. The tragedy of a female Fort Hare university student who attacked and murdered her boyfriend at the start of the year 2020 (Majangaza 2020), is a prominent example of females who commit physical violence against males. Scholars such as Chigwedere *et al.* (2018) suggest women often initiate physical violence as a form of self-defence.

3.2.2 Financial Abuse

Financial abuse, is defined by Postmus *et al.* (2020) as actions that exploit, disrupt, and control a person's economic and financial resources, including employment. Other scholars expand on the definition of financial abuse by suggesting it includes behaviours such as intentionally failing to pay housing rentals and mortgages, as well as any other behaviour that may lead to housing insecurity, malicious impediment with educational attainment, and malicious impediment with workforce participation (Breckenridge, Walden & Flax 2014; Valentine & Breckenridge 2016). Female participants in a study by Chigwedere *et al.* (2018) reported when female partners reported physical abuse to competent authorities, their male partners withdrew or threatened to withdraw their financial duties. Conrad and Geffner (2012) aver this type of personal violence is widespread among wealthy male partners involved in intimate relationships or even marriages with women from low-income families.

Financial abuse is less common in tertiary institutions, according to scholars, because most students and their partners share the same level of financial stability (Kelmendi 2016; Kanjiri *et al.* 2018). In Zimbabwe, though, the situation has been slightly different. A study conducted by ICODZIM (2019) found some university students are forced to cohabit with their partners to reduce their financial burdens, and some females are forced to engage in intimate relationships with staff members or local businessmen who can help them financially, due to the country's financial crisis. These kinds of partnerships/relationships are more likely to involve financial exploitation or abuse.

While the link between financial insecurity and financial abuse is growing, inconsistencies remain on an international level, because there is no consensus on how to evaluate financial abuse (Postmus *et al.* 2020). Financial insecurity is frequently misinterpreted as financial abuse, according to the researcher, because most women still believe their male partners are obligated to provide for them financially. This harkens back to patriarchal and cultural gender roles, in which men are expected to be the breadwinners (Fidan and Bui 2016). Nonetheless, other researchers claim, due to gender disparity in the workplace and access to economic opportunities, GBV has exacerbated women's financial insecurity (Braaf & Barrett-Meyering 2010; Postmus *et.al.* 2020). Women are poorer than males in most societies, notably in African countries such as Zimbabwe, due to gender imbalances, making women financially dependent on men (Mahlori, Byrne, & Mabude 2018). As a result, one may claim women become victims of financial abuse as a result of their financial circumstances

3.2.3 Emotional Abuse

Emotional abuse, as Rakovec-Felser (2014) highlighted, includes acts such as incarceration, isolation, verbal attack, and humiliation, as well as intimidation, or any other behaviour that may cause a person to lose their sense of identity, dignity, or self-worth. Psychological abuse or continuous verbal hostility are other terms for emotional abuse. People who have been emotionally abused typically have low self-esteem and exhibit personality changes such as depression, anxiety, and suicidality. The consequences of emotional abuse cannot be overstated, because victims suffer in silence and, in the majority cases, there are no visible indicators of assault. As a result, it is the most difficult form of domestic abuse to escape or break free from (Chigwedere *et.al.*, 2018).

Mutinta (2022: 4) states emotional abuse is common in higher education settings. Universities accept students from a variety of backgrounds and upbringings, with emotional abuse more likely to occur in such a setting, as students may call one another names based on tribes, nationality, sexual orientation, and culture. This intolerance for variety can emerge as emotional assault. Students tend to repress their feelings, which can lead to poor academic performance and, in severe cases, victims attempting or committing suicide (Kelmendi 2016). A survey among accounting students at GZU found certain students, particularly females, struggle to cope with their studies as a result of GBV (Chitsamatanga, Rembe & Shumba 2018b). This is most likely the effect of psychological suffering brought on by emotional abuse.

3.2.4 Sexual Abuse

Sexual abuse is described as any form of sexual assault that occurs within or outside of an intimate relationship and includes the use of violence, intimidation, or compulsion to achieve sexual activities, as well as actively acting against an individual's sexuality (Cotter & Savage 2019). Rape, sexual harassment, sexual exploitation, and human trafficking for sexual purposes are some of the most common kinds of GBV. There has been a worldwide outcry against sexual harassment of women and children. Approximately 46 percent of females in SSA have experienced forced first sexual intercourse from their intimate partners, according to Shamu *et al.* (2018).

Rape is also on the rise, with countries such as South Africa (SA) reporting a woman is raped every 36 seconds in the country (Zulu *et al.* 2018). Sexual harassment comprises unsolicited advances, verbal or physical harassment and behaviours of a sexual nature, as well as asking for sexual indulgences in the learning world. According to O'Callaghan *et al.* (2021: 1) this includes using coercion, intimidation, verbal avowal, and trickery, in addition to societal prospects or expectations, as well as economic conditions to strip a person of other options and force them into agreeing unless they want to face severe consequences.

Sivertsen *et al.* (2019: 1) documented sexual harassment as all unwanted sex-related actions considered by recipients of such behaviours as offensive and exceeding their coping mechanisms or threatening to their personal well-being. It encompasses attempted rape, unsolicited physical, verbalised, and non-verbalised sexual actions, along with sexual assault and rape (Sivertsen *et al.* 2019).

3.2.5 Technological violence

It denotes to using technology to enact harm and harassment on victims, it includes but is not limited to cyberstalking, revenge porn, sextortion, online threat, hacking and identity theft (UNESCA, 2021). This is violence committed, aided, intensified or augmented by using technological and digital tools to violate human rights and freedom. It occurs on online spaces through cyberbullying, doxing and nonconsensual sexting and offline by tracking a person's whereabouts thereby invading a person's privacy (UNFPA, 2016). This form of violence aggravates other forms of violence like IPV and rape

3.3 Extent of Gender Based Violence

GBV has become a global issue, prompting several efforts and commitments to address it. The UN has introduced a number of conventions in order to eradicate all forms of violence against women, one of which is the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), aimed at protecting women's rights and well-being in order to help curb GBV, which has become epidemic (Razavi 2016).

Despite these efforts, GBV continues to rise in many forms, including but not limited to sexual, physical, emotional and socio-economic abuse. "Gender-based violence spreads its tentacles in all spheres of life, including the workplace, politics and governance, and other aspects of life, impeding social, political, and economic development" (Perryman and Appleton 2016:387). A multi-country study by the WHO in 2013, determined one in every three women has experienced physical or sexual assault at some point in their lives. The prevalence, however, varies by area, with Africa having the highest rate at 37 percent, compared to 25 and 30 percent in Europe and the Americas, respectively.

Although GBV is a global public health and human rights concern, its prevalence in the 14 countries within the Southern African Development Community (SADC) area is particularly concerning (Morna and Chingamuka 2013). SA leads the SADC in terms of GBV statistics, and the problem has recently been dubbed the country's second pandemic, following the corona virus pandemic (Kanjiri 2020a). Zimbabwe is not immune to the scourge of GBV.

In recent years, GBV in Zimbabwe has been on the rise, according to a historical analysis. The Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey (2015), at least 85 percent of Zimbabwean women

have experienced some sort of GBV. Domestic violence disproportionately impacts women, according to UNFPA Zimbabwe (2016). GBV has increased dramatically in Zimbabwe, prompting experts such as Nyamutambwe (2015) to argue the severity of the domestic violence problem for women.

Due to the economic dependency of young women on their spouses, a study by Mukamana *et al.* (2020) that examined patterns from 2005 to 2015, found GBV experiences and vulnerability are predominant among younger age groups. GBV is more prevalent in colleges than in any other society institution, due to the higher population of young women. The Zimbabwean economic crisis has exacerbated the situation, as young women rely on their male partners for financial support, with men historically seen as providers. In many young women's relationships, this dependency inhibits autonomy, giving males more authority and control in the union (Kidman 2017).

At least 22 women are raped per day in Zimbabwe, implying at least one woman is sexually abused every hour (UNFPA Zimbabwe 2016). According to ZIMSTAT (2016), the country is experiencing an upsurge in sexual abuse, with an 81 percent increase in rape incidents between 2010 and 2016. According to the quarterly digest of statistics for the fourth quarter of 2016, at least 8 069 women were sexually abused in 2016, with young women accounting for more than 60 percent of all rape cases reported in the country each year (ZIMSTAT 2016). The high percentage of abuse among young women is particularly alarming, which helps to explain why GBV is so prevalent in Zimbabwean HTEIs.

3.4 CAUSES OF GBV

3.4.1 Systemic Causes

The patriarchal nature of society can be a systemic cause of GBV. The institutionalisation of male chauvinism in areas such as law, religion, school, and the workplace, has allowed for a systematic flow of gender dynamics that disadvantage women, weakening them and making them prone to GBV (Risal 2015). The top judicial system is male dominated; males are mostly skewed at top positions in universities where most VCs are male. The dominance of males in top positions in both governmental and private posts, affords them power to control and abuse women. In most cases, males are perceived and view themselves as more powerful than

women, because they have greater access to, and control over, resources that power and decision-making privileges afford them.

The rules, ordinances, and regulations enacted by formal social organizations are what institutionalise this authority and control over resources and choices. Patriarchism translates to gender inequality which, in turn, results in all forms of violence. The belief that girls and women have less worth is reinforced by patriarchy, and in societies dominated by patriarchy, violence against women and girls is frequently tolerated by most members of society. Male supremacy in religious systems, predominant habits, and beliefs frequently have a detrimental influence on the lives of women, and many gendered health inequalities may be attributed to it. Patriarchy also contributes to the perpetuation of gender inequality. Men use the economic privileges patriarchy affords them to coerce and intimidate women into doing what they would not do (Javed and Chattu 2020: 33).

The Duluth power and control model depicts how patriarchy leads to various forms of violence (Figure 3.1).



FIGURE 3.2: POWER AND CONTROL WHEEL DEPICTING HOW POWER RESULTS IN VIOLENCE

Source: Ali and Naylor (2013: 614).

3.4.1.1 Cultural and Social Norms

Cultural and social standards that create gender roles, as well as the unequal distribution of power between men and women, are all variables at the societal level (WHO 2012). Male sexual entitlement attitudes, prevalent in many cultures, can lead to GBV. These beliefs are used to justify the use of sexual violence by excluding the idea that a woman has the right to make autonomous decisions about sex and to refuse a man's sexual approaches (UNFPA Zimbabwe 2016).

GBV is common in many African nations, such as Zimbabwe, where male domination remains (WHO 2012). As men perceive themselves and are generally perceived by society as superior to women, they wield control over their female counterparts by physically abusing them in order to discipline them when they defy them (Odimegwu, Okemgbo and Ayila 2010). In many African societies, the payment of lobola has caused men to see their wives as their property; to the point where women are treated in any way, causing an increase in GBV (Parkes 2015).

GBV tendencies, according to Odimegwu *et al.* (2010), are rooted in the patriarchal system's institutionalised unequal power balance between men and women. Gender roles mandated by culture increase women's chances of encountering GBV, because they provide men with a sense of dominance, authority, superiority, and ownership over women (Heise 2011). A UNICEF (2013) study determined cultural belief systems lend legitimacy to violence against women in various ways. Furthermore, female spouses have been battered and sanctioned in the past due to religious and historical factors; under the concept of entitlement and ownership of women by men, females can be punished by being beaten.

It is generally understood that men's domains are dominated by possessiveness and unrivalled authority, whilst women are expected to be subservient (Odimegwu *et al.* 2010). This provides fertile ground for unequal power dynamics, contributing to women's vulnerability, to where it would be a shame for males not to discipline women, regarding themselves as culturally obligated to do so (UNDP 2014). As a result, males do not consider such actions as abusive, but rather as part of their cultural norms, which support wife assault as a show of love (Odimegwu *et al.* 2010). GBV at HEIs is, therefore, not only feminised, it is also a reflection of society at large.

The control of family wealth invariably places basic leadership expertise in the hands of men, which gives rise to male domination and restrictions on women's rights. For example, in the past, Japanese culture kept domestic violence a secret, and it was not common to speak out about husbands' aggression against their wives, under the assumption this was the proper way for men to treat their spouses (Marikkar 2007).

Allen (2013) states religions such as Christianity, Islam, and African Traditional Religion have historically emphasised male domination in society by endorsing female subjugation to husbands. Consequently, males develop a sense of entitlement that is not only possessive but

also destructive (Ndoromo & Banyanga 2019). Patriarchal strongholds remain strongly established in Zimbabwean society, as in many other African societies.

3.4.1.2 Weak Legal and Compromised Legal Institutions

It is asserted by the WHO (2012) that weak and compromised legal systems hijacked by patriarchal tendencies enable the persistence of violence against women in many countries. According to Kanjiri (2020a), the justice system is tainted, since courts favour the wealthy and famous, effectively silencing their victims. UNICEF (2013) echoes these thoughts, citing Human Rights Watch investigations that found in situations of violence against women, law enforcement officers aid abusers in their efforts to control and degrade their victims. Despite numerous countries having passed laws prohibiting GBV against women in intimate relationships, these assaults are more commonly accepted as the norm than a punished infraction. GBV abusers are frequently prosecuted and punished less harshly than perpetrators of similar violent crimes against strangers (Laura 2016).

WHO research (2012) points out Zimbabwe is not exempt. In most circumstances, legal authorities, including the police, regard IPV as a private quarrel that requires no legal action and do not indict the perpetrator, particularly when it involves emotional abuse or less severe physical assault. Husbands have sexual authority which, according to Maphosa (2018), the cultural and legal system legitimises as the concept of marital rights. When victims disclose crimes, they are also subjected to secondary victimisation, since they are blamed for their own victimisation. In most circumstances, when a female is raped by her partner, the victim is held responsible for depriving their lover conjugal rights. Being mocked and ridiculed for being victimised is also a form of secondary victimisation. In Zimbabwean universities, where there is a scarcity of university-provided housing, students cohabit in self-sought places of residence, where cohabiting is rampant. As a result, IPV among university students is rampant and occurs clandestinely due to a lack of security and oversight (Chitsamatanga, Rembe, & Shumba 2018a).

3.4.1.3 COVID-19

Covid-19 is the recent addition that has resulted in many people being victimised and experiencing all types of violence. The impacts of the pandemic are worse for the girl child, as many girls were not sent back to school due to financial challenges. Staying at home resulted in childhood pregnancies and responsibilities being shifted to young girls to take care of the

sick, particularly in rural areas. Close to 60 percent adolescent girls in East Africa stopped attending school because they became pregnant during the pandemic. In addition, the loss of care givers and parents to the pandemic led to a prevalence in adolescent sexual abuse and exploitation and consequently, HIV (UN 2022: 10).

Increased cases of domestic violence were found in Zimbabwe during COVID-19, with more cases of abuse reported per day and in excess of 11 000 cases of domestic violence reported from May to September 2020, as people were forced to stay together for months (UN Zimbabwe 2020). Physical violence also increased, as the army and police were beating people who were in violation of government imposed Covid restrictions. Covid-related interruptions to learning structures further worsened access and intensified education disparities for susceptible groups of girls and young women (ibid). Police and army brutality also led to increased complications for women, who were scared to go seek medical attention.

3.4.2 Immediate Causes

Robinson-Tyrance (2013) highlighted when a person is exposed to forms of violence within the family structure, it increases their chances of becoming either a perpetrator or victim of GBV (Collins 2014). This is in line with the SLT, which states behaviour is a learned phenomenon that may be acquired by observing role models. Albert Bandura created the social learning hypothesis in 1973. He claimed, as with any other behaviour, violence is learnt, either directly or indirectly, and then reinforced throughout childhood and adulthood as a stress-coping mechanism or a technique of dispute resolution. As a result, those who are exposed to violence at a young age are more likely to also become abusers (Usher & Schunk 2018).

The National Institute for Justice Survey (2009) added a person's perception of good and wrong behaviour, as well as how they react to it, is shaped by their early life experiences. As a result, witnessing violence, particularly unreported violence, may lead an individual to believe violence in relationships is normal. The victim may acquire victim coping mechanisms, such as silence and submissiveness, symptoms of Stockholm syndrome, in which victims form a connection to the perpetrator (Logan 2018). Due to the high rates of violence in Zimbabwean society, a large number of people are exposed to violence at a young age, making them potential future victims or perpetrators of GBV (Katembo 2015).

3.4.2.1 Personality Traits

Sijtsema, Boan, and Bogaerts (2014) assert personality factors play a role in GBV, since certain people exhibit dominating behaviour patterns. Furthermore, the authors state most male perpetrators of physical abuse against women have antisocial personality traits, whereas those with borderline personalities abused their spouses in general, with only a few incidences of physical abuse. Further to this, individuals with borderline personality features are most likely to engage in psychological abuse. In addition, most women with neurotic personality qualities were found to frequently be victims of GBV, because they are unable to become more communicative or confiding, making them more vulnerable to further abuse. Their abusers will be aware that they are unable to speak up and will, therefore, treat them unfairly (Sijtsema *et al.* 2014).

3.4.2.2 Alcohol Abuse

Alcohol abuse is both a cause and effect of GBV. Some people abuse alcohol and substances as a result of being victimised and as a way of trying to numb their pain, while others become violent once intoxicated. The WHO (2016) emphasises the link between alcohol misuse and GBV. When someone is under the influence of alcohol, their ability to calmly resolve issues within relationships has a direct impact on their cognitive functioning, leading to violent conflict resolution. Soper (2014) agrees with the WHO results, stating men seeking treatment for substances such as alcohol, cocaine, or marijuana, are more likely to be physically aggressive to their female partners. According to Carney *et al.* (2017), women who use alcohol or other substances such as marijuana can become verbally confrontational towards their relationships, attracting aggression from male partners. They add this not only draws aggressive behaviour from men, women can also use weapons to physically attack men.

3.4.2.3 Education

The majority studies that examine the causes of GBV have found poor levels of education play a significant role in violence against women. Less educated and rural girls in most African nations are vulnerable to abuse, according to Desalegne (2019), since they are unaware of their rights and monetarily dependent on their abusive spouses. Mutanana and Bukaliya (2015) make an additional point; men who lack education are more likely to engage in violence against women, because they will continue to cling to traditional views, while being unaware of the changing environment of equal rights for all. It is asserted by Muluneh *et al.* (2020) that a more educated culture is less likely to have more incidences of GBV than a less educated society.

According to Marium (2014), low levels of GBV among the educated are due to the idea that communication skills improve with higher levels of education; therefore, those with lower levels of education may rely on violence, due to a lack of communication skills to properly communicate anger and frustration. This is consistent with Chitsamatanga and Rembe (2020), who claim a man's level of education protects him from GBV in the majority of situations. In most African societies, a man's strong educational achievements tend to shield women from violence by helping to resist cultural norms that support male dominance (Chitsamatanga and Rembe 2020).

This does not, however, rule out the possibility of violence against women in highly educated societies. Parkes (2015), however, claims education and culture are incompatible for African men. This could explain why, despite students being educated and expected to conduct themselves differently, GBV appears to be common at colleges. Women have become self-conscious and well aware of their rights in the face of the wave of female emancipation, and this may present a danger to men's status and power as provided to them by culture (Risal 2015).

3.4.2.4 Lack of Satisfaction in the Relationship

Conflicts and dissatisfaction in a relationship are only a few of the factors that might lead to violence between intimate partners. This is stated by Jewkes (2012), who claims recurrence of verbal disagreements in a relationship and high levels of conflict eventually develop into physical abuse. In most relationships, violence is used as a method to frighten the other person and to express anger. Not surprisingly, the risk of violence in intimate relationships is quite high when there is instability, such as when one partner considers quitting the relationship. After ending a relationship, most females are more likely to be pursued and mistreated by their ex-partner (Nyamutambwe 2015).

According to Jewkes (2012), discontent with a relationship is most often caused by preconceptions emerging from the male side, as there are specific features that identify "ideal women". Dowry disputes, female sterilisation, and the ability to bear male children are all elements that lead to discontent with partnerships researched in South India. In Zimbabwe, however, having several partners, partying, and arguing about their partner's drinking habits are all elements that lead to dissatisfaction with the relationship, particularly in colleges (Fidan & Bui 2016).

3.4.2.5 Financial Challenges

GBV can also be due to financial difficulties. Jewkes (2012) adds financial difficulties can cause stress, which can lead to men venting their emotions on women. While financial stress is not unique to men, it has been linked to GBV. This is because 'ideal manhood' is associated with provision, therefore, when men fail to provide, their egos are damaged, leading to frustration, which can be shifted onto women, particularly when the female partner expects the man to be the breadwinner (Muderedzi *et al.* 2019).

Breuer and Elson (2017) made a similar argument, claiming economic hardships could lead to violence against women. They cited the Frustration-Aggression theory of violence to substantiate their claim, explaining how stress from financial difficulties can escalate to violence. The hypothesis describes how frustrations and anger are linked. When something stands in the way of a person's achievement of a desired objective, they become frustrated. As a result, there is some type of aggression directed against the persons in the immediate vicinity. Aggression could take the form of physical or verbal violence. Kanjiri (2020a) has similar ideas, claiming GBV in impoverished societies is caused by rage and frustration, with the powerful (men) preying on the weak (women).

3.4.2.6 Infidelity Relationships

Disloyalty in marriage is substantially associated with physical violence (Conroy 2014). This is due to two major factors. Initially, women who find their partners are having an affair may lash out in anger and disappointment at their partners. Nevertheless, after being confronted with their infidelity, men may resort to violence to silence their spouses, particularly when the female partner threatens to leave the marriage. This is ubiquitous in Rwandan and Tanzanian society, according to Conroy (2014), and applies to many African societies, including Zimbabwe. There have been numerous examples in Zimbabwe, of men murdering or injuring their spouses on the basis of infidelity claims, or when their partners abandon them for another male companion (Matthews, Jewkes and Abrahams 2015). As a result, it is obvious infidelity in partnerships is a contributing factor to IPV.

3.5 CONSEQUENCES OF GBV

The implications of GBV are far-reaching, as they affect not only the victims of GBV, but also entire societies. GBV has been shown to have physical, psychological, emotional, and behavioural effects on survivors' health and well-being.

3.5.1 Physical effects

Permanent and temporary injuries, such as loss of sight, wounds, broken bones, disfiguring and damage to internal organs, are among the physical harms that may come from GBV (American Psychiatric Association 2013; Peta 2017). GBV in Zimbabwe has resulted in multiple undesired pregnancies and STDs such as HIV in victims of sexual assault (Shamu *et al.* 2018). According to the UNAIDS (2011), women who have been subjected to sexual violence by their partners are 55 percent more likely to develop HIV than women who have not been subjected to such treatment. From this perspective, one may claim infidelity is one of the contributing elements to GBV in intimate relationships. Another serious consequence of domestic violence is the loss of life. There have been reported incidents of people being brutally murdered by strangers, as well as people being slain by their intimate companions (Kanjiri 2020b).

3.5.2 Emotional and psychological effects

Increase in homicide by intimate partners and strangers has caused a great deal of trauma, wrath, anxiety, and animosity among the victims' relatives and friends, as well as the general public, who may flee in fear of being the next victims. This has been the situation in SA, where the country has expressed resentment and outrage on all social media platforms in response to the rising number of incidences of GBV (Kanjiri 2020b; Ndlovu 2018). Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), significant depression, complex trauma, and fear, alongside anxiety, self-blame, suicidal thoughts, and generalised anxiety disorders are all symptoms of GBV (Rakovec-Felser 2014). Many rape victims experience PTSD, sadness, and anxiety, which can lead to suicidal ideation (Desalegne 2019). For many women, the psychological impact of GBV is worse than the physical injury. GBV has a significant impact on women's confidence, self-esteem, and risky sexual activities, as well as increasing their vulnerability to behavioural issues, such as substance abuse.

3.5.3 Economic effects

GBV has ramifications for the country's economy as well as the global economy. This is due to the necessity to provide resources to services that aid victims, such as health care institutions, social service providers who provide counselling, and the legal system (Van Der Merwe 2015). Individuals who suffer permanent physical injuries due to domestic abuse may be unable to find work, causing the economy to suffer as a result of their incapacity to work. SA, for example, has reported spending a large amount of money on child support grants (Heinrich, Hoddinott & Samson 2017). From this perspective, one may claim unintended births as a result of sexual abuse, such as rape and forced sexual activities, have increased the number of children receiving child support grants, putting pressure on the country's budget.

3.5.4 Social effects

Victims of violence often resort to social isolation due to shame and fear of stigmatisation and loss of social status. Domestic violence has exacerbated gender imbalances in society, as women are still considered the inferior gender (Sande 2019). This is because it is widely assumed men are the perpetrators of violence and women are the victims. As a result, males employ a variety of tactics to maintain control over females, including imposing emotional, financial, and physical dependence (Baholo *et al.* 2015). As these methods instil fear in women, they keep them from questioning men's behaviour toward them; it is thus no surprise many women struggle to leave violent relationships.

Moreover, despite men perpetrating the majority domestic violence against women, experts have recently recognised men can also be victims of domestic violence and suffer emotional and physical effects (Randle & Graham 2011). Males who have experienced GBV are more likely to suffer from depression and PTSD, according to a study conducted by Masho and Anderson (2009) in academic institutions. As a result, GBV in tertiary education affects both genders and is most likely to have the same outcomes. A study at the University of Witwatersrand in 2013, found a number of students are forced to change colleges or degrees, drop out of school, and some victims exhibit a deterioration in academic performance as a result of GBV. As a result, it is clear GBV victims in post-secondary institutions suffer negative consequences.

3.6 UNIVERSITY CAMPUS GBV

HTEIs create a distinctive collection of risks for female students, ranging from being exposed to, and experiences of violence such as IPV/dating violence, sexual assault and abuse (UN Women 2018: 5). Humphreys and Towl (2020: 10) posit the age group highly likely to experience GBV is from 16 to 24 years. Institutions of higher learning produce valuable and skilled human resources, and these become of great importance if their competencies are accompanied by disciplined attitudes, values, and behaviours. Universities are highly sexualised spaces and many young people become sexually active upon arrival at university (Treffy-Goatley et al. 2018) as they will be exploring their new freedom from families. Universities have long been seen as safe havens where men and women can gain academic and professional skills, while also furthering their quest for knowledge in a secure and protected setting. Unfortunately, a variety of studies have shown various forms of GBV have infiltrated Zimbabwean campuses, with negative consequences (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001; Murai 2015; Shumba and Matina 2002). GBV is defined as any act of violence that causes or is likely to cause physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivations of liberty, whether in public or private life, according to the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women.

GBV and sexual harassment, particularly sexual harassment of female students by male lecturers, fellow male students, and non-academic male staff, are common on university campuses, according to a baseline survey conducted by the Female Students Network Trust (FSNT) in 2015 (Murai 2015). In a similar vein, Mashava (2015: 1) claimed universities have become hotbeds for GBV and sex predators. University campuses, according to Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001), are no longer safe environments for students. In addition, GBV is found to be more prevalent among female students than male students (Munando 2015, Matsikudze 2017). Mukwidigwi (2018: 6) expressed similar findings, stating female students make up the majority victims of GBV, with perpetrators primarily being male students, university employees, and outsiders within student groups.

Sexual harassment is not unheard of at tertiary institutions. As highlighted by the findings of a study conducted by Oni and Tshitangano (2019) in South African post-secondary institutions, both male and female victims had suffered sexual abuse at some point. Reportedly, 18 percent of males and 26 percent of females had been touched without their consent; one percent of

males and three percent of females had been raped; and 11 percent of males and 10 percent of females had been pressured into a sexual connection at their institutions (Oni & Tshitangano 2019).

3.6.1 NATURE OF GBV IN ZIMBABWEAN UNIVERSITIES

3.6.1.1 Student to student GBV

This type of GBV is performed among students, as the name implies. According to a study by Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001), men students are the primary offenders of this form of violence. Nevertheless, GBV takes many forms and degrees, including physical, sexual, verbal, and psychological abuse.

3.6.1.2 Student to Student Sexual Violence

Male university students have been accused of sexual harassment and assault against female classmates (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 39). In addition, girls are jeered while wearing short and exposing clothing, while the authors also discovered that leering, gazing, passing sexual comments, and name calling are all prevalent behaviours perpetrated by males toward females. Furthermore, male students are accused of sexually harassing female students in queues, taking advantage of the strained situation (Munando 2015, Masvawure 2010, Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 40).

In many cases of student-to-student sexual violence female students are, however, held responsible for sexual harassment because of their preferred attire. For their anguish, university society tends to designate them as co-authors. This is described by male students as alluring, provocative, exposing, and “man-manipulative attire” that leads to sexual abuse (The New Zimbabwe 2019: 1). Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001: 46) noted how male students interpret this type of violence, stating that 5.1 percent of male student participants agreed wearing a short skirt or tight jeans causes sexual harassment of female students.

Sexual violence in intimate relationships has also been perpetrated against female university students (Mukwidigwi 2018; Katsande 2008). According to research conducted by Murai 2015, 46 percent of female students had been raped in relationships with male students. Female students are pushed to engage in sexual behaviour by their partners (students) without their consent in the name of love (Mukwidigwi 2018: 76). Further to this, female students are found

to be sexually assaulted by their boyfriends, as determined by Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001), especially when they participate in sleepovers at the boy's house or at lodges.

There have also been instances where female students have been made inebriated, and their boyfriends have taken advantage of the situation (Mukwidigwi 2018). Disturbingly, a large number of female university students are sexually assaulted on campus by their intimate partners (Clowes *et al.* 2009; Gordon and Collins 2013; Katsande 2008; Mosime, Ntshwarang and Mookodi 2012; Tora *et al.* 2009; Zindi 1994). Surprisingly, Mukwidigwi (2018: 78) revealed this type of violence has become accepted as part of the courting process.

According to studies, there is a growing trend in sexual violence among students perpetrated by male friends or co-workers. It has been discovered that male acquaintances either overstep their bounds or engage in flirtatious relationships with the females but end up sexually abusing them. Unwanted sexual stroking of the body, particularly private parts such as the breasts and buttocks, spiking beverages or cakes with drugs or alcohol, forced sexual intercourse, and unwanted fondling, along with kissing, were among the sexually coercive behaviours reported by research participants (Mukwidigwi 2018: 77). One of the victim-participants in Mukwidigwi's (2018) study suffered this type of abuse while visiting a friend at a boarding-house, where, while they were watching a movie, he forcibly kissed and touched her, as well as attempted to have sexual relations with her, which she resisted.

Baseline research conducted by Murai, 2015 indicated 43 percent of female students (colleagues) reported being forced into unprotected sex in sexual encounters with male students (colleagues), frequently after being made inebriated on an outing. There is an undercurrent of vulnerability among female university students to this type of male-on- female sexual violence (Mosime *et al.* 2012: 8).

3.6.1.3 Student to Student Physical Violence

Physical aggression is also tolerated in higher education settings. Most of the time, female students are the victims (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 39). Female students are also victims of physical violence from their spouses, according to the ICODZIM (2019). Usually, female students hide this type of violence, claiming they are embarrassed when people find out they are being physically abused by their boyfriends, as well as fearing he (boyfriend) will be suspended from the university, because violence in most universities results in expulsion. In an

example of violence, a female student at Catholic University lost her ear in a domestic altercation with her boyfriend, as reported by Murai (2015: 6).

3.6.1.4 Student to Student Psychological Violence

Sexual violence and physical violence both result in psychological violence, according to studies by Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001), Katsande (2008), Mupando (2015), and Masvawure (2010). Name-calling and prejudice directed at girls, as demonstrated in studies by Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001) and Shumba and Matina (2002), is a type of psychological assault. In summary, GBV causes deep-seated psychological difficulties in students, such as stress, trauma, the development of phobias in men, and rage disorders (Murai 2015: 10).

3.6.2 University Personnel to Student GBV

3.6.2.1 Lecturer to Student Sexual Violence

Lecturer–student sexual harassment in HTEIs mainly manifests as a hostile environment and *quid pro quo* (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018: 3). *Quid pro quo* means “something for something” (Cadena 2007). It infers threats or bribery for sexual gratification in making educational-related decisions. In the university context, *quid pro quo* sexual harassment occurs when a lecturer preconditions the granting of financial or academic benefits upon receiving sexual benefits from the student. The lecturer can even punish the student for rejecting to yield to his sexual demands. In some social situations, *quid pro quo* is construed as sexual coercion/blackmail.

Finchilescu and Dugard (2018: 3) add that an aggressive sexual environment occurs when a lecturer creates an environment so filled with undesirable, sexually focused behaviour that a person’s sensible comfort/capacity to function is altered. It is epitomised by filthy jokes, statements, and touching, which impede academic performance or create a threatening, unfriendly, or violent environment. A hostile environment is occasionally understood as gender harassment or unsolicited sexual attention. This perception may be overly constrained, because many sexually annoying actions that are not criminal are, nonetheless, stressing and detrimental to the victim and their organization (Shumba and Matina 2002).

Institutions of higher learning have long been thought to be places of learning, equity, and empowerment; yet, sexual assault, both explicit and implicit, is increasingly becoming a feature of these settings (Mukwidigwi 2018: 3). HEIs have become "hot sites" for gendered violence

and sexual coercion, rather than the ivory towers of the past (Fisher *et al.* 2000: 1; Joseph 2015: 126). Male lecturers in Zimbabwe have been accused of sexually harassing female students (Muchena 2013; Shumba and Matina 2002), with sexual harassment of female students by lecturers having become a severe social issue in schools and HEIs (Shumba and Matina 2002). Lecturers are expected to operate *in loco parentis* for the learners within their institutions, yet they have become predators, sexually abusing them (Zindi 1994; Zindi & Shumba 1999; Muchena 2013).

Female college students in Zimbabwe are regularly coerced into unprotected sex by lecturers for various reasons, according to The Standards (2015) booklets. Several investigations have further discovered that lecturers (often males) abuse their authority to manipulate students by using grades as a bargaining chip to obtain sexual favours (Edwards-Jauch 2012; Katsande 2008; Tlou 2014; Zindi 1994). According to reports, a significant number of female students have sex with lecturers in order to improve their marks (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 42). According to Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke's study, 20,3 percent of female students participate in sex for grades. In Liberian Universities, sex for grades is also common (Sjogren and Dorph 2014). In addition, some lecturers make sexually explicit comments to female students on a regular basis (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 45).

Lecturers are also known to make it a condition of a student's success in college to submit to sexual advances (Shumba and Matina 2002: 47). During focus groups, both male and female students expressed regret that male instructors saw sex with female students as part of their supplemental employment benefits, similar to a medical aid, in the context of low and frequently delayed salaries. Mashava (2015) defined HEIs as a sex predators' hunting place. Mpofu (2018: 1) failed to have pleasant words for these academics referring to them as “boorish male chauvinists” who are abusing female students at institutes of higher learning and must cease such appalling behaviours, due to worrisome reports of lecturers abusing students.

Female students have been criticised for their appearance, which has resulted in lecturers insulting them (The New Zimbabwe 2019: 1). Furthermore, they have been accused of using attire and office visits to seduce lecturers in some situations. One of the variables leading to students being abused by instructors has been recognised as poverty among female students. In this case, a lecturer may be seen as a source of financial gain, yet the relationship leads to

student sexual abuse (Shumba and Matina 2002: 49). Students will be vulnerable to giving in without consent in such a setting (Mukwidigwi 2018).

It appears there are few examples of female lecturers sexually harassing male students (Shumba and Matina 2002: 56). In African culture, the thought of a female lecturer assaulting or sexually harassing male students is not easily tolerated (Zindi & Shumba 1999). This could explain why reports of male students being sexually harassed by female teachers are rarely reported to authorities. Another factor could be that male students see such interactions with female teachers as a win for them (Shumba 1999; Zindi & Shumba 1999). As a result, there is a great likelihood of female lecturers abusing male pupils, yet such incidents are rarely reported, but rather, applauded. As Shumba and Matina (2002) point out, female lecturers rarely sexually abuse male pupils, which they ascribe to African culture, which views such behaviour as unacceptable.

3.6.2.2 Sports Personnel to Female Student Sexual Violence

University athletic events have been identified as providing very favourable environments for sexual coercion (Muchena and Mapfumo 2012; Muchena 2015; Sarpong 2015). According to Sarpong (2015: 124), university sporting activities are characterised by high degrees of physical contact. They are also typically male-dominated, with unequal gender ratios and unquestionable authority figures (ibid.). Unwanted sexual contact and manipulation into forced sex are common in such situations, which provide fertile ground for sexual coercion against female students (Mukwidigwi 2018). University sportswomen were also victims of sexual coercion perpetrated by male coaches, administrators, and peer athletes, according to Muchena and Mapfumo (2012) and Muchena (2015). All of this explain the condition of female students, who are also subjected to gender-based abuse in sports.

3.6.2.3 University security personnel to female student GBV

In a study conducted at the University of Zimbabwe, Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001) discovered security officers known as Green Bombers are harassing students physically and psychologically. Students who have not paid their tuition are forcibly removed from lectures, students are detained for no apparent reason, and barred from accessing test rooms, according to these researchers. This kind of violence is either gender-biased or gender-blind. Because of the risk of reprisal, security personnel treat male students with concern, whereas female students are treated casually (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 39)

3.6.2.4 Intergenerational sexual violence towards female students

Intergenerational sexual relationships are presumed to be prevalent among university students, that is, when students date outside of the university (Gukurume 2011; Masvawure 2010; Mosime *et al.* 2012). University students are said to enter these partnerships in order to gain financial, social, and material benefits, and in the majority of cases, they date older men who represent uneven power relations, which usually result in sexual abuse of the weaker (female students) (Mukwidigwi 2018). Coercive sexual practices are linked to these partnerships (Mukwidigwi 2018: 21), echoing findings by Shumba, Mapfumo and Chademana (2011: 55), that in an unequal exchange setting, young female adults' bargaining power for safe sex is severely weakened. Female students who take money, gifts, and other items are forced to perform sexual favours against their will in exchange for material or monetary items (Mukwidigwi 2018: 21). Female students are thus forced to engage in compensatory sex, which is a form of sexual violence.

3.7 REPORTING

It has been discovered there is substantial under-reporting of all forms of GBV among university students (Murai 2015). Despite sexual harassment among tertiary students being quite common, many students choose to remain silent for a variety of reasons, including fear of failure, victimisation or prejudice, and ignorance of the abuse. The vast majority female students who had encountered GBV or sexual harassment claimed they would not report it to the authorities (94 percent). Most (63.5 percent) stated they had told someone (a family member, a friend, an intimate partner, a roommate, or a fellow church member) about it (Munando 2015; Murai 2015). When their rights are being violated, women do not speak up (The New Zimbabwe 2019: 1). GBV and sexual coercion against female students has, therefore, become commonplace, resulting in violations of female sexual rights and safety (Mukwidigwi 2018: 1).

The lack of defined policies dealing with GBV among institutions of higher learning, according to Shumba and Matina (2002: 47), leads to under-reporting. On university campuses, a lack of adequate systems for reporting and dealing with sexual coercion prevents victims from speaking out, contributing to its normalisation (Mukwidigwi 2018: 36). Furthermore, the authorities take little, if any, action against perpetrators of sexual harassment, adding another reason most respondents do not swiftly report incidences of sexual harassment to the

administration. In such a circumstance, abusers have fertile ground to continue abusing their power and forcing female students to comply with their demands. Moreover, it shows many female students suffer in silence, because they are afraid of being victimised by male lecturers during their studies (Shumba and Matina 2002: 58).

Female students expressed concern with regard to being recognised as victims of GBV as a result of reporting, claiming that doing so could jeopardise their present and future romantic relationships and social image, as well as expose them to campus gossip and increased male student abuse (Munando 2015, Murai 2015). This has been noted as the fear of negative publicity by researchers such as Masvawure (2010), and Matsikudze (2017), Munando (2015). One of the causes of under-reporting, according to Zindi (1994: 182), is the fear of victimisation. “How can one report sexual harassment by a lecturer without fear of being victimized when the principal or head of department is also complicit in the same thing?” one respondent is reported as saying (Matsikudze 2017). As a result, under all these circumstances, the cycle of GBV may continue.

On university campuses, GBV is rarely reported to authorities, making it impossible to assess the problem's prevalence and, as a result, attempts to prevent it (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018). One of the most common causes for underreporting, according to victims, is a lack of knowledge on what to do. A victim is unsure where to file a complaint, who to contact, and what procedures to follow - in short, there is a lack of clarity regarding institutional procedures (Davids 2020: 6). Furthermore, shame, fear of being harshly judged by parents, relatives, friends, and the community, as well as stigma, and revenge attacks from the perpetrators can all contribute to underreporting (Iliyasu *et al.* 2011).

3.8 CASES OF GBV IN ZIMBABWEAN UNIVERSITIES

GBV in higher education is disguised, according to studies, and only a few occurrences are recorded. An example is where a lecturer at GZU in Masvingo was suspended after being found in a compromising situation with a married female student, just to offer a synopsis of reported and recorded occurrences (Mpofu 2018: 1). RK Makadho, the dean of students at Bindura University of Science Education (BUSE), stated the university has a sexual harassment policy and does not accept mistreatment of female students, and it has parted ways with three academics implicated in sexual harassment incidents (The Patriot 2016). Hundreds of students

at the Catholic University of Zimbabwe (CUZ) staged a protest at the institution's Bulawayo campus in 2018, accusing the college administration of failing to reign in teachers who had been accused of soliciting sexual favours from female students in exchange for grades (Newsday 2 November 2018). For instance, in a domestic altercation with her lover, a female student at Women's University in Africa lost her ear (Murai 2015: 6).

3.9 EXTENT OF GBV IN ZIMBABWEAN UNIVERSITY

According to a 2015 baseline research conducted by the Female Students Network Trust (FSNT Zimbabwe), a non-profit membership-based organization that works with young women in tertiary education, 97 percent of female students had been sexually harassed (Murai, 2015) The baseline survey, undertaken with help from the Czech Embassy and the Students and Academics International Help Fund in universities, polytechnics, and teachers' colleges, included 10 higher institutions and included 3 425 students and staff. Findings supported students' assertions that GBV as well as sexual harassment were rampant on campus, including sexual harassment of female students by male lecturers, fellow students, and non-academic male staff (Munando 2015).

The key findings from the 2015 FSNT Zimbabwe study include the fact that 94 percent of the 2 114 female students who completed the questionnaire said they had experienced sexual harassment (Murai, 2015). A further 16 percent of female students who had experienced sexual harassment reported they had been raped by male students, while five percent said they had been raped by male lecturers and non-academic employees. Date rape was reported by 13 percent of female students in relationships with older males (lecturers and non-academic employees) and 46 percent of male students (The New Zimbabwe 2019). In sexual interactions with professors, 16 percent said they were forced into unprotected sex; 10 percent said they were forced into unprotected sex with non-academic employees, and 43 percent said they were forced into unprotected sex with male students. During date outings, 32 percent of female students said they were persuaded into drinking alcohol or injecting drugs by older men (lecturers and non-academic employees) and then sexually assaulted. During date outings with male students, 48 percent of female students said the same thing (Munando 2015; Murai 2015).

In the previous year, 64 percent of male students claimed they had given money or presents in exchange for sex, while 42 percent of female students said they had received money or gifts in

exchange for sex. In focus group talks, men claimed they would resort to violence if their partners refused to have sex with them or had sex with someone else after they had 'invested' in female students. In addition, 74 percent of female students received 'favours' (high grades/marks, extra academic help, and study aids) from lecturers, and 83 percent received 'favours' (food, lodging, transportation, and money) from non-academic staff and students, all in exchange for sex or sexual relationships. Unwanted physical contact (touching, patting, and hugging) was reported by 67 percent of lecturers, non-academic staff, and students. Most male students made improper comments about female student gender and sexuality, with 93 percent reporting caustic criticism of their weight, physical parts such as breasts and buttocks, skin colour, haircut, cosmetics, and attire (Murai 2015).

3.9.1 Causes

Previous research in the field of higher and tertiary education has revealed universities and colleges in Africa and around the world are not immune to societal sexual coercion (Masvawure 2010; Matsikudze 2017). Sexual coercion at these institutions is inextricably linked to widespread sexual violence throughout society (Mukwidigwi 2018: 3). As a result, university campuses can be thought of as microcosms reflecting the wider society's GBV, with a spill over impact from the societies' GBV (Munando 2015). One of the causes of GBV in universities has been identified as power relationship dynamics. Lecturers mistreat female students because of power relations or the control they wield over them (Shumba and Matina 2002). Similarly, boyfriends or other male peers believe they are superior and abuse female students as a result (Munando 2015). Female students are more vulnerable to GBV and coercive sexual engagement due to these power imbalances (Mukwidigwi 2018).

“Patriarchy also has a hand in increasing gender-based violence at institutions of higher learning” (Mama 2003: 101; Mosime *et al.* 2012: 48), which reflects that patriarchal, sexual, and gender dynamics pervade African universities. It was noted that male privilege and hegemony were prevalent in African university settings, with power imbalances leading to the vulnerability of female students to GBV (Bennet *et al.* 2005). Within such patriarchal systems, Shepard (2010, cited in Ayiera 2010: 12), found masculinity is shown in aggression, militarisation, assertiveness, and power wielding, whilst femininity is expressed in weakness, submission, and submitting to power.

On university campuses, drugs and alcohol have been implicated as variables in sexual coercion, with numerous research studies having determined that substance addiction is a contextual element linked to sexual coercion among college students (Mukwidigwi 2018: 30). According to Munando (2015), as well as Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001), the majority sexual abuse victims were given drugs by their abusers. Furthermore, heavy episodic drinking was linked to experiences of compelled sex, as brought to light in research by Choudhry *et al.* (2014). The offenders and victims of sexual violence in this study both had significant levels of alcohol and drug misuse. Krebs *et al.* (2008), French *et al.* (2015), and Mehra *et al.* (2015) all found similar results. According to a study conducted by French *et al.* (2015) at Missouri University, sexual coercion was linked to increased alcohol consumption. This concurs with the study by Krebs *et al.* (2008), where the majority incapacitated sexual coercion victims (89 percent) admitted to consuming alcohol and being intoxicated prior to being victimised. Sexual assault as a result of substance misuse takes several forms (Krebs *et al.* 2007).

The national constitution contains the Protocol on the Multi-Sectoral Management of Sexual Violence and Abuse in Zimbabwe (Justice Service Commission 2012), and the Domestic Violence Act of 2007 (Zimbabwe 2006) are among the laws and policies enacted in Zimbabwe to combat GBV. However, there are few legal and regulatory protections in Zimbabwean tertiary institutions that deal with sexual coercion (Munando 2015). Only the country's labour laws contain existing legal structures (*ibid.*). As pointed out by Matsikidze (2017), Zimbabwean labour laws are insufficient in terms of content, and there is a lack of clear policy and unique procedures for detecting and resolving cases of sexual harassment. He also highlighted the Labour Act lacks mechanisms for grievance proceedings, counselling, and compensation procedures (*ibid.*). Furthermore, the country's tertiary institutions are also falling behind in terms of establishing sexual harassment regulations (Mupando 2015). In academic settings, these policy gaps can fuel and encourage sexual harassment (Mukwidigwi 2018).

According to Shumba and Matina (2002: 49), the presence of poverty among female students is also a cause for sexual harassment. Students are persuaded and pushed into sexual intercourse because instructors are perceived as sources of financial gain. The absence of tertiary subsidies, which would have covered transportation, housing, food, and tuition, was cited by the ICODZIM (2019) as aggravating the risk of GBV among students.

3.9.2 Effects of GBV

The detrimental effects of sexual assault in colleges are well documented, because it is a risk factor of psychological and physical health. The effects extend to affecting the academic performance of students, since they are more likely to participate in dangerous behaviours such as drug abuse, which impedes their concentration on schoolwork. These students are also highly likely to be involved in unsafe sex risk-taking, likely to result in unwanted pregnancies and increased chances of contracting HIV (Bergenfeld *et al.* 2021).

GBV impacts victims' educational processes and outcomes, insofar as many students abandoning their studies, according to Mugovera (2016: 1), because they are unable to cope with the heavy burden of GBV, particularly when perpetrated by lecturers. There have also been cases where students who refuse to date or offer sexual favours to lecturers fail the module or course taught by that lecturer (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 40). A study by Murai (2015: 10) established low focus in school, loss of interest in studies, low self-esteem, and departure from academic interests are all common among GBV victims. Frequently, victims of GBV and sexual coercion suffer a significant loss in academic performance, transfer to other schools, or drop out of university (Jordan *et al.* 2014; Mengo and Black 2015). Since sexual coercion prevents full participation in academic programmes, this results in a drop in academic achievement for victims of GBV and sexual coercion (Muasya 2014). GBV has a negative impact on these young women's education and employment prospects (UNESCO 2017).

GBV among students has been shown to be harmful to the victim's health (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 39). This pandemic has ravaged victims in HTEIs, through sexually transmitted illnesses, bodily damage, and unprepared motherhood (Murai 2015: 10). According to a study conducted in Ethiopia, sexually abused Ethiopian women are nearly twice as likely to carry HIV (Hassen and Deyassa 2013). Moreover, Takele and Setegn (2014) determined that victims of GBV suffered from regular headaches, a lack of appetite, insomnia, and reproductive health issues, such as genital injuries, genital swelling, and atypical vaginal discharge.

In addition, sexual coercion is linked to poor mental health outcomes in university students (Agardh, Odberg-Pettersson, and Östergren 2012; Mengo and Black 2015). Women who have been sexually pressured are also much more prone to have major depressive episodes or PTSD, according to the American Psychiatric Association (APA 1994). A World Bank (1993) report noted sexual violence caused as much ill health and death in women aged 15–44 years as cancer

and more than malaria and traffic accidents combined, describing the severity of GBV on women's lives.

It is argued that GBV causes long-term psychological issues in university students (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001: 39). For men, GBV causes stress, trauma, and the development of phobias (Murai 2015: 10). According to recent studies, female victims of sexual harassment become susceptible and express tremendous hatred toward their offenders or all males in their immediate environment (Munando 2015). Mashiri and Mawire (2013: 100) point out the trauma of sexual coercion, GBV, and assault experienced by women and girls at various phases of their lives, leaves them with irreversible loss of self-worth and autonomy, as well as causing them to accept victimisation as a normal aspect of being a female. Munando (2015), in a study conducted in Zimbabwean tertiary institutions, found victims of GBV and sexual coercion become targets of gossip, disparaging information, and speculation on campus. University students who are stigmatised must deal with feelings of hopelessness and helplessness, which have negative consequences for their general health and well-being (Mukwidigwi 2018). Future sexual or relationship lives are also highly likely to be ruined.

Sexual coercion was found to have negative consequences to young women's relationships and sex lives, described in a study by Jeffrey (2014). Female victims of GBV and sexual coercion were said to have difficulty trusting men, and that sex was the primary incentive for entering partnerships. Sexual coercion caused relationship problems in this study, which led to conflicts in couples and, in severe situations, relationship break-ups. GBV and sexual coercion resulted in several sexual partners and inconsistent condom use in a study by Agardh *et al.* (2011) of Ghanaian university students. Such lifestyle choices are harmful to one's health, especially considering the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome/ Human Immune Virus (AIDS/HIV) epidemic.

Previous sexual coercion experience has been recognised as a probable risk factor for perpetration or re-victimisation of sexual coercion. According to studies, victims of sexual coercion are more likely to be sexually victimised in the future (Follette *et al.* 1996; Moore *et al.* 2010; Brousseau *et al.* 2012; Griffin 2012). Makoboza (2016) found a number of students at Makerere University in Uganda have been sexually attacked on more than three occasions, while one of every five students said they had been sexually coerced many times. This study found sexual coercion perpetrators committed the same crimes on the same victims, indicating

flaws in victim protection against re-victimisation at this university. Moore *et al.* (2010: 56) asserted “victims of sexual coercion's emotional dysfunction was a contributing factor in re-exposure”.

Sexual coercion has detrimental physiological, social, and economic consequences for individual victims as well as for the entire nation (Mukwidigwi 2018: 31), where the transforming potential of education is undermined by sexual compulsion (*ibid.*). Female education, according to Mirsky (2003: 1), not only contributes to enhanced family health, it is also a major engine of social and economic development. At a national level, poor physical health has long-term ramifications for human capital and development (Mukwidigwi 2018: 31). Women who have been sexually abused report having worse physical health and using more health services (DeVisser *et al.* 2007). Increased use of health services by victims of sexual coercion, in turn, puts pressure on national health budgets, which has a long-term impact on national economies (Mukwidigwi 2018: 31). Universities can risk a slew of negative consequences, including a tarnished reputation, poor media attention, and mistrust among university staff and officials should they not address GBV and its impact (Weller 2018).

GBV among female students, according to many researchers, is hurting their academic performance, while it is also accompanied by high dropout rates due to stress and pregnancy. GBV, according to Musungu (2016), puts people at risk for HIV and other STDs. Most of the time, students' vulnerability to this type of violence can be ascribed to the harsh socio-economic situations to which they would be exposed, where poverty and vulnerability will impact female students in their future lives (Mogoatlhe 2019).

Victimisation by GBV has emotional and psychological implications (Armstrong, Hamilton and Sweeney. 2006). Trauma, dread, low self-esteem, and physical symptoms, as well as impaired concentration and productivity are all linked to GBV. While sexual harassment is frequently dismissed as a kind of sexual assault, it can have such a terrible psychological impact that it leads to PTSD in some circumstances (Gouws and Kritzinger 2007).

3.10 PERCEPTIONS

Students have been revealed to have a limited awareness of GBV (Mukwidigwi 2018: 76). The problem of GBV at HEIs is still in its infancy. According to research by Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001), some study participants have a hard time grasping the terms GBV and

sexual coercion. The majority female students had a limited understanding of what GBV and sexual coercion were. As a result, students are unaware of the various forms of GBV, while perpetrators are also unaware their activities are infringing on the rights of others. The majority participants did not consider verbal abuse to be a kind of abuse (Mukwidigwi 2018).

The frequency of GBV is being placed on female students. Males believe the way women dress is equivalent to sexual assault (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001), stating female attire is typically provocative. According to Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke (2001: 46), 5.1 percent of their participants believe a female student wearing a short skirt or tight jeans invites sexual harassment. Participants believe some instructors sexually abuse female students, because of their sexual attire, according to Munando (2015).

The prevalence of GBV and sexual coercion on university campuses in Zimbabwe is highlighted in numerous studies (Katsande 2008; Mapuranga, Musodza and Tom 2015; Muchena 2013; Munando 2015; Shumba and Matina 2002; Tlou 2014; Zindi 1994). This societal ill was documented and regretted by several inferences. Despite reports of a high prevalence of GBV and sexual coercion in Zimbabwean tertiary institutions, students believe the institution, government, and other stakeholders are doing nothing to address the problem (Gaidzamwa and Manyeruke 2001; Mukwidigwi 2018). Students believe the universities' and government's slow-moving approach is impeding efforts to thoroughly comprehend and abolish this behaviour (Katsande 2008; Mukwidigwi 2018; Munando 2015).

GBV between couples is becoming more common (Mukwidigwi 2018: 78). Some researchers (see GBV as a regular element of dating (Jeffrey 2014), while others see it as suitable to a certain extent (Bridges 1991; Feltey *et al.* 1991; Haworth-Hoepfner 1998). Physical fighting and unwanted sex, according to many students, are unavoidable aspects of dating (Mukwidigwi 2018). When it comes to sexual intercourse, men do not fully understand the concept of permission, with traditional masculine sexual norms evident in their sexual persistence directed at their partners. “Traditional heteronormative discourse portrays males as pursuers of women in heterosexual courtships” (Flowerdew and Richardson 2017: 397). Furthermore, Abbey (2002: 120) states males often view a woman's sexual refusal as a hint they should try harder, rather than give up.

Female students, according to Mukwidigwi (2018: 80), believe GBV and sexual coercion are socially produced. Participants' references to social effects such as peer pressure, media

influences, and socialisation by older relatives, backed this up. Sexual coercion appears to be a learnt behaviour, according to these data, where these impressions validate social constructionist claims that sexual encounters, including sexual coercion, are socially constructed. Therefore, individuals learn to be sexual within the limitations, rules, and laws of a certain cultural or social environment, according to sexual script theory.

The outcomes of the study support male dominance in heterosexual partnerships as a traditional sexual role (Kiefer and Sanchez 2007: 6). Men have larger sexual desires than women, according to participants, making men the primary perpetrators of sexual coercion (Mukwidigwi 2018).

3.11 GBV IN CAMPUSES AROUND THE WORLD

The prevalence of female students being subjected to GBV is significant all over the world. According to Kerner *et al.* (2017: 41), one of every four women on college campuses in the USA has been sexually pressured at some point. Demise *et al.* (2002) found aggression, harassment, and a lack of protection were common problems among female students at an Ethiopian institution. Because of severe GBV, female students at the University of Witwatersrand in SA felt uncomfortable and had a pervasive sense of feeling as if they were outsiders while being university students (Bradbury *et al.* 2012). Mosime *et al.* (2012) noted campuses at the University of Botswana are not safe places for female students, because of a high rate of GBV. In a separate study of 300 female university students in Kano, Northern Nigeria, more than half (58.8 percent) said they had experienced one or more forms of GBV (Iliyasu *et al.* 2011). According to the NUS, one in every seven female students in England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland has been the victim of serious sexual assault or serious physical violence, while 12 percent have been stalked (NUS 2010, cited in Anitha and Lewis 2018: 3).

Social media has become a major avenue through which young people navigate gender norms and relationships (Renold and Ringrose 2011) and a space(s) where ‘lad culture’ is performed and rejected (García-Favaro and Gill 2016). ‘Lad culture’ is pervasive in European university contexts and is typically dismissed and not treated as violence since it is: “just lads being lads (boys being boys) boys want to be the man that sleeps with most ladies and can drink the most

and do the craziest stuff. It's all just hypermasculine. It's really ridiculous" (Anitha and Lewis 2018: 98).

It is heart-breaking to note the prevalence of sexual violence in graduate students (people with high levels of education), often associated with less or no perpetration and experiences. Nonetheless, six in every 10 female students reported having experienced violence from other students, while four in every 10 male students reported experiencing sexual harassment. The epidemic is prevalent even in developed countries, with studies in the USA showing more than one in every five women have been victims of this social ill in American universities. Furthermore, one in every five female students were victimised sexually in European universities (Sivertsen *et al.* 2019: 2).

In Ethiopia, women in universities are more susceptible to risks of GBV at high levels, with students who are GBV victims four times more prone to experiencing symptoms of depression (Kaufman *et al.* 2019: 2). Four in every 10 female students have experienced violence in Ethiopian universities, while 24 percent male students reported perpetrating sexual harassment.

Kempinska and (2021:101) postulated that academic GBV manifests as *quid pro quo* and a hostile environment, while acknowledging gendered violence as pathological is disputable and doubtful, often treated indulgently as a "parade of men's strength, innocuous advances and flirting". The authors emphasised that GBV is pervasive in Poland's academic institutions, with 32 percent students reporting they have experienced some form of abuse and the majority being female students.

The empirical studies cited in this section are based in research done around the globe, as GBV in HTEIs is a universal phenomenon. The epidemic of GBV in colleges is not limited to a single country (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018: 2). GBV is evidently being perpetrated more frequently on and around the campuses of HTEIs in SA and around the world. Despite the lack of accurate data, it is widely believed that SA has extraordinarily high levels of GBV in HEIs (Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation 2016; Vetten 2014; Wilkinson 2017).

GBV occurrences that made it to the news, according to Davids (2020: 1), represent a minuscule fraction of all such incidents in the country, as the majority are not reported for various reasons. Consequently, obtaining a complete picture of the scope of the country's academic gendered violence pandemic is impossible. This points to there being many

incidences of GBV in South African universities, some of which are fatal. These acts include, but are not limited to: sexual harassment, physical acts such as unwanted touching, tearing off clothes, stalking, and beating; verbal acts such as jeering, taunts, spreading rumours, emailing or exhibiting sexual material, and badgering for dates are all examples of GBV, in addition to actions of *quid pro quo*, such as exchanging money, resources, or scholastic or professional advantages for sex (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018: 3).

Mahlangu *et al.* (2021: 2) divided the scourge in universities into three categories: IPV, which includes physical, sexual, and emotional violence; non-partner violence, which includes rape and physical violence; and lecturer to student violence, which primarily involves sexual violence in the form of sex for marks. GBV in institutes of higher learning, according to Huerta *et al.* (2006) is primarily sexual, physical, and psychological.

Data from various studies show women are more affected by sexual and gender-based harassment than men (Mogoatlhe 2019; Musungu 2016). Female students, as with women in general, make up a major portion of the victims, with GBV against female students highlighted by lecturers and male students. While most institutions celebrate that women make up the majority students, they have not followed up on this achievement by providing an environment free of sexual harassment and violence (Mogoatlhe 2019). According to the SaferSpaces report (2017), 12-13 percent of students do not feel safe on or near university campuses. Various forms of GBV, such as sexual, physical, and emotional assault, are tolerated in South African institutions, endangering the lives of female students (Finchilescu and Dugard 2018).

According to Dranzoa (2018), three-quarters of women in SA experience some sort of abuse or sexual violence in their lifetime. In 2012, the SAPS registered 2 600 occurrences of gender-based assault involving female students, according to Mahlangu *et al.* (2021: 2). This demonstrates GBV and sexual harassment are widespread in SA, establishing an atmosphere of fear by victimising women and girls, as opposed to empowering them (Mogoatlhe 2019).

The causes of GBV are numerous and varied, however, they are “frequently entangled with deep social and patriarchal structures and attitudes” (Davids 2020: 3). Maleness is regarded as central in communities, according to Hooks (2000), whereas femaleness is regarded as subordinate. This power dynamic is as prevalent in society as it is in educational settings, resulting in female students being abused (Davids 2020: 3). The drivers of GBV, according to Finchilescu and Dugard (2018: 2), are complex and relate to a variety of underlying factors,

such as “extreme social and economic inequality, high unemployment, pervasive patriarchal and gendered norms, and apartheid's enduring legacy of violent oppression, socioeconomic dislocation, and exclusion”.

Universities around the world serve as microcosms, reflecting GBV societal experiences. GBV in higher education, according to UNFPA (2018), reflects what is happening in society as a whole and, hence, remedies must be articulated and positioned within a multisectoral strategy, notably at community level.

One of the triggers of GBV in colleges, according to Davids (2020: 3), is alcohol and drugs. According to previous studies, many sexual assault victims were inebriated or intoxicated at the time of the assaults (Fisher *et al.* 2010; Fischer & Calhoun 2012), and binge drinking has been identified as a facilitator for sexual assault perpetration and victimization (Mouilso *et al.* 2012). In addition to negative gendered norms associated with a drinking culture, alcohol and drug use raises the likelihood of sexual violence (Davids 2020).

Institutional risk factors for GBV include a lack of adequate policies and processes for preventing and responding to GBV. Not all South African HEIs have policies addressing GBV, particularly regulations addressing sexual harassment. In SA, there is currently no single overarching policy to address GBV in HEIs (Adams, Mabusela, and Dlamini 2013).

According to Krebs *et al.* (2016), UK universities are not immune to GBV, with 68 percent female students experiencing some form of verbal and nonverbal victimisation, while 10 percent reported being drugged before being victimised. The main perpetrators of violence in universities were identified to be males and this is overwhelmingly the same depicted in society in the main (Murphy and Van Brunt 2017).

Individual factors pinpointed as contributors of rape are: ‘Rape Myth Acceptance’ (RMA), wired-masculinity, alcohol and substance abuse, and hostility towards women, through holding stern gendered role ideas. These include beliefs that males are entitled to sex and should not be refused whenever and however they want it.

Dube, *et al* (2021: 284) assert GBV in HTEIs inhibits women from participating in their academic studies as they develop a sense of insecurity and fear. In their study on two HTEIs in Bulawayo, it was revealed that sexual harassment is pervasive in these institutions. Male students were identified as the main perpetrators of violence, passing unwelcome sexist

comments and whistling when female students pass by. It is overwhelming to note female lecturers were identified as perpetrators of victim blaming and verbal abuse. Female students posited that female lecturers blame and complain about the way students dress, stating it provokes male lecturers and students to sexually assault them.

Many of the behaviours classified as sexual harassment or rape in legal or policy terms are not seen as such by students and staff, according to research (Bursik and Gefter 2011; Magley and Shupe 2005; Marsil and McNamara 2016; Vohlidalova 2011). Perceptions are found to differ across genders, ethnicities, and civilizations, according to studies. Women, on average, perceive more acts of sexual harassment than males (Yee, Alagappar, & Ngeow 2015). This problem is poorly understood and researched, which limits efforts to design effective interventions to reduce and eliminate GBV (Davids 2020: 1). Most cultures believe men have the right to have sexual relations with their wives, girlfriends, or female partners, which leads to forced sex among students (ibid).

3.12 CONCLUSION

GBV is an established social ill that affects mostly female students in academic spaces around the globe. It mainly results from men parading their machismo/machoism and subjugating women. HEIs, as microcosms of the main environment, depict the same problems experienced in the main environment. Though gendered violence is pervasive and its consequences endanger student health and academic life, there is under reporting and under researching of the scourge when it comes to academic institutions.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research methodology and design implemented for this research are discussed. Since the study is conceived as AR, a discussion of AR aspects will be presented. Population, sampling and data collection instruments used to achieve the research objectives will also be addressed.

4.2 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

4.2.1 Research Aim

To gain a thorough understanding of GBV on a university campus and devise and implement an intervention with male students that seeks to reduce GBV.

4.2.2 Specific objectives

- **To examine the nature, extent, causes and effects of GBV at GZU.**
- **To explore student perceptions and attitudes on GBV.**
- **To design and implement an intervention programme with male students to reduce GBV.**
- **To evaluate the short-term impact of the intervention programme.**

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Plans and procedures utilised in research, showing the full extent of the research steps from comprehensive concepts and beliefs, to thorough and detailed data collection, analysis, and interpretation techniques, are referred to as the research approach. The approach and techniques are guided by philosophical assumptions and the sort of problem under investigation. The comprehensive methodology involves the intersection of research philosophy, methods, and design. A transformative worldview was used as it is best suited with PAR. This philosophy

postulates that “inquiry is intertwined with politics and a political change agenda to confront social oppression at whatever levels it occurs” (Creswell 2013: 40).

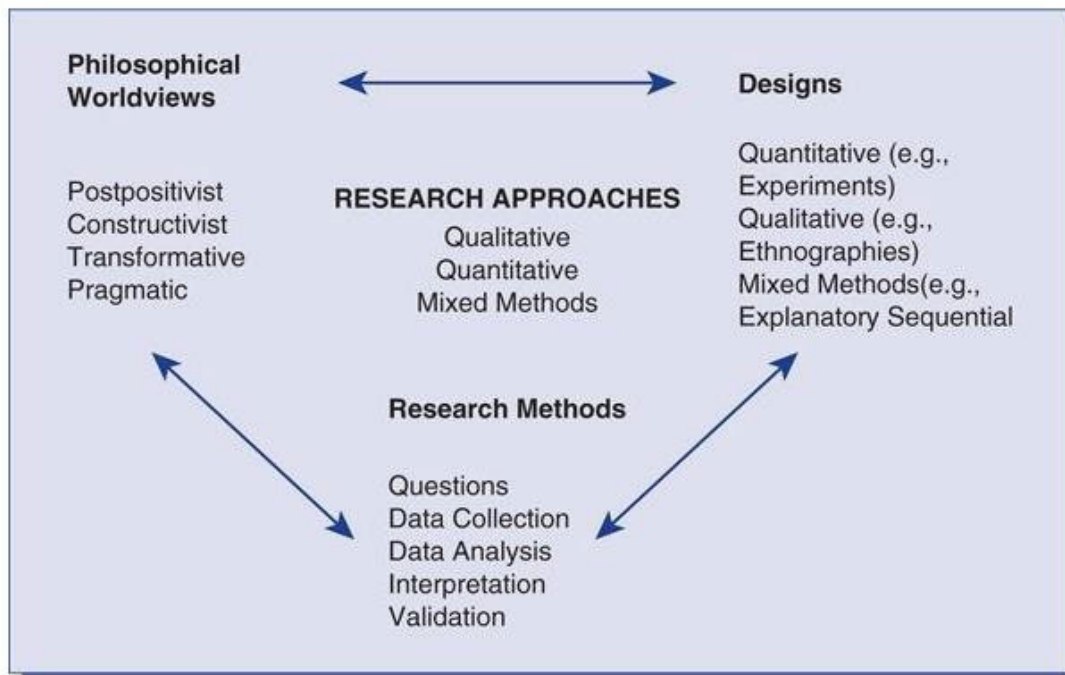


FIGURE 4.1: HOW PHILOSOPHIES, DESIGN AND METHODS ARE INTERTWINED.

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2014: 5)

The study incorporated an action plan to transform the mindsets of male students in the way they view gender and GBV and to lead to changes in the lives of the students and the university where they learn and live. The philosophy links well with PAR, as it focuses on bringing change through the planning and implementation of an intervention programme to deal with a societal problem in a certain environment, in this case: GBV at a university campus (Creswell 2014). The worldview is associated with theoretical notions that provide a basis for dealing with societal injustice and inequality (Mertens 2007: 212). This study placed importance on disparities entrenched in gender, as well as social and economic aspects that result in unequal power relations, as dictated by the philosophy. The transformative worldview supports using PAR-oriented research, thus making personal, institutional, and social transformation achievable, since PAR is action oriented and problem-solving.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is an all-encompassing plan used to merge different facets or elements of a study in a clear, methodical, and articulate manner (Allen 2017) that ensures the research problem is effectively addressed. It is the foundation or blueprint that dictate or direct decisions or methods for data collection, measurement, and analysis (McGregor 2018). To achieve the study objectives, PAR design, an option in qualitative research, was utilised to ascertain an in-depth knowledge of students' understanding of the nature, causes and effects of GBV at GZU. AR is fundamental to peacebuilding, because it equips and encourages researchers to be problem solvers and hence, promote peace. As defined by Creswell (2014: 3), research design is "a plan and approach for an inquiry, extending from extensive inferences to thorough information gathering and analysis".

4.4.1 Participatory Action Research (PAR)

PAR links theory to practise advocating for social justice, through prioritising the immediate improvement of social problems, by integrating vital change needed to solve the problem in question. It goes beyond adding knowledge but ensures something is done to reduce or solve the problem. PAR goes on to incorporate the planning, implementation and evaluation of an intervention that tries to solve the research problem (Coghlan and Shani 2018).

Bradbury (2015: 1) states: "Action research brings together action and reflection, as well as theory and practice, in participation with others, in the pursuit of practical solutions to issues of pressing concern". Therefore, AR is participatory in nature, as it involves participants in all the study phases, with the researcher taking on a facilitatory role and working together with participants, refraining from dictating and directing the course of action. AR provides significance to research as it extends from accruing understanding and knowledge of societal problems but strives to change everyday problems.

Descombe (2014: 12) stresses research should be meaningful through ensuing change and not only adding to knowledge regarding life problems. The fundamental underpinning of AR is the involvement and engagement of people directly affected by the problem, in the designing, implementation, and evaluation of the study. In PAR participants take the role of associates. PAR is a subsection of AR and is the methodical collecting and analysing of data to act and bring about change by creating practical knowledge (Gillis & Jackson 2002: 264). The drive

for PAR is to bring about social change through the use of a specific action/ actions as fundamental goals (McNiff & Whitehead 2006). PAR involves a researcher and members of the community; that is, the university seeking improvement of their situation. Therefore, AR is concerned with an agenda for social change that embodies the belief of pooling knowledge to define a problem for it to be resolved (Greenwood & Levin 1998). PAR is, consequently, “concerned with a plan for societal transformation that symbolizes beliefs of merging knowledge to define the problem to result in its resolving” (Greenwood & Levin 1998: 122).

4.4.1.1 Brief History of PAR

Kurt Lewin (1944), a Prussian psychologist whose work is rooted in PAR and is considered the founding father of AR, stressed employee motivation comes from their participation in decision-making regarding how things are done at work (MacDonald 2012: 37). The term AR was introduced to simultaneously study social systems and impart change emphasis, made on the importance of client tailored problem-solving attempts (Gillis & Jackson 2002). Lewin’s method of AR dealt with challenges around seclusion, discrimination, and integration and helped people in solving issues and instigating change, whilst examining the impacts of those changes (Stringer & Genat 2004). His ideas still influence researchers in organising their work and reports in a series of stages as ‘observing, reflecting, acting, evaluating, and modifying’ (McNiff & Whitehead 2006). These cycles are repetitive and turn into another cycle.

Paulo Freire (1970) is also a scholar noted as a protagonist of PAR, as he alleged for individual and corporate change to take place, critical reflection was vital. His PAR was on empowering poor and side-lined members of the community on issues relating to learning, land reform analysis, and the society (MacDonald 2012: 37). Freire was an “adult educator and scholar of influential pedagogical works that defied the dominance and power-based social connections in conventional education, emphasising the importance of critical understanding to social transformation”. People who are socially aware understand socio-political and economic inconsistencies and act to alter repressive elements of life, thus releasing the oppressed (Freire 1970).

4.4.1.2 AR Process

According to Mertler (2021 :6), AR is typically viewed as “a cyclic activity, whereby a comprehensive cycle of an actual research is shaped on and extends any series of AR into the

identical or similar problem that happened before it. One cycle is made up of four phases of research events”. The phases are: planning, acting, developing and reflecting.

The four phases are depicted in the figure below (Figure. 4.2); showing they have subsidiary stages that illustrate the overall stage. It involves a rigorous evaluation of the background and purpose of the study and takes place in the present, and in real time by endorsing a cyclic four-step process of continuous and deliberate: i) planning, ii) taking action, and iii) evaluating the action, leading to iv) further planning, as implementing concurrent cycles of action and research (Coghlan and Shani 2018: 2).

AR was adopted for this study to promote participation of those involved in the problem. The planning phase is concerned with initial activities associated with developing and effecting the AR study. This starts when the investigator generates a topic and gathers information linked to the topic. A literature review is undertaken at this stage to determine the scope of what has already been done with regards to the topic under investigation. The acting phase is when the researcher undertakes the field work of collecting and analysing the data to be utilised, in efforts to bring solutions to the research problem. The developing phase is concerned with developing a plan of action; which is the ultimate objective in AR. It is *the action part in action research*. Finally, the reflecting phase affords the researcher the opportunity to reflect on the context. In the final stage, the researcher reflects on the context and the results of his/her study (Mertler 2021: 5).

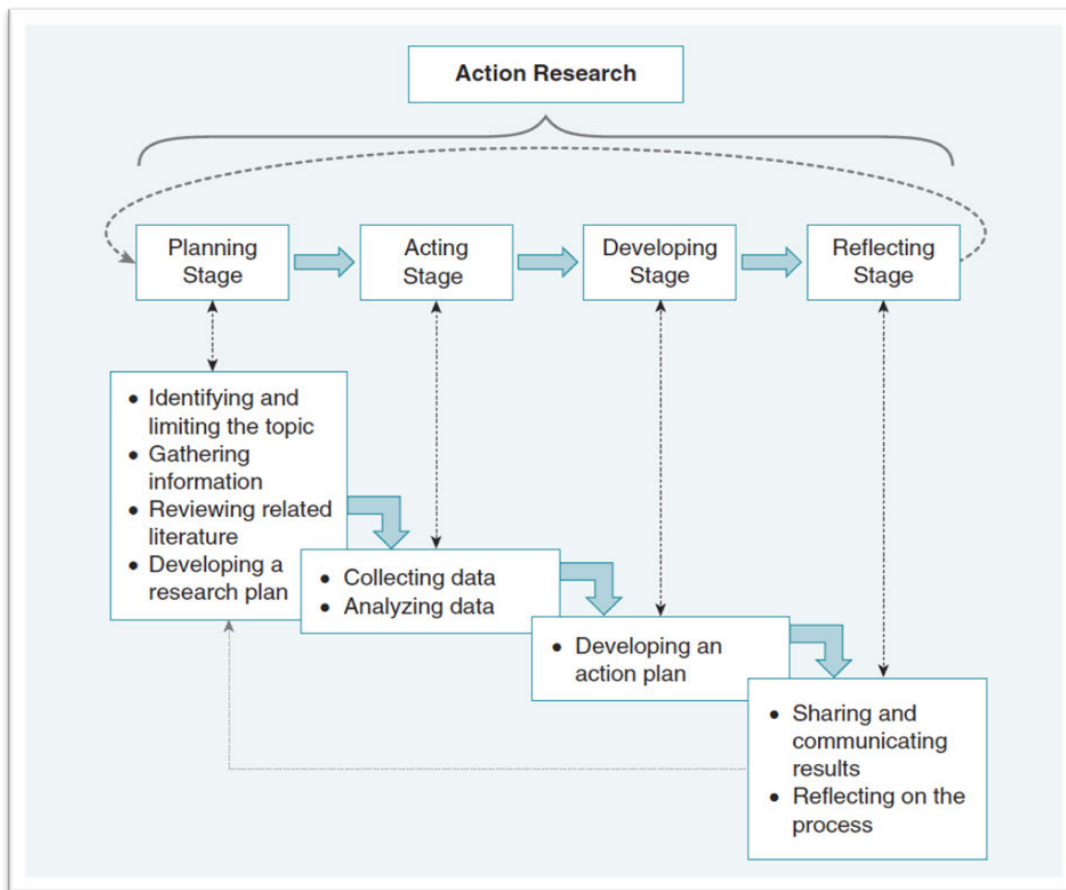


FIGURE 3.2: THE ACTION RESEARCH PROCESS

Source: Adapted from Mertler (2021: 5)

4.4.1.3 Exploratory Phase

Ten male and ten female students were invited to participate in FGDs. Focus groups were used to ascertain the nature, extent, causes and effects of GBV, as well as student perceptions and attitudes on GBV; this brought about ideas of the intervention necessary to curb GBV.

4.4.1.4 Selection of Action Team

Recruitment of the action team was based on willingness to be part of the team and the researcher purposely selected five male students who had been vocal in the FGDs. Soon after the end of the initial male students' FGD, selection of the action team was done, allowing initial discussion on the planning of the intervention to commence, which were later polished through a WhatsApp group. It was beneficial to have Mr Jephias Gora, a policeman and a pastor, as part of the action team, as he was well versed with the law pertaining to GBV. This greatly assisted in the delivery of the workshop.

It was decided best to conduct workshops to educate first-year male students on GBV and its consequences, to socialise them regarding a matter that brings positive change to campus life. The action team comprised only final year students.

4.4.1.5 Intervention planning

The findings from the problem exploration FGDs initiated and informed the necessary intervention implementable in short time. Conception of the intervention strategy was based on findings such as lack of awareness on what GBV constitutes, prevalence of masculine attitudes that promote GBV and the causes and nature of GBV. The action team saw it necessary to engage male students at entry level, in order to transform attitudes that promote violence emanating from the different societies they come from since they will be socialised to everything from their communities' norms.

An education training workshop was thus decided upon to socialise and empower male students with positive and constructive masculinities. In this way, it would discourage inequality and violence and promote gender equality and nonviolence at entry level and throughout their campus lives. This exercise was entirely participatory, with participants afforded equal opportunities to bring their ideas to the table, from conducting awareness campaigns to drama, however, due to COVID-19 the group decided against conducting awareness campaigns and drama. The purpose of the intervention was to transform attitudes and principles that reinforce GBV.

4.4.2 Gender Transformative Interventions

Gender transformative methodologies are utilised for transforming behaviours, ideals, and attitudes regarding GBV. These gender transformative approaches stimulate critical consciousness and cognisance amongst males and females with regard to norms, gender roles, and promotion of women's position, while also challenging resource allocation and distribution of duties among men and women. These are programmes and interventions that create opportunities for individuals to actively challenge gender norms, promote positions of social and political influence for women in communities, and address power inequalities between persons of different genders. Gender transformative approaches create an enabling environment for gender transformation by going beyond merely including women as participants (Greene and Levack 2010).

Several interventions that adopted this methodology have mostly worked with single-sex groups, either working with only males or females. The concept affords men the prospect to deconstruct destructive gender patterns and role attitudes and form new ways of thinking, such as constructive masculinities. According to the WHO (2007: 4), gendered transformative interventions are most effective at changing men's perceptions, attitudes, and actions. Hence, the study worked with only male students for the action study component.

4.4.2.1 Education Training Intervention

Gender training is perceived as a means of enhancing the ability of organisations and individuals to address gender-related structural inequalities and is often delivered in adult non-formal, educational workshops. In the peacebuilding setting, they help to create awareness on how both genders are affected by violence. This allows for development of interventions and solutions (Hanson 2015). When discussing the reduction of GBV, this translates to educational workshops to effect attitudinal changes in participant perceptions pertaining to GBV.

Furthermore, Hanson (2015: 129) affirmed gender equality and community rebuilding can only be realised when a transformative-educational perspective is incorporated in these workshops. As GBV is linked to masculinity, sexual bias and femininity, additional reflection and consideration of masculinity as a way of control and violence, and its numerous and varied conceptualisations for females, necessitate more educational interventions.

As interactive conflict resolution, training frequently makes use of “generic activities to impart concepts and skills as well as focused experiences to induce intergroup understanding and cooperation” (Fisher 1997: 331). To bring about key pedagogies of intervention in a university setting, the research endorsed that campus GBV problems can be addressed by education training interventions, as all kinds of education provide the necessary principles and essential skills each individual needs to live peacefully with others (Read 2012: 13). When there is practical delivery of the gendered training intervention strategy, much consideration will be devoted to the workshop's identified objectives, which might be inclusive of understanding the reason behind the social, rather than biological construction of gender, evaluating the way societal roles are gendered and how gendered discrimination appears in practical terms.

4.4.2.2 Transformative Participatory Evaluation

Participatory outcome evaluation is a component of AR that seeks social transformation by involving participants affected by the problem. Their involvement improves self-determination

(Ucar, Planas and Berne 2016: 297). It evaluates how participants, and their circumstances change and whether the intervention caused the change.

Evaluation of the implemented interventions is done by those involved in the problem; they assess whether the intervention objectives have been met and reflect on the programme usefulness and impact on the concerned parties; this is done by facilitators and participants. Methods of evaluation such as participatory evaluation encourage participation of those affected by the plan in the evaluation. For instance, it promotes self-assessments and non-complex techniques tailored to the ethos of members and divulges the outcomes of the assessment (Sartorius 2000). Outcome evaluation measures people-centred outcomes and outcomes can be short-term (changes in knowledge, skills, or attitudes), intermediate (changes in behaviour) and long-term (changes in condition or status). Generally, outcome evaluations attempt to answer the following questions: Is the programme making a difference? Did it work? Did the programme achieve what it anticipated to change? (Ucar *et al.* 2016: 296).

Evaluation was done to answer objectives three and four of the study:

- To design and implement an intervention programme with male students to reduce GBV.
- To evaluate the short-term impact of the intervention programme.

Assessment is used to evaluate the perception of participants to ascertain their satisfaction (Shek and Ma 2014). Participants are asked about their views of the intervention workshop and the post-completion benefits. It provides first-hand experiences of those involved in the programme (Shek *et al.* 2021). As postulated by Shek (2014: 550), a subjective outcome requires evaluation of the opinions of key participants in and implementers of the plan, on the quality and success of the plan. For example, members might be asked regarding the programme levels that satisfied them. Shek (2014: 550) further affirms subjective-outcome evaluation is widely applied in youth clinical and non-clinical service settings. This justifies its adoption in this study.

The justification for utilising subjective-outcome assessment in this research is that participants in the intervention are the most suitable individuals to appraise its effectiveness (Rodin and Rodin 1973). In addition, subjective assessment provides a comprehensive picture of the outcomes, making it simple for researchers and participants to grasp the results of the plan (Brigitte 2003: 3). However, the evaluations are mostly built on immense amounts of

information contrasting with publicly confirmable evidence. This is the possible strength of subjective assessment. Furthermore, Brigitte (2003: 3) claims that non-verifiable data delivers accurate measures that verifiable data cannot deliver. Although faced with much criticism, Shek (2010) maintains subjective results are matched with and can relate to the factual outcomes.

On completion of the workshop, a mini FGD was conducted with eight male students to ascertain their sentiments and feelings regarding the contents of the intervention programme and the way it was presented. The FGD took an hour. Participatory evaluation was utilised to include the participants in considering who frame the evaluation activity and benefits from the outcomes. According to Descombe (2014), the fundamental tenets of participatory assessment are:

- Participation: providing individuals impacted by the research the opportunity to articulate the effects of the intervention plan,
- Negotiation: male student participants, namely the action team or co-facilitators and the researcher, regarding in what way and when information was to be gathered, how the findings were to be distributed, and a plan of action to ensure implementation,
- Learning: ascertaining any cumulative learning by members,
- Flexibility: adapting the assessment to fit local environments and participants.

The participatory method was employed because it emphasises “collective investigation, evaluation, and reflection in outcomes to establish the requirements for collective learning that networks ahead into action and upcoming preparation” (Maphosa 2018: 130).

4.4.3 Qualitative Research

Based on the narrative of Mertler (2006: 92), qualitative is " narrative data, in other words the data themselves are words, these 'words' may appear in the form of interview transcripts and observational notes, journal entries, transcripts of audio or video tapes and collected using a variety of techniques". Qualitative research is appropriate in a variety of contexts. The utilisation of qualitative methods is to provide in-depth information of the problems affecting the research population and the circumstances surrounding them (Maphosa 2018: 131). It is a method used to investigate and comprehend the significance attributed to personal or social problems by individuals or groups.

The research process “encompasses emerging issues and measures, information normally gathered in the participant’s setting, data evaluation relatively structured from specifics to broad themes” and interpreting the meaning of such data by the investigator (Creswell & Creswell 2018: 41). The approach tries to discover and comprehend the meaning people or groups impute to a collective or individual problem (Creswell and Creswell 2018). It is critical to use qualitative methods when trying to attain a deeper insight of events and exploring people’s experiences, viewpoints, and beliefs in specific problems.

As posited by Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 13), qualitative research is:

“... a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world, they turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to self. Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them”.

According to Alberto and Guiditta (2019: 431), qualitative research is a form of social investigation that focuses on the way individuals identify, interpret, and make sense of their experiences and the environment they inhabit. This is very important for the study on reducing GBV on campus. Qualitative methodology was used for “its effectiveness in unpacking the dynamics that influences people’s distinct actions and perceptions in their social situation”. The interview and focus group questions arose from reviewing relevant literature on GBV and the development of the action plan, which was informed by participants’ interpretation and views on GBV.

4.5 POPULATION

There are approximately 11 000 undergraduate students at GZU, with the number inclusive of all the university’s campuses (UNESCO 2021). This made up the study population since it focused on undergraduate students, with studies showing these students more prone to experiencing and perpetrating GBV (Griner *et al.* 2017; Shamu *et al.* 2018). As claimed by Scheafer (1999: 1), population is a defined group of specifically indicated elements on which an impact must be made. It is a group of individuals a sample is drawn from.

4.5.1 Sampling

Non-probability sampling was employed to determine the sample population for the research. It attempts to draw inferences regarding all the elements under investigation from a subsection of the populace. Typically, not supported by statistics, non-probability sampling is frequently used when numerical interpretations are not essential (Uprichard 2013; Bricks 2015). Since it is impractical to study and gather data from the entire targeted population, due many factors including financial and time factors, a sample was drawn using a purposive or judgemental technique, which is widely used in non-probability sampling.

As postulated by Scutt (2006: 348),

“...purposive sampling involves an iterative process of selecting research subjects rather than starting with a predetermined sampling frame. Akin to grounded theory, the selection process involves identifying themes, concepts and indicators through observation and reflection”.

This sampling method is used when working with small samples by selecting individuals who are very informed regarding the issue being investigated (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill 2009).

The qualitative nature of the study made it possible to use a small sample size. For this study, a sample of 10 male and 10 female undergraduate students was selected for FGDs. The sample size is in line with that proposed by Dilshan and Latif (2013), who inferred a FGD should range from 6–12 participants. Altogether 24 students formed the entire sample used in this study. With no new information gathered from the follow-up interviews, further interviews were not needed.

Due to participants' exam commitments, only two male and two female students who were part of the FGDs took part in follow-up interviews, they then directed me to four students who were not part of the FGDs. Purposive sampling was used to choose individuals from a population based on specified features, through cognisance of the target populace. This is done by identifying clearly defined characteristics, used to include or exclude individuals from study participation, selected because of their ability to offer specific knowledge needed by the researcher (Allen 2017). For this study, it was vital to select individuals knowledgeable on GBV and who were part of a group that focuses on the issue or related issues. With the help of

the Dean and a friend, the researcher was able to identify students who are part of the ZimRights organisation.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data were collected from male and female undergraduate students using FGDs and interviews. The FGDs were utilised to both examine the extent, causes and effects of GBV at GZU, as well as to explore student perceptions and attitudes on GBV.

4.6.1 Focus Groups

FGD is a type of qualitative research where inquiry is made regarding a group of participants' insights, ideas, attitudes, and opinions on certain issues (Hour 2015), in this case GBV. Discussions that take place in focus groups provide rich and in-depth information through participants influencing each other to air their views, as something can come up in another's mind to support or contradict what is being or has been said when others were voicing their opinions. This provides the researcher with vast information, because people's comments may result in further questions, while continuation and flow of discussion is ensured as another person carries on the discussion when one is stuck (Krueger & Casey 2014). The group setting of peers also gives participants confidence to be vocal. The researcher acts as a facilitator to ensure a free and open discussion during the group interaction. Casey and Krueger (2000: 11), postulated that FGD affords "a more natural environment than that of individual interview because participants are influencing and influenced by others - just as they are in real life".

As identified by Descombe (2013), there are three distinct qualities of focus groups:

- i. Prompt/Stimulus: The discussions typically focus on a cause, with some stimulus presented by the facilitator to direct the focus of the session;
- ii. Moderator - not an impartial person: The facilitator is not entirely obliged to assume an impartial role in the proceedings as is necessary in one-on-one interviews. Impartiality or neutrality is less emphasised.
- iii. Group interaction: Between participants, interactions are distinctively valued, unlike merely gathering participant opinions, with their joint view afforded much more significance than the aggregate view.

FGDs can be used together with other methods such as interviews and participant observation for triangulation purposes (Dilshad & Latif 2013: 192). They provide opportunities for prompt response and comments or illumination of perspectives by other group participants. Based on the views of Gorman and Clayton (2005), FGDs have limitations of conformity, as some participants may choose to agree with others' opinions even should, they differ; just to follow the crowd. Furthermore, transcription becomes a lengthy process as vast information is gathered.

Two FGDs were conducted, one with female students and the other with male students, who voluntarily agreed to participate in the discussions and contribute to the research. The focus group comprised 10 male and 10 female students to make a total of 20 participants. The male FGD lasted for an hour and 12 minutes and was used to select those who would be part of the action plan. An hour and 20 minutes were used in the female FGD. The sessions took place at a venue known to students, Caravan Park, which is an open space as a way of complying with COVID regulations. Participants were previously acquainted through the ZimRights organisation and others were enrolled in the same programme, most of whom were Peace students.

Information was captured through audio recording, which participants had agreed to, as they were opposed to video recordings and capturing of photos. Notes were taken by research assistant Handina Sigauke, since it is considered good practice and taking notes of FGD proceedings is indispensable as backup, although it was being recorded (Robson & McCartan 2016: 302). FGDs were used to discover the nature, extent, causes and effects of GBV, as well as exploring student perceptions and attitudes on GBV. The views from the focus group proved the need for an intervention plan to deal with the scourge of gendered violence in the university.

Recruitment of FGD participants

The initial plan was to work with all undergraduate students from first through to fourth year level. However, due to COVID-19, some levels had not experienced campus life. In Zimbabwean universities, third-year students go for work induction or attachments, thus were automatically unavailable for participation. In addition, at the time of FGDs, first year students were not yet enrolled due to the effects of the aforementioned pandemic. This automatically left the researcher with second- and fourth-year students. After discussing the study and challenges in locating participants with Mr Gora, a member of the action team who is also a

police officer and a pastor in a church the researcher attends when in Zimbabwe, and a Peace student (Block release student), it was mentioned most students conduct their study groups for exams at a specific venue (Caravan Park).

TABLE 4.1: SELECTION OF FGD PARTICIPANTS

Gender	Second years	Fourth year	Total
Male	2	8	10
Female	3	7	10

On February 7, the researcher met some students at the mentioned venue where they were having discussions and after telling them of the study they were eager to participate on that very day. The researcher decided to give them the letters of information and scheduled the FDGs for the next day, allowing ample time to decide whether to participate. Most of the students were enrolled in Bachelor of Peace studies and part of the ZimRights organisation.

4.6.2 Interviews

The use of interviews in qualitative research is imperative as they offer rich data and in-depth knowledge regarding the issue in question, with responses attached to people’s experiences and understanding of the phenomenon (Creswell and Creswell 2018). Furthermore, interviews allow people to speak freely on sensitive issues. Interviews were additionally used for data triangulation purposes, as the main data collection tool was the FDGs.

For this research, personal, face-to-face interviews were conducted to gain participants’ standpoint on the types, causes and effects of GBV on campus and explore attitudes and perceptions on GBV. Four students, two males and two females, who were part of the FGD participated in follow up interviews. Only four were used as opposed to the proposed 10 as there was no new information to gather. Follow up interviews were used, because some individuals feel free to speak more openly when they are alone, while only four were interviewed due to the reason stated above, as well as time constraints, with students having examination to focus on. The individuals were selected from the FGD sample selection, which was based on willingness to participate. Exam commitments is another factor that made less people willing to be interviewed again, therefore, the researcher requested they point to other

people who had not participated in the FGDs, with six more participants then interviewed who were not part of the discussions.

TABLE 4.2: INTERVIEW SELECTION CRITERIA

Gender	FGD participants		New participants	total
Male	2		3	5
Female	2		3	5

The interviews, as with FGDs, were used to answer objective one and two.

4.7 PILOT TESTING

Pilot testing, as construed by Casper *et al.* (2016: 23), is “a scaled-down version of the data accumulating process that incorporates all the strategies and tools used during data collection preceding the real data collecting exercise”. The main purpose of such an exercise is the evaluation of the effectiveness and reliability of the interview and FGD guides (Hibben & Kelley 2015: 76). It aids in the refining by either adding or removing some questions, making the instruments most suitable for the study goal.

The pretesting was conducted on the researcher’s family members, one of which is in academia and of the view the guides were “a bit long but alright”, which generated confidence in undertaking the real data gathering process. The researcher conducted a mini FGD with three students encountered on campus; these students did not take part in the main discussions.

4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

Data from FGDs and interviews was analysed using thematic analysis. According to Nowell *et al.* (2017: 99), “...thematic analysis is a method used to identify, analyse, organise, describe, and report themes of data obtained from the research, that is, data obtained from focus group discussions and interviews”. David and Sutton (2011: 365) asserts thematic analysis is a form of qualitative content analysis that emphasises the necessity to devote substantial time with the data, noting themes that emerged from the data and are not based on the researcher’s own opinions. Furthermore, it offers a way of arranging and summarising discoveries from a bulky

amount of data. As mentioned by Nowell *et al.* (2017: 99): thematic analysis comprises six phases, listed below:

1. **Familiarising yourself with your data**
2. **Generating initial codes**
3. **Searching for themes**
4. **Reviewing themes**
5. **Defining and naming themes**
6. **Producing the report**

These phases are explained in the figure below (Figure 4.3). The researcher was able to conduct the analysis through knowledge obtained in attending the NVIVO workshops offered by Doctor Thakur and an online Udemy course. There were instances where participants used Shona phrases and words to bring out their points. The researcher personally transcribed the data.

Identify and familiarize with data	Read the data and get familiar with the data type and content Check any mistakes in data recording or any loophole in data collection Check the overall credibility of data
Identify codes	Identify interesting elements in data Document anything that seems interesting Keep a documented trail of each step Document the main codes that you find in your data
Find themes in data	Look for themes in the data Document these themes Look for data that is relevant to each theme Keep record of each and every step
Finalize themes	Finalize your themes and their names Look for the data that can be analyzed under each theme
Review each theme	Review each theme for its credibility Check that no data is missing from being sorted in some theme Check that each theme should have a specific identity
Document analysis	Analyze the resultant themes and draw inferences Document data electronically or manually Make sure that no data that is important related to your research question is left unanalyzed.

FIGURE 4.3: THEMATIC ANALYSIS PROCESS,

Source: Adapted from Nowell (2017: 100)

4.9 DELIMITATIONS

The scope of the study is limited to GZU students, hence other universities might not have similar responses. This research also focused on male and female undergraduate students and their responses might be different from academia, management, and graduate students.

4.10 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Validity is the scope to which material acquired in research is accurate and truthful (Gray 2014: 692). Validity and reliability can be improved by using numerous techniques to enhance the accuracy and dependability of collected data. With participant consent, FGDs and interviews were recorded to ensure the correct information was transcribed and transcripts reflect what was expressed during data collection. Triangulation was done between data obtained from FGDs and data obtained from interviews to ensure accuracy of results. According to Babbie (2013: 188), reliability is the consistency of a measuring tool to produce same results when administered repeatedly at different occasions. Hence, it confirms the sameness of the results acquired from the study across different researchers.

In this study, the use of both the FGDs and interviews to collect data on the same objectives was a means to ensure data triangulation to enhance its accuracy and truthfulness. I also used member checking, that is, taking the transcribed scripts with the specific themes back to participants to determine whether they agreed to and confirmed the accuracy of the transcripts. Reliability was tested by comparing the study results with other studies related to the study and by taking the findings to the group to check for correctness. A recap and rundown of the discussions was conducted as a way of ensuring information gathered was exactly what was discussed. Student participation in the action component part of the research ensured validity and reliability were achieved, as their views informed the planning and implementation of the action plan.

4.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Practising in ethical and lawfully appropriate ways when conducting research entails principles of conduct that distinguish between what is permissible and unacceptable conduct in research. Ethics have gained utmost importance in the research arena, where concerns arise with regard to human rights laws, data protection and how research is conducted to protect participants. Due to technological advancement and increases moral dilemmas, it is mandatory and obligatory for researchers to consider ethics when conducting research. Research that brings harm to participants in any way must not be attempted (Praveen & Showkat 2017: 1).

The study was carried out in line with DUT ethical guidelines and undertaken after the proposal and FGD and interview guides had been approved by the university, with permission to conduct the study obtained from GZU. The researcher received ethics approval from the DUT ethics committee and a gatekeeper's letter from GZU permitting the research to be conducted. Letters of information and consent forms were printed and handed out to participants, with the purpose of the study clearly communicated to those taking part. Participation was voluntary with the researcher clearly stating no financial incentive or any other incentive were to be given out, which was gladly welcomed as most of the participating students were in their fourth year of study and about to conduct their own studies. They were excited to be acquainted with this type of data collection and were eager to know how it was conducted.

Participants were made aware of their rights to withdraw at any point during the research process, without any explanation needed. All this was in the letter of information but was further explained to emphasise the content. Consent to audio record was given by participants not to video recordings or capturing of pictures. In the male FGDs, pseudonyms of football club teams were used, and colour names were used for the female group to ensure participant confidentiality and anonymity. Further to this, participants were assured of the safekeeping of the data they provided. Since participants may be potential perpetrators and potential victims, which can make the interviews and FGD sensitive, I assured the participants anonymity would be guaranteed to protect their personal information. This would be achieved by ensuring no response will be identified or traced back to a participant and in the research, names used during the discussions will be replaced with pseudonyms/identifying descriptors.

4.12 REFLECTIONS

I had initially intended to work with students who were part of FSNT and *Mugota* but they were unavailable due to COVID 19 the groups could not recruit new members and this negated the plan. The interviews were meant to gather information participants might view as sensitive and cannot be shared in a group setting, however, they produced the same information; no new information was obtained. The whole process was a learning adventure, the action component was completely new to me, which instilled self-doubt and fear but as it was participatory, I learned much from the groups as I merely acted as facilitator. I noted a need to conduct a survey as a baseline to ascertain some quantitative data on the prevalence of GBV on campus. However, the discussions provided rich information that helped with the action component

phase of the research without quantitative data. An extensive intervention that involved all the institution stakeholders and awareness campaigns such as roadshows on campus were suggested, but due to time constraints and the problems posed by COVID-19, they could not be adopted. The action team was instrumental in the development and planning of the intervention programme, and excited to be part of something new. They were eager to participate in the process and see the outcome as their exposure to research did not include action-based research.

4.13 SUMMARY

The chapter elaborated on the research methodology, design and methods, including the philosophy that guided the research. The AR components, what it entails and its aspects, as well as issues on ethics, were also addressed. The next chapter focuses on a discussion of the research findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an analysis of the findings and interpretation of the data. The goal of this study was to gain students' understanding of what drives GBV and its effects, to inform the building of an intervention based on their views. The main study goal was to gain a comprehensive understanding of GBV on a university campus and devise and implement an intervention with male students that seeks to reduce GBV. FGD and interview data findings will be presented here.

5.2 FOCUS GROUP AND INTERVIEW FINDINGS

The discussion and interviews were based on the following questions

- In your understanding what does violence mean?
- In your own understanding what does GBV mean?
- What forms of GBV do you know?
- What causes GBV in society and on campus?
- What actions and behaviours constitute GBV in your opinion?
- Do you think GBV happens on campus?

If yes, what forms/kinds of GBV are commonly experienced here?

- Do these forms of violence happen to female students and why?

If yes:

- What do you think about violence on women?
- Can it be justified, if yes, under which circumstances can it be justified?
- What resources are available to female students on campus if they experience violence?
- What happens to men at this university if they commit violence against women?
- What do you think are the effects of gender-based violence in general?
- Does violence or the threat of violence affect victims and perpetrators?

- Do you know anyone who has experienced this type of violence? Without using any names, tell me what happened to them.
- Have you ever experienced this type of violence since you have been at the university? Please tell me what happened.
- Do you as male students ever do something to stop GBV?
- Have you ever discussed preventing violence against women with other male students? What did you talk about?
- Is there anything you wish the university would do differently for students regarding GBV?

5.3 STUDENT VIEWS ON VIOLENCE

The question on what students understood by the term violence was posed as an introduction to the main subject of GBV to prepare students. The definitions given by male and female students were closely related; this may be because some students were enrolled in the same programme and were peace students, while others were part of the ZimRights organization. The main themes raised were violation and suppression of human rights. There was consensus from the FGDs and interviews that violence is bad and affects individuals in adverse ways, as they end up becoming fearful, mentally disturbed, paralysed, and anti-social. It was put forward that violence is abuse of power normally enacted by law enforcement officers in Zimbabwe.

Act of suppressing someone's rights which may be physical, verbal, economical or psychological (FGD Male student 1)

Violence is what happened on August 1, 2018, when the army used live ammunition on protesters of election results. Violence is killing of protestors and bystanders. It is the killing of opposition party members. It is restricting the opposition to enjoy the same privileges that are enjoyed by the ruling party. Violence is taking opposition supporters' livestock in rural areas burning their homes. (Male student 1)

Violence is what was done to Tapiwa Makore taking away a young boy's right to life for ritual killings. (Male interview student)

It is something that intimidates my personal space and causes me to fear for my life. It may be someone who comes and raise his or her voice on me or someone may come to inflict physical harm on me. (FGD Female student 2)

A way of intimidating other people by bringing harm to them emotionally, physically, and verbally. (FGD Female student 2)

Violence is evicting a widow from her house and taking away all the property which she had with her husband while he was still alive. It is giving away an underaged girl in marriage as a way of gaining food supplies. (Female interview student 1)

Violence was indicated as suppression of rights and infliction of fear on others. Types of violence such as pre- and post-election violence were also mentioned. Some of the violence is imbedded in the insubordination of women when it comes to owning property. Violence is harming a person in any way. Ritual killing and child marriages were additionally identified as forms of violence. Furthermore, it is not only violence when its effects are visible; some acts of violence produce psychological and emotional scars that are even more difficult to heal.

5.4 STUDENTS' VIEWS ON GBV

To achieve an understanding of students' views it was necessary to question their understanding on gendered violence. A female student believed GBV is subjective and personally defined, based on culture, religion, nationality and how one was gender socialised:

Understanding of gender-based violence is subjective to factors like religion, country and even individuals. Definition of GBV is personified as what person one defines or views as GBV might not be to person two because of culture or socialisation. The same word brings different reactions from people one may take it as a joke and the other as insult. This affects reporting of cases. (Female student 1)

There was an understanding that gendered violence is not only one way (men- women) but can also be women to men, men-men as well as women-women. A participant in the female FGD asked whether, when another female comes and tries to touch in any unwelcome manner, this was to be considered gendered violence and everyone replied yes in unison. GBV is then considered as a women's issue, because men are afraid to report being victims, for fear of being labelled as weak:

We are not saying it's a women's issue, nowadays men are being abused even by their wives, but they cannot come out and say it because of fear of stigmatisation and of what society say because since the beginning of time men have been viewed as perpetrators of violence not at the receiving end. And the mostly affected are women. (Female student 6)

It is totally unacceptable and shameful in our society for a man to report that say his wife abused him, since he is the one who paid lobola, it will be a laughing

matter. Even if we go to police cases of GBV reported by men are far less than they should be, because of the fear of what are people going to say - abantu bazotini syndrome. (Female student 7)

Violence that is directed either to a female or male simply because of being female or male. (Male student 3)

Abuse of men and women's human rights. (Male student 3)

This is when men's or women's financial, physical, economical, psychological rights are suppressed based on them being male or female. This can be a man beating a wife for burning relish or a woman who is the bread winner who bullies her husband. It is both ways and not only a women thing. (Female student 4)

Another student believed GBV is violence that was defined earlier in the discussion that gained the prefix gender and is the result of expected gender roles of each gender and failure to fulfil the roles, which results in gendered violence.

Picking from what girl one said on violence I think GBV is violence that has only earned the gender prefix because of the direct impacts it has on genders; that is how the violence has impacted on men for being men and on women for being women. It is violence perpetrated on men and women based on their gender roles. If it affects a man, we will then ask what are the gender roles and perspectives that direct to him as a man the same way when it comes to women. (Female student 2)

Women are the most frequent recipients of gendered violence because they are socialised to be weak and fragile, whereas men are powerful and strong; though men experience some forms of violence from women.

It is violence, whether physical, emotional, psychological, economical - targeted on either men or women for being who they are. Women are the most vulnerable and affected because of masculinity and women's fragility, gender inequality and the issue of lobola. (Female student 5)

The discussion on GBV brought to light it is not only a women issue, but men are also at the receiving end of this human rights violation. Most importantly, GBV is not only male to female, but it can be female to female, female to male and male to male. Men usually do not speak of the abuse at the hands of females for fear of being treated as a “disgrace to manhood”, because they are socialised to be strong and the who to inflict harm.

5.5 FORMS OF GBV AND ACTS OF ABUSE

The question on the forms of violence was asked to ascertain whether students were familiar with different forms or types of violence, with the discussions proving they were knowledgeable on the subject, able to name and describe the forms of violence where, among others, economic and sexual violence were mentioned.

5.5.1 SEXUAL VIOLENCE AND ACTIONS THAT PROVE IT

Sexual violence was identified as the form of violence most experienced by female students on campus. This scourge does not end at the campus, since female students also fall victim when they are on attachments (work induction).

This is the most prevalent form of violence and as females we are most affected, on campus and even when we go for work placements(attachments). For you to be placed, the boss will say scratch my back. I still remember when I went to women affairs for industrial placement through social welfare then the person had to call the boss and his response was, is she beautiful? and when I met him as a slender the first thing, he said to me was turn around let me see what you have. I worked there for only one week because I was afraid of what next he was going to ask from me. So out of fear I left the attachment. (Female student 9)

This form of violence is deep-rooted in cultural and religious expectations. These two types of expectancies are the defenders of violence, as shown by the views of one participant. In addition, elderly women were identified as custodians of sexual violence:

Sexual harassment and gender-based violence are reinforced and rooted in cultural and societal norms and religious expectations. In society at large, a woman is not allowed to refuse her husband sex as it is his so-called conjugal rights so a husband will force sex whether you like it or not. If he forces himself on her she cannot report to family members aunties and grandmothers are sometimes custodians of violence. If you tell them about the violence you are facing, they say he paid bride prize for you so must do it whenever and however he wants it. This is then passed on to boys they think if you are dating them, they have a right to your body whenever and however they want. Women have to suffer in silence because of phrases like ndozvoita kuroorwa (that's what marriage is like) and chakafukidza dzimba matenga, usafumura hapwa (protect the struggles that are going on at home and don't expose the violence or anything happening) as it is universal you can't see it because it's so covered up. If a wife suggests the use of condoms, maybe after knowing about the

husband's extra-marital affairs, all hell will break lose. In this way wives are vulnerable to STIs and cannot even protect themselves against HIV. Some husbands don't want their wives to take contraceptives. (Female student 7)

Actions that constitute sexual harassment can be personally defined as:

Sexual violence, including things like unwanted sexual talk and advances, rape, attempted rape, ass grabbing, forced breast fondling, kissing someone without their consent and anything the victim defines as sexual violence. (Male student 3)

5.5.1.1 Acts that show sexual violence

Some acts of sexual violence happen on the online space, with the example of an instance where a student almost deferred a course because of cyber sexual violence from a lecturer. Some acts are experienced in intimate relationships, while others are experienced when walking in the streets.

Forcing a girl or boy to have sex. A girl when she has slept around and gets pregnant from a blesser² she comes to her student boyfriend and force him to have sex. Forcing a girl or boy to send nudes while in a relationship and when it ends posting them on social media it is a form of sexual harassment as well as emotional and psychological abuse. (Male student 10)

Asking for nudes and vulgar language on WhatsApp, Ass grabbing and forced breast fondling. (Male student 7)

Some seduction advances men show to females and when they are rejected, they start to insult females. (Female student 2)

I almost deferred a certain module in 1.1 (first year first semester) because of a lecturer who was calling and texting sensual stuff saying 'ndotoisa nyama mudumbu' (I want to have sex with you) and ndotoda yekedero (I want unprotected sex) it was too much for me. And I told the boys in my class to go tell him that I don't like what he was doing, and they would say nyengwa mhani tipase (agree to date him so that we will pass). I then confronted the lecturer I thought I was going to fail the module for that but fortunately I passed maybe he was scared that if I failed, I was going to show people his messages. (Female student 1)

Sensual comments men pass when you are passing especially at bus terminals those mahwindi (rank marshals) they make you feel uncomfortable it has that emotional distress feeling it gives you. I once saw a girl who was stripped naked

² Blesser is a slang word for a young woman who has a relationship with an older man and who obtains financial benefits.

by rank marshals for wearing a mini skirt saying you want to naked walk so let us help you, she was helped by vendors who covered her. (Female student 6)

I once felt violated when I was asked to fix charts that where high up and had to stand on the table while my attachment boss was seated so he could ogle in my skirts, I had to get down as fast as I could and told him that I can only fix the charts in his absence. (Female student 5)

Date night rape is very prevalent on campus, sometimes a person decides to sleep over at a boyfriend's place and then the boy assumes that she wants sex then forces himself on her. Visiting and sleeping over is not consenting to sex, unfortunately they perceive that dating and visiting is consenting to sex. (Female student 8)

Dress code was identified as an act that violate men's rights and a justification for violence, as mentioned by a male participant. The sentiments were shared in the study on an Ethiopian university by Kaufman *et al.* (2019: 6), where undergraduates and staff members blamed female dress code for female victimisation.

Dress code when girls wear those short and revealing clothes, they will be violating my rights as a guy like where am I supposed to look. And the type of dressing is what forces some men to violate women like they will be fully exposed. (Male participant 6)

5.5.1.2 intimate partner violence (IPV)

Some of the sexual violence acts mentioned above are forms of IPV and it is unnecessary for them to be mentioned again.

Intimate partner violence: where a person suffers at the hands of someone she or he is in an intimate relationship with. This may be a married couple or people who are dating. Here it mainly happens in semester marriages. Student to student violence: Date night rape, beating, kicking. (Male student 8)

5.5.1.3 Transactional sex

Lecturer to student violence: Quid pro quo/ something for something or transactional violence/ thigh for a mark or sex for marks. Lecturer using his or her position to force a student to do something the student doesn't want to do and sees as a violation of rights. (Male student 2)

Ndipe ndikupewo (give me sex and I will give you marks). Some say that when a female student is a class representative, she will score high marks because you know she will be scratching their backs. (Male student 6)

5.5.1.4 Psychological and emotional violence

Mostly people pass hate comments as jokes and these jokes are often psychologically harmful to recipients, while name calling and whistling are other types of abuse that were identified:

Name calling; sometimes boys when they see a group of girls they will start shouting mahure mahure (prostitutes). (Female student 2)

These are very common at bus stations where mahwindi will name call and body shame ladie;s they even go to an extent where they tear a lady's clothes, when wearing miniskirts saying handi unoda kufamba wakashama (you want to walk naked). (Female student 6)

Some people will taunt people wearing long clothes saying hamuvaone here vanhu vekwamwazha vanopfeka magubvururu kudaro don't you see looks like a person who attends African apostolic church with their long baggy clothes. You will not get married with that kind of dressing they shout. (Male student 4)

Verbal abuse, for example name calling, in my case I don't like it when people call me slender, it psychologically affects me. People say some hateful words they don't have to be big but sometimes you don't know how that small little word will affect someone. (Female student 7)

Most of hateful words people say are said as jokes but some people are affected by them. And it doesn't really need to be a line of cursing and insults but sometimes one word can do the most damage imagine being called hure (prostitute) in the name of a joke affects you psychologically. (Female student 1)

Whistling when you are passing by boys it reduces your self-confidence you will start questioning your dressing or something about you. (Female student 3)

5.5.1.5 Economic violence

Girls are still not enjoying the same or similar economic benefits that boys do, they are still facing discrimination when it comes to positions of power that remain dominated by men. This will continue the cycle of violence as most women will only have inferior positions in the public space. Some end up unemployed and will depend on men for their survival, maintaining the cycle of violence.

Economic violence by not giving or not allowing the girl child to have access and enjoy the same rights as a boy child, like now there are still parents who don't allow their girls to attend university. And in remote rural areas some girls are not even allowed to go to school. At university I can say that if you check

the SRC there has never been a female president and it's always male dominated. (Female student 1)

Economical violence: lecturer to lecturer violence where the females will be made to feel inferior and fill inferior posts as compared to men. (Male student 3)

5.5.1.6 Physical violence

Not much was discussed on physical violence during this stage. Physical violence was mentioned in passing by only one participant, who gave the actions that constituted this form of violence. However, much was said about it on the causes and known people who experienced this kind of violation, which will be dealt with in sections to come.

Physical, like someone comes and beats me, bite you grab you and the like. (Female student 4)

This takes me back to the beginning when it was once said GBV is personally defined because some people are okay with some actions and behaviours while others view them as violation. For me if someone comes and touches me even my head, I feel violated. (Female student 2)

5.6 CAUSES OF GBV

5.6.1 Power Dynamics on GBV

GBV and VAW were noted to be stirred by toxic masculinity attitudes that establish women domination as a necessity, legitimising violence as an instrument for oppressing and enforcing acceptance of sexual advances. Men who display this trait to sustain or achieve power and domination use economic suppression, verbal and physical abuse and any other forms of abuse.

Masculinity kungodherera: so men thinking that they are more powerful than women and can use that power against them and women cannot do anything about it and patriarchy men being custodians of wealth and resources and women being subservient. (Male student 6)

We live in a male dominated society where men are the ones who are the custodians of resources and wealth, and women have subordinate positions so men will use their wealth and resources to force women to do what they want and, hence abusing women. (Female student 2)

The thing with GZU lecturers is that those who date students are united to an extent that if you reject A he doesn't fail you his module he will tell his friend

B and you will fail B's module and will not relate the causal relationship of the failure to rejecting A's proposal. (Female student 10)

Men with their superiority complex will tend to treat women as fragile and inferior to them, thus they will treat them anyhow knowing that they will do nothing in return. Men feel like if they treat women with respect, they will be less manly so violence will make the women fear and respect them. They use violence to assert their machismo. Everyone must feel that the man of the house is back, the wife and kids must cower in fear and silence. (Female student 9)

5.6.2 Socialisation and Cultural Norms and Attitudes

The occurrence of GBV is influenced by social and cultural values of violence, male entitlement, and gender roles. These participant sentiments show how socialisation and deeply ingrained ideas support and maintain the superiority of men and their dominance. Male students impose their control over female students because they are socialised to dominate women, and this shapes beliefs that encourage VAW.

Firstly, I will say culture, our cultural norms gives power to men over women, men must be dominant and controlling over women and are given the right to do anything to keep women in control. Lobola is another cultural thing that gives men power to be abuse female in the name of I paid lobola for you so even when I come home late you should wake up and heat my food. Women in marriage are being raped and infected with HIV because of lobola. The painful thing is they do not report these things. (Female interview girl 1)

I knew this couple on campus one day I passed through their place and shared some beers, and the girl didn't like the idea of me sharing beer with her boyfriend, so she disposed of the beer. I read the cues and left. The next morning the girl had belt marks on her thighs that showed she was physically assaulted I had to ask the boyfriend and he justified himself saying she disrespected me and, in our culture, if a lady disrespects a man, he must beat her to remind her of her place. If you beat her with a belt it means you love her, you just should not use fists. Some girls witnessed their mothers being abused and doing nothing about it so when abused they will not act. (FGD female student 1)

One of the things that is making women suffer at the hands of men is the issue of lobola. Women will be treated like property to do with as one pleases. You are not allowed to oppose the man's decisions and you don't have a say on anything. If you do anything the man doesn't like he beats on you. (Female student 8)

Male peers influence and encourage the perpetration of GBV and anyone who tries to speak against it ends up being treated differently, as one male participant stated:

Violence is being perpetrated because of statements like tsano rovai babe haungapindurwe nemusikana (beat the girl man, she cannot talk back at you). No woman is supposed to talk back at man it has been like that. Our mothers' responses were always yes. They never said no. It does not have to change now because they are educated. This education thing has made women uncontrollable they see themselves as our equals. If you try to speak out against violence on female students, you will be treated as a fool and you will become a laughingstock. (Male student 4)

Culture and religion were noted to be custodians of the perpetration of IPV as they are used to justify gendered violence. Women are not supposed to speak out on the abuse they suffer at the hands of their spouses. According to culture, there is nothing known as rape in marriage, as sex is viewed as a conjugal right men must enjoy, because they paid lobola. In the African culture, most elderly women are custodians of the perpetration of GBV as they socialise young girls to suffer in silence and do whatever men demand.

Sexual harassment and gender-based violence are reinforced and rooted in cultural and societal norms and religious expectations. In society at large, a woman is not allowed to refuse her husband sex as it is his so-called conjugal rights so a husband will force sex whether you like it or not. If he forces himself on her she cannot report to family members, aunties and grandparents are sometimes custodians of violence. If you tell them they say he paid bride prize for you so you must do everything he wants whenever and however he wants it. (Female student 1)

This is then passed on to boys they think if you are dating them, they have a right to your body whenever and however they want. Women must suffer in silence because of phrases like ndozvoita kuroorwa (that's what marriage is like) and chakafukidza dzimba matenga, usafumura hapwa (protect the struggles that are going on at home and don't expose the violence or anything happening) as it is universal you can't see it because it's so covered up. Religion says women must be submissive and obedient. You submit to sexual abuse, to derogatory words. Women continue in abusive marriages because religion says divorce is bad as if dying at the hands of the one who promised to protect you is good. (Female student 2)

A poisonous kind of masculinity that strives for women domination to validate its manhood is a result of the spread of sustained tenacious patriarchy, which overpowers and excludes females from influence. The fact that socialisation into such attitudes occurs in various contexts and poisonous masculinity is sustained and fostered by both women and men illustrates this. These socially construed masculinities are detrimental to society, to women and men as well.

5.6.3 Power Dynamics in Violence on Women

Patriarchal nature of society: We can all agree that most countries' governments are male dominant. Our parliament is male dominated so most of the rules and statutory will be in favour of what man wants. Most universities' management are male dominant. Back at family level the man is the one in control of all the resources that the family has. Men make all the decisions and women must agree to them women end up being dependent on men in all aspects of life and this gives men the power. This power will make men abusive. (Male student 10)

5.6.4 Bad economic conditions, poverty and financial dependency

Some wives are physically abused because they did not provide food for their husbands when they do not have any food to offer. (Female student 2)

Vulnerability and dependability: the person may be staying with a stepparent and will be dependent and vulnerable and cannot do anything about it. (Male student 3)

If my boyfriend is poor and as a girl, I need somethings which he cannot afford to provide, and I continue asking for these things it may result in verbal and even physical harassment. Nowadays girls are settling for violent relationships because of how the economy is. You hear he beats me and sleep with me against my will but at least he provides for me. (Female student 5)

Most female students because of the way the economy is, are depending on boyfriends and blessers for food and accommodation. Knowing that no one will do anything to jeopardise her sustenance they will be treated anyhow. (Female student 4)

At the boarding house I lived at, there was this girl who was in a relationship with a married man who was very abusive. He hid his stick under the girl's single bed and would use it on her every time she did what he didn't like. She wasn't allowed to hang out with other girls. I tried talking to her and she said she was okay with being in the abusive relationship because he provided food, he pays for her accommodation and everything which her parents could not do. She had to tolerate the physical and verbal abuse in exchange for sustenance. And she would say my mother would be beaten by my father but she is still alive so I will survive this. (Female student 6)

Students tolerate violence because the perpetrators are the ones providing for food and accommodation. The bad economic shape of the country has led a lot of students to engage in transactional relationships with older man and these relationships often end up being abusive. Pressurising a boyfriend to provide for flash things which he might not afford was identified to cause IPV

5.6.5 Semester marriages

There is this second-year student who is in a semester marriage all the boyfriend does is wake up buy marijuana and bronclear, the girl takes care of everything from toiletries, groceries and cook, clean the boyfriend comes back drunk and starts beating her. (Female student 5)

Semester marriages till graduation do us part; a boy and girl cohabiting as a way of cutting costs, mostly the girl will be doing most of the chores and will be expected to do wifely roles. Refusing to do any of the roles will result in a beating or insults. (Male student 3)

5.6.6 Jealousy

Jealousy, peer pressure, witnessing violence, and substance abuse as well as semester marriages were some of the factors identified as causing GBV.

Jealousy, say you are walking together with your boyfriend around campus or anywhere else and another man looks at you it can become something. And another scenario is you are walking, and a man starts talking to you if a boyfriend sees that he will lash insults at you saying you were encouraging him. (Female student 8)

Witnessing violence: The environment that a person grew up in affects the ways he perceives violence. Say a man witnessed his father physically abusing his mother as a child automatically he may think that that's how relationships are and in turn he will be a perpetrator of violence as parents are role models children learn from. (Male student 3)

5.6.7 Drug intoxication a contributing factor to GBV perpetration

When a person is intoxicated, he or she tends to be abusive, take drugs like marijuana the persons reasoning capacity will be impaired and will engage in violent behaviour. (Male student)

5.6.8 Other factors contributing factor to GBV perpetration

Peer pressure: If Tendai's boyfriend buys her Brazilian hair, Chipu will go and tell her man, you are nothing because you cannot afford Brazilian, she will be abusing that man and he in turn feeling insulted will resort to beating or insults. (Female student 6)

The other issue is there are other ladies who like to be involved in transactional relationships with their attachment bosses that when others go there, they think all girls are the same. (Female student 7)

Sometimes we accommodate and tolerate abuse in the name of, he is like that. When I did my attachment the boss liked to touch and pat people on the back

when speaking it made me so uncomfortable that I had to talk to other female employees and the response was that is just who he is you will get used to it. I had to tell him that his actions make me uncomfortable fortunately from that day it stopped. (Female student 1)

5.7 PREVALENCE OF GBV ON CAMPUS

Participants all mentioned that GBV was prevalent at GZU with IPV and transactional sex as the most prevalent forms of violence. IPV is most prevalent because of cohabiting and assumption of gender roles, which normally results in gendered violence.

Intimate partner violence: most semester marriages end up being abusive as the lady will be expected to perform all wifely duties and chores. Failure to perform these will result in violence. Men will be expected to provide for food and cover expenses, failure to do that will result in the guy receiving insults from the lady. Guys will end up their physique to intimidate and silence the ladies. (Male student 8)

I know of a girl who was beaten by her boyfriend because we had exam preparation discussions, so she didn't cook in time. Returning from lectures late resulted in a beating. (Female student 2)

There is this couple the boy is a drunkard the girl does all the chores. He goes clubbing every day and usually comes back around 2am every day the girl must wake up, warm his food, and receive some insults. (Female student 3)

Lecturer to student sexual harassment. (Male student 6)

Verbal abuse and physical abuse. (Female student 9)

5.8 VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN (VAW)

VAW was opined as the subordination of women and treating them as property; it manifests in all the forms that gendered violence manifest in - the only difference is the focus is only on women, including child marriages and female genital mutilation:

This is when men express their dominance and undermining the women's rights and treating as property. (Interview girl 2)

Violence on women is any act of violence that is perpetrated on women based on their disposition of being women. It includes all the types we mentioned before. It may be physical, verbal, intimate partner, psychological, economic, and emotional violence targeted on girls and women. It may be realised in child marriages, genital mutilations, denying the girl child the opportunity to go to

school and women who are not allowed to pursue a career by their spouses. (Female student 6)

A man not giving his wife the supports she needs while he doesn't allow her to work or do anything productive then be insulted every day for it. (Female student 4)

A man going out and coming back home at 3am asking the wife to prepare fresh food and beating her when she refuses to give him sex. (Male student 1)

Causes of VAW

All the causes mentioned on VAW are as for those mentioned on gendered violence. The causes are centred around masculinity, power imbalances, culture, and poverty, as well as financial dependency:

Can VAW be justified

All male participants agreed there was no way or circumstance in which violence can be justified. An interesting discussion arose in the female FGD, as nine participants had agreed violence cannot be justified. However, one participant raised issues that make perpetrators think they are justified for being violent:

Violence is bad so there is no way it can be justified. (Male students)

There is no way violence can be justified no circumstance whatsoever make violence justifiable. (Female students)

Yes, we might say violence cannot be justified but there are things that justify violence. And perpetrators stand justified through the eyes of culture and religion. Things like lobola make men justify violence like rape in marriages since they view it as their conjugal rights. Misinterpreting and misquoting the bible verses like wives be submissive to your husbands. Men are misinterpreting that verse and treat their wives as slaves if they try to call out the abusive behaviour, they will suffer for it. So, some people are using religion to justify violence on women. Cultural norms and values are being used to justify genital mutations, virginity checking, honour killings and child marriages. I am talking about justification what they stand with; we know the justifications are wrong and can be critiqued but they stand with these ones and some areas like remote rural areas they will win the case against their wives, though in the eyes of the law they will be wrong. If a wife doesn't cook food for the husband and the husband beats her for it wherever she goes in the community she will be told she deserves it. It's her duty to see that her husband ate after all he paid lobola for her. (Female student 2)

Culture and religion were identified as gatekeepers of GBV as in the eyes of culture and religion some abusive behaviours are viewed as the right way of doing things.

There is this story I once read in a newspaper, a man beat his wife because she didn't give him the chicken back and drumstick. They went to the village chief, and he fined the wife asked her to apologize and go prepare a full chicken and give it all to the husband. So, I think you are right there. And again, there was a woman in our street her husband always beat her, one day she decided enough is enough she boiled a tin of water when the husband was about to beat her, she poured hot water on him. In my opinion we can justify her action. (Female student 6)

When a man comes back from work and finds there is no food prepared and beat his wife that she didn't do her role as a wife, culture will justify his violence. If he is providing for everything, he feels justified for any abusive tendencies he may be displaying. If a wife try to talk to others about it, they usually say chikuru uchichengetwa (the important thing is he is providing so let it go). (Female student 7)

And when a lady is about to be married on those bridal showers, they are indoctrinated to accept some abusive things as normal, so they end up suffering in silence. Ladies are being told whatever you face don't tell people kneel and tell to God. Men take advantage of this indoctrination and abuse women. Ukada kuudza vamwe kuti ndiri kurohwa vanoti pfugama unamata (yes, God answers prayers but will not come physically to hold the husband's hands when he is about to beat his wife). Some stories we hear about wives killing their husbands and burning them with hot cooking oil is because they would have suppressed their feelings for a long time and when they retaliate it will be with something big. (Female student 1)

Violence was viewed as bad but sometimes necessary when it comes to retaliation, with violence sometimes used as a defending mechanism. Those who suffer violence for a long time in silence are most likely to commit murder the first chance they get.

5.9 EFFECTS OF GBV

GBV is noted to cause mental health issues, poor performance, absenteeism, and health issues, along with suicides and attempted suicides, as well as substance abuse:

Of the case I know of the girl ended up isolating. I had a friend who experienced sexual violence. She was in an abusive semester marriage, so we had to try to talk to her and she took it in the wrong way. The girl ended up avoiding people and not attending lectures, group discussions. I had to look for someone to go

and talk to her. And sometimes the lecturer would come and say I know there is a semester marriage couple here she ended up isolating herself. (Female student 2)

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder. (Male student 7)

Attempted suicide and suicide. (Male student 1)

STDs. (Female student 3)

Dropping out of school when that lecturer was harassing me: I almost dropped out, someone counselled me and told me that since he is only your lecturer for a single semester do not drop out. Some people are dropping out because of GBV. (Female student 1)

You can also date a lecturer and he will fail you for that. I had a roommate who dated three lecturers and they all made her fail their modules and unfortunately, she dated one of those lecturers the next semester and he made sure that she failed that module too. (Female student 4)

Poor academic performance. (Male student 6)

Drug and substance abuse. (Male student 3)

Unwanted pregnancies. (Female student 5)

Forced unsafe abortions: students in semester marriages are being forced to abort which is violence on its own. It's risky in this country since it's illegal and people do it without professional knowledge some end up dying during the process. (Female student 10)

The economy is affected as the government will have to channel more resources on issues caused by violence. (Male student 4)

Low self confidence and self-esteem and high possibilities of revictimization. (Male student 9)

Individual factors as well as socio economic effects were identified as impacts that always extend to affect the family and the community. Suicide of a university student affects the labour market. Effects such as divorce and physical paralysis, while some end up dying in an attempt to do unsafe illegal abortions.

- **Effects of violence on perpetrators**

The effect of violence extends to perpetrators as well, since they may experience mental issues, self-loathing and may end up leading lonely lives. Incarceration is the other effect on perpetrators, losing one's job, as well as being expelled from school.

I think perpetrators are affected by their behaviour in the aftermath of the act. They became psychologically affected, the guilt and shame may lead others to commit suicide. (Female student 3)

Every person has conscience sometimes when you go to bed there are those minutes a person will be trying to sleep or when a person has a moment alone, he or she will end up digesting and some they tend to hate themselves over what they did. Some they even pull out of relationships and end up living their whole lives alone for fear of perpetrating violence again. (Female student 2)

Sometimes they are scared to love again not because they don't want to be in love, but they are scared violent tendencies repeating. (Male student 10)

If students fight or if a person physically assaults someone you pay a penalty and tuition fees for the person you assaulted for that semester. (Male student 2)

Sometimes students are expelled for physical assault depending on how grave the damage is. (Female student 4)

They say if you are sexually harassed report the lecturer and he will be fired with immediate effect. If it's a student that student will be expelled from the university. (Female student 5)

5.10 EXPERIENCES OF GBV

Participants spoke of their own experiences, as well as those of people they knew. Some of the experiences mentioned were court cases. People stay in abusive relationships because of love and being manipulated to believe they are loved.

There are a lot of cases especially lecturer to student violence. (Male student 3)

There was this incident that happened during our second semester here of a student who was in a semester marriage and the boyfriend thought the guys who were on block release were using financial muscles to lure the girl away from him, so he started verbally abusing the girl the scene was so bad. (Male students)

The girl failed to attend lectures for a whole week maybe she was ashamed or something. Nothing was done to the boy, but the girl was affected because that week we were having discussions preparing for our exams. (Female student 8)

There is even a case that is before the courts involving a lecturer who gave a student a fail because she had rejected his proposal for a relationship. The lecturer is alleging that he gave three other lecturers to remark her paper, but she failed on all occasions the other side is saying the other three gave her passes so we are waiting for the judgement from the courts. The lecturer is on suspension pending judgement. (Male student 10)

Both male and female students are perpetrators and victims of GBV on campus depending on the circumstances though females are more prone to being victimised. Some victims normalise the violence that they cannot stay away from it.

Even ini pachangu I face violence due to the way I dress. They call me names. (Male student 5)

I know of a girl who was in a semester marriage with a guy who used to beat her every day. We tried to talk to the girl to end the relationship, but she had developed the Stockholm syndrome and would still go back to the abusive relationship. She had built unnecessary resistance and resilience. (Male student 6)

I was once in an abusive relationship before, I could not report it because I was so in love with the person to an extent that I tolerated his abusive behaviour and every time he beat me, he would buy me a box of chocolates knowing that I love chocolates. (Female student 4)

There is a couple I know of they are now separated but when the wife gave birth you know the vagina won't remain as it was as a virgin so the husband started insulting the wife saying he cannot sleep with someone who is now like a cow. She was traumatized and those words affected her. Women are now forced to do and use a lot of unhealthy things for vaginal tightening all for a man's satisfaction. Most of the things cause cancer. (Female student 3)

5.11 MEASURES THE UNIVERSITY PUT IN PLACE TO CURB GBV

There is a sexual harassment policy put in place by the university as a way of ending sexual harassment. I question its effectiveness because since its enactment cases seem to be increasing. (Female student 9)

There are boards that represent students like the SRC and student affairs department where you can report your issues. But now the SRC is male dominated so female students are less represented. (Male student 7)

- **Measures the university can take**

Awareness campaigns. female student and the awareness campaigns should be done frequently. (Male student 8)

I wouldn't say the university must tell people to wear uniforms but I think there is decent dressing that should be enforced. I don't know how to put it, but the dress code should be monitored. Some dressing we see here is abuse to men in a way. So, the university should say something on dress code with decency. Look at what is done in courts your go there decently dressed in formal. And

Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti university has dress code. If it is done here it might help. (Male student 4)

The university should set in place strict policies and laws and should ensure the policies are well enforced on perpetrators. If a student abuses a student, he/she must be expelled. If a lecturer abuses a student, he must be fired after a thorough investigation. (Female student 3)

They should have suggestion boxes where people can drop information on what they think the university should do. It might help others to unanimously report cases of GBV (Male student 5)

Make GBV a mass module for all students at entry level and make it mandatory that everyone who comes to GZU enrolls in a GBV course. (Male student 9)

As the university has a radio station, they should have a time where issues of GBV are discussed. (Male student 6)

There is need for quick responsive action when some of the issues are reported. (Male student 7)

They must be an independent office specifically there for GBV cases reporting because now when someone becomes victimised where do they go to. You end up going to report your case maybe to a friend of your perpetrator and that will be the end of it. Lecturers tend to protect each other if they are all involved in victimising students. (Male student 2)

Have a counselling office with independent counsellors who are not part of management and are not lecturers. (Male student 4)

Ensure that contraceptive pills are accessible on campus to deal with these unwanted pregnancies and unsafe abortions. (Female student 6)

The discussion raised many matters students proposed the university would act on. These include frequent awareness campaigns, a mass module on GBV for every first-year student to conscientize students on GBV and reduce it on campus. Issues around enforcing a kind of dress code were also raised in the male discussion. Furthermore, students wish for the establishment of an independent GBV unit, with counsellors and staff who are not part of the university's academia and management.

5.12 REPORTING OF ISSUES

Opinions on the reporting of GBV cases varied, with some who believed reporting cases stops violence, while others believed it does not help as cases are processed slowly and there are long

waiting periods. Others believed reporting cases made the situation worse for victims. Some victims fear to be blamed, so they end up not reporting cases.

Sometimes GBV is worsened by not reporting cases to authorities. When I was on my attachment one of the permanent workers used to verbally assault me, I reported the issue, and a staff meeting was called, and he was given a stern warning in the presence of other employees. I am sure it served as an example to others that violence of any sort was unwelcome at the workplace. (Female student 1)

The issue of married couples reporting GBV is slowly processed as they must apply through the attorney general, which is a long process, so most people end up not reporting at all. (Male student 5)

The bad thing about reporting is yes, that lecturer may be suspended action taken against him, but he will leave his buddies and they will make you pay for it. You won't even know it because you will not know the team. (Female student 5)

Sometimes people cannot report date night rape because you are scared of what your parents will do when they hear you are dating let alone sleeping over at a boy's place. You know African mothers are of the sentiment that if you spare the rod you spoil the child. On top of the rape, they will beat you first, ask you and comfort you later. And parents won't even want you to report it as they fear the case can bring shame to the family. (Female student 9)

Sometimes people are not aware of the existence of such boards and what entails GBV. The other thing is that sometimes you will be in a compromising position when you are victimized so you start blaming yourself and you really cannot report the issue since you know it will result in witness blaming. For that you cannot even go home and advocate for your peace in a semester marriage, parents will kill me, violence will kill me, and my mom will kill me more. Sometimes you be victimised when you are drunk at home, they don't know that you drink so there is no way you will report that case. You can't tell your mom about the violence you experience while cohabiting. (Female student 2)

Imagine going to a bar getting drunk and then you get raped afterwards people will blame it on you so if there are no witnesses that might not be reported. (Female student 1)

Most cases go unreported because of fear of stigmatisation, you will be identified by what was done to you. (Male student 3)

Rape cases are not reported because when people are dating, they don't take it as rape though your partner may force himself on you. People do not know that when an intimate partner force you to have sex it is still rape that can be

reported. People only classify it as rape when it's a stranger or someone you are not dating. (Female student 10)

People are even scared of reporting rape for fear of stigmatisation. People will start calling you by what happened to you it's like they forget your name and they automatically start calling you the raped girl. (Female student 6)

5.13 MALE STUDENTS' RESPONSE TO GBV

Most of us are part of the ZimRights organization which focuses on peacebuilding, elections, democracy, human rights monitoring, and respect of women rights and so on, so we discuss a lot about issues on gendered violence. When you introduced your topic, we were excited because now our views get to be on paper and because of the action plan we are going to do something to reduce GBV. We are taught to advocate for peace and the rights of the disadvantaged groups. So, we advocate for women rights. (Male student 7)

One day we had to stop a fight, we heard a girl crying in a room we knocked and knocked until we had to break the door and stop the boyfriend from bashing her. It was so bad. We had to report him to the administration but unfortunately nothing was done to him. (Male student 6)

transactional relationship is for financial gain and end up enduring and tolerating all sorts of abusive behaviour. Though the scourge was noted to be pervasive and detrimental, cases are hardly reported for fear of victimisation and that nothing of substance will come out of reporting. Many effects were identified and impact students' health, coping mechanisms and academic achievements. The following chapter will focus on the discussion of these findings

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the discussion of findings in relation to relevant literature themes. A review of what other scholars state on the causes, effects, and nature of GBV, pertaining to the FGDs and interview findings, will be presented.

6.2 VIOLENCE

Violence was understood from numerous points of view; however, all these perspectives point to intentional violation of a person's rights. Physical, psychological, sexual, and economic violence were identified, where these all entail the intentional infliction of harm on someone who does not want to be harmed. Violence can be used as a means of defence or retaliation to protect oneself from the abuser, with people attending self-defence classes to learn ways of blocking and hitting the abuser as a way of defending themselves (Hamby 2017: 168). Furthermore: "The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation" (Krug *et al.* 2002: 5).

The study findings are in line with the perspectives of the above scholars, as one female student opined it is an invasion of personal space and an infliction of fear.

Is something that intimidates my personal space and causes me to fear for my life. It may be someone who comes and raise his or her voice on me or someone may come to inflict physical harm on me. (FGD Female student 1)

It was noted violence results in killing someone, for example, in the case of the beheading of Tapiwa Makore (Chingwe 2020) depriving him of his life. It can also be a wife retaliating after a long time of suffering abuse at the hands of her husband, who ends up poisoning or burning her husband with hot cooking oil. Violence results in fear, fear of attending lectures and being

in close proximity to men. Suppression of feelings was identified to result in monstrous acts such as poisoning an intimate partner.

6.3 GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE (GBV)

GBV from the participants' perspectives can adopt the same definition as violence, because both violate individuals' rights. Due to women being the most survivors of the concept, it was highlighted that this is the reason GBV is mostly regarded as VAW this is in line with the definitions by UN (1993) and Mawire (2013). In addition, it was duly agreed the phenomenon is a problem for both men and women. Child abuse and child marriages were identified as part of GBV. Although women are those mostly affected, instances of male victimisation should not be disregarded. A case of a male student who was killed by his girlfriend (Majangaza 2020) proves certain cases of male victimisation on campuses.

Defining GBV was perceived to be subjective, based on grounds such as culture, religion and where one comes from (Makhene, 2022). Certain matters, viewed as violation of rights by some, are normal to others, due to the way people were socially, religiously, and culturally socialised. Societies endorse GBV to the extent where it becomes normalised and not viewed as violence. The discussion proved both male and female participants' awareness of what GBV is and the nature it manifests in. Other than defining it, some participants listed the acts that constitute gendered violence. Male child preference was, for instance, mentioned as an act of gendered violence, since resources are fully channelled for the empowerment of a boy child, at the expense of a girl child, citing that she will get married, and her husband will cater for her needs. This socialises a girl child to feeling inferior to boys.

6.4 CAUSES OF GBV

Unclear and vague policies on GBV were agreed to be a causal factor of gendered violence, with the policy not widely known; therefore, violence is perpetrated as there is no clear laws regulating it at university level. Additionally, the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation and, Science, Technology and Development (MHTEISTD) lacks a clear and universal policy on GBV at national level; one of the reasons lecturers sexually abuse students (Shumba and Matina 2002). Another reason is the lack of knowledge of students' rights and inadequate awareness on actions that institute GBV (Mutinta 2022: 1; UNESCO 2021: 7),

while university policies on GBV are also vague and not properly enforced, thus encouraging perpetration. When available, the policies only address sexual harassment by lecturers, with nothing stated on students. Policies should come from the MHTEISTD for universal applicability on all HTEIs in the country to avoid issues of administration protecting staff (UNESCO 2021: 7).

Some university authorities protect lecturers who are perpetrators of violence based on their relationships and this encourages the perpetuation of GBV, and non-reporting of cases. Most students in Zimbabwean tertiary institutions lack adequate financial support from home and are likely to engage in sexual relationships with male lecturers and Blessers. These kinds of relationships also often do not end well, specifically at the realisation the man is married and the girl wants to end the relationship. Female students engage in these inter-generational relationships for monetary benefits and sustenance, support, protection and grade improvements for assignments, tests, and examinations. Others agree to violent relationships to “boost their status and acquire flashy clothes, phones and accessories and live a flashy life” (Dlomo et al. 2012: 270).

Boyfriend and girlfriend living together (cohabitation) or as they are familiarly called in Zimbabwean HTEIs, semester marriages, were identified as a contributing factor to student IPV, which concurs findings by Mutinta (2022: 2), who posited cohabiting is fertile ground for experiencing IPV among students.

Socialisation, Attitudes, and Power Dynamics

Social beliefs of violence, gendered roles, and male prerogative are catalysts in GBV incidences in HTEIs. As these traditions validate GBV and subsequently, results in prejudices in responses specified to occurrences of GBV. Social institutions were identified as role players that contribute to people perpetrating violence and going about their lives as if nothing happened, because these institutions have norms in place that endorse men’s use of violence. The same institutions promote a culture of silence by victims, through statements such as “*all marriages are like that, persevere and don’t talk about what happens behind closed doors*”.

Female students agreed religion has, instead of helping in conflict resolutions and promoting peace, now become a gatekeeper of violence. When a lady tries to speak about her experiences, she is told to pray about it and learn to be more submissive to the husband. “*Listen in silence*

and do whatever the husband wants you to do". Some female students stay in abusive relationships because they witnessed their mothers suffering abuse from their fathers, and nothing being done about it. Notably, GBV victims tend to normalise violence following perpetually experiencing it or watching it occurring with no inhibition (Bleich *et al.* 2019).

Consequently, people are taught at an early age how to act towards others through observing how individuals are treated. Research indicates people who are subjected to violence at organisations of socialisation (home, schools, places of worship or any other environment) at a tender age, are most likely to be engaged in violence as adults, either as offenders or victims (Fry, Skinner & Wheeler 2019; Mncube *et al.* 2021: 55). This is the result of violence normalisation that unfolds in these environments, with these institutions providing offenders and victims with justifications for their experiences. Acculturation and indoctrinated attitudes embed and nurture male dominion and superiority in the educational environment. Men's socialisation to women domination shapes attitudes that establish VAW; consequently, male students pursue affirming their 'authority' over female students and lecturers tend to do the same.

Proliferation of persistent patriarchy (male-controlled society that subdues and prohibits women from power) has encouraged poisonous forms of machismo that strive for women domination, to establish and demonstrate masculinity (Sarieddine 2018). This is epitomised by the understanding that socialising into such attitudes occurs in diverse environments, and 'toxic masculinity' is equally endorsed by women and men (Connell 2013). Poisonous manliness, which is evident in GBV in education are evidenced by students' experiences, denoted as collectively constructed explanations of machismo, can be detrimental to institutions, females, and to males (Elliott 2018).

Although it is traditionally believed male dominance is a product of men's attitudes, the viewpoint and findings presented above demonstrates how this belief is not entirely true. Both men and women are involved in the creation and endorsing of destructive masculinity which, in turn, increases GBV incidences.

The above-mentioned views of male and female students equally substantiate the discoveries of an inquiry on the effect of socialisation on GBV, which indicated women are socialised to be submissive to men, while men are socialised to be dominant over women (Fry *et al.* 2019). This is attributed to males being pressurised by their peers to show machismo through initiating

domination and control over females. This habitually leads to construction of destructive masculinities, which typically manifest as overcompensation for self-doubt through sexual subjugation, and this clearly promotes GBV (Fry *et al.* 2019).

Mudau and Obadire (2017) expand this claim by positing that, in traditional societies where patriarchy is rampant, females are viewed as ineligible for work; hence going to school and university is considered a luxury. This is due to patriarchy positioning males above females, thus providing a collective structure that awards men unchallenged authority. Studies have revealed enough evidence that shows patriarchal societies view females as weak, incapable, and dependent on males. This is evident in the way males control all facets of life, from whether the women should work or not, the kind of work females should do, and condom use, to when to have sex, conceive, and what the women should and should not wear. (Mudau and Obadire 2017; Sikweyiya *et al.* 2020). GBV against female students, on campus and anywhere, can be regarded as a fortification of male supremacy – specifically since more females are choosing adult basic education (Aitchison & Land 2019; UNESCO 2020).

GBV is, therefore, endorsed as an appropriate method of imposing male domination over women, by males who are intimidated by women's empowerment as a result of the assistance of education. Socialisation and attitudes thus play a significant part in perpetration of all kinds of GBV experienced in educational institutions.

It was uncovered that GBV in the university is premised on the inability to acknowledge denial, or rejection of a lecturer's (someone holding a position of influence) sexual advances to a student. Such flagrant manipulations expose how extreme power dynamics imbed GBV in educational institutions. Some male students believed that some female students provoke sexual harassment in the way they dress; this attitude will tend to normalise victim-blaming. Victim blaming was also established by research done at a university in Ethiopia by (Kaufman *et al.* (2019) where participants also blamed rape victims of their dressing.

A female student pointed out since gendered violence is personally defined, some men act a certain way with ladies and the ladies do not call out the actions, therefore, he begins to normalise his actions and try it on someone, who then feels uncomfortable. In other words, silence sometimes encourages the perpetration of violence in the name of “*that's who he is. He is like that, he likes to touch people*”.

It was also brought to light that some bosses and lecturers, when they encounter two or three girls who enjoy being in transactional relationships, tend to think all girls want to engage in transactional sex. Further to this, jealousy, peer pressure, ignorance and treating a sleepover as consenting for sex were other causes attributed to resulting in GBV.

6.5 NATURE OF GBV ON CAMPUS

The findings revealed sexual harassment frequently occurs in HTEIs, and female students mostly suffer from *Quid pro quo* harassment from lecturers and ‘blessers.’ Kaufman *et al.* (2019), in line with the findings, claim this is a result of female students’ low financial position and established relational dynamics, such as the expectation that they must engage in sexual intercourse and date men so as to receive monetary sustenance (Makhene 2022). This increases their probability of being victimised and for subjection to sexual intimidation, particularly when coupled with male’s drug and alcohol use. Female students partake in transactional sex with ‘blessers’ to cater for their fundamental requirements (sustenance, clothes, tuition, and accommodation) or to attain coveted consumer items such as an iPhone, trendy apparel, and fancy cosmetics, in conjunction with the social standing in owning such flashy and expensive material possessions (Forbes-Mewett and McCulloch 2016).

Research conducted by Shefer, Clowes and Vergnani (2012) on university learners in SA, revealed female students become involved in violent transactional sexual relations with blessers for status and financial gain and end up with STDs.

IPV was revealed to be common among student–student violation because of being sexually active and living with a partner (semester marriages). Hostile environment was another form identified as lecturer to student sexual violence and a participant revealed she almost dropped out during her first year at the university, due to the sexually focused attention and messages she was receiving from a particular lecturer. Female students were also identified as perpetrators of IPV through forcing boyfriends to have sex as a way of covering for infidelity with older men the findings are supported by Majangaza (2020) who viewed women as perpetrators of violence. No report was attained of male students being sexually abused by female lecturers. Offenders of sexual abuse were noted to be boyfriends, lecturers, sugar daddies, and friends, as well as work placement bosses and acquaintances. Mutinta (2022: 8) also confirmed boyfriends, friends, strangers, and lecturers as perpetrators of sexual violence.

The inquiry revealed nearly 58 percent female students in public colleges in the Eastern Cape experienced some form of GBV in their campus life (Mutinta 2022).

Female undergraduates also referred to male students and some off-campus individuals who vocally pester them with reprehensible sexual remarks for rejecting their dating propositions. Additionally, lecturers are not exempt in this issue, as they fail those who refuse them sex. These sentiments support what was established by Almaz *et al.* (2015: 36) in their study on the prevalence of all forms of sexual abuse.

The pervasiveness of GBV among female students is in consensus with various earlier studies done in SA and the combined predicted occurrence of GBV among adolescents in HTEIs within SSA (Jewkes *et al.* 2002). The findings are supported by a cross-sectional analysis carried out on the prevalence and factors correlated with GBV among undergraduates in Botswana that discovered 62 percent had experienced gendered violence (Arnold *et al.* 2008). Moreover, a systematic review of literature investigating the pervasiveness of GBV amongst female students in SSA also discovered related findings (Beyene *et al.* 2019).

The findings show female students experience sexual harassment from various offenders, reinforced by studies showing sexual abuse experiences in SA (Mutinta 2022); Sierra Leone (Alexander 2017), and Nigeria (Iliyasu *et al.* 2011), while a study by Shumba and Matina (2002) showed a high pervasiveness of sexual violence in Zimbabwean HTEIs.

It was established from the findings that female students were shown as perpetrators of verbal abuse due to peer pressure and competition. They nag and harass their boyfriends when they fail to provide flashy products such as Brazilian hair and other fancy products their peers receive from their transactional relationships.

A male student opined there is some form of spiritual violence, particularly for students who are part of the African Apostolic Church, as they dress in clothes that cover everything, and girls cover their heads all the time, which elicits scorn and ridicule. On a different front, some students were said to send pornographic content in groups meant for delivering school related content. The joint portfolio committee found some students send pornographic content, said to result in sexual abuse. The report also revealed physical sexual abuse between lecturers and students was highly prevalent, in addition to verbal and sexual abuse being a prevalent form of student-student violence (Veritas 2022: 4).

6.6 EFFECTS OF GBV

Both male and female students agreed GBV is detrimental to a survivor's physical and mental health and it affects survivors' academic outcomes. The perpetrators were also noted to experience some form of mental health effects due to perpetrating violence. The effects of GBV on campus are well documented. Experiencing sexual harassment in HTEIs leads to negative bodily, mental, and educational outcomes for individuals. Examples such as annoyance, resentment, stress, and distress, as well as feeling powerless and humiliated are frequent in research literature. Studies specifically confirm sexual harassment in HTEIs leads to depression (Selkie *et al.* 2015; Storey and August 2016), trepidation (Swan and Fitzgerald 1997), PTSD and decreased job prospects (Henning *et al.* 2017), as well as bodily pain, unwelcome pregnancies, and STDs (Mutinta 2022), amplified by alcohol abuse (Fedina, Holmes and Backes 2018).

GBV survivors are more likely to exhibit heightened levels of anxiety, dejection, and low self-importance. These detrimental effects result in financial costs for individual victims and society at large. Victimized women are more prone to self-isolation, panic attacks, difficulty falling asleep, and eating problems (Makhene, 2022). The findings reveal that abuse results in students skipping lectures, failing courses, dropping out of school or a module, and changing supervisors. Students may also be forced to change a company for their work placement, as attested to by one female participant. Survivors of rape are likely to contract HIV, unwanted pregnancies and end up being forced to have unsafe abortions. Substance abuse was also identified as an effect of victimisation. In support of the findings, Wondimu (2019) asserted the problem of low self-esteem is one of the problems victims experience, in addition to skipping classes, engaging in unruly behaviour in the lecture room and abandoning education altogether.

6.7 GBV EXPERIENCES OR CASES

Women pursuing tertiary education were and still are exposed to belittling remarks, groping, caressing, and ogling, along with unambiguous sexual propositions from male students, as well as academic and non-academic staff. (Kaufman *et al.* 2019). These actions are brutal reminders of their exertions, intellect and creativity being overlooked with their sexual features and traits the focus. While it is believed a higher education status for a woman reduces the likelihood of

being a GBV victim, research has proven otherwise, as these women are more susceptible to GBV in learning institutions, the community, and workplaces (Makhubele *et al.* 2018). This may be attributed to the notion most African societies hold that women are the home keepers and child bearers and should not be career oriented.

Students reported some of their experiences and those they heard about or witnessed. Some tried some form of bystander intervention, however, the survivor involved had developed Stockholm syndrome and they ended up being confronted by the abusive partner. Other cases that surfaced in the discussion had not necessarily happened at the university, neither were they about university students, although another case was said to be in the court of law concerning a lecturer and a student.

Experiences of GBV are not limited to university campuses, female students are also prone to experiencing GBV from bosses and other male employees when on attachment. Dube *et al.* (2021: 294) concur industrial training sites are fertile ground for female victimisation, since they are treated as ‘fresh meat’ and a conquest for the men at the organisations where they take up placement. Offenders range from the low-level employee to top management. When they are turned down, they resort to passing negative recommendations, thereby affecting the assessment outcome for the student.

6.8 VAW

There was understanding of what VAW entails and the causes and effects were noted to be similar to those of GBV. Furthermore, on the question whether it can be justified, the male focus group opined violence is bad, so there is no way it can be justified. In the female discussion, nine of the ten participants shared the same sentiments as the male group but one student disagreed and the debate became interesting. She pointed out that while violence cannot be justified, there are some social structures that men stand with to justify violence. In the eyes of culture, a man is justified for forcing sex on his wife. Violence was also said to be justifiable as a way of self-defence and retaliation.

6.9 REPORTING ISSUES

There is undeniably underreporting and understudying of GBV cases at universities due to a culture of silence. As put forward by UNESCO (2021: 9), cultural and societal norms make

GBV acceptable, endorsed and tolerated, making it difficult for survivors to report cases. Additionally, the organisation contends student failure to report emanates from lack of trust in HTEI authorities, who are perceived as the main perpetrators, with a vested interest to deal with cases. Silence nonetheless makes it conducive for offenders to keep on abusing their authority in forcing female students to accede to their requests and demands. By implication, many female students endure in silence for fear of being victimised by some male lecturers throughout the duration of their programmes. Such actions might be replicated from generation to generation in universities and all tertiary institutions.

The findings were in line with Dlomo *et al.* (2012: 271), who opined students do not report cases of violence because the administration does not act at all, and when they do, it is usually slow. Non-reporting is also due to protection that male lecturers receive from management and renders reporting useless, while the victim ends up suffering more consequences. Students may be reluctant to report sexual harassment by lecturers for fear of failing exams and revictimisation, while also not being believed for lack of evidence. Student-to-student violence is, furthermore, also not reported for fear of an offender being expelled, and fear of being labelled and mocked (UNESCO 2021: 8). Non-reporting can be accredited to the system and conspiracy of silence surrounding issues of sexuality (Shumba *et al.* 2011).

The culture generates a situation where no effort is made to deal with the challenges of GBV thoroughly and consciously. Traditionally, sexual matters are supposed to be dealt with discreetly and whispered about, never to be vocalised openly, viewed as a source of humiliation for survivors and their families. The findings were in line with what was posited by Makhene (2022) who postulated that issues of GBV are not vocalised. It was pointed out that non-reporting is due to fear of being resented by family and being physically abused (beaten), particularly when talking about violence perpetrated when intoxicated, since it is against family values. A spirit of silence forbids or condemns openness in talking of issues involving sexual harassment and GBV.

In the light of this, it is thus truthful to point out that families, administration and lack of clear policies and their enforcement discourage reporting of violence.

Being in a compromising position that contradicts family values was also linked to non-reporting of violence by female students. The compromising positions were pointed out to be being intoxicated and cohabiting “*when those at home are not aware that you drink, or you*

have a boyfriend’ so, reporting was said to be difficult and a ‘no attempt issue’ as more violence might follow.

6.10 MEASURES THE UNIVERSITY SHOULD TAKE

The students pointed out the institution should place suggestion boxes around the campuses for easier and anonymous reporting of cases, while also putting an independent office with independent staff in place to deal with GBV issues. The need was further highlighted for universities to be prompt in responding to and dealing with reported cases. In addition, a need exists for clear articulation of the GBV policies and their proper enforcement. The entire institution should be involved in the fight against the scourge of GBV. According to Davids (2020), preventing GBV calls for an inclusive structure. Invariably, all HTEIs are obliged to establish policies on sexual harassment and associated issues. For fear of damaging their credibility, institutions are reluctant to speak on and deal with GBV. Addressing contextual and cultural norms, and structures that strengthen gendered prejudice and discrimination, should be fundamental principles for the GBV prevention framework. The institution should add a GBV course in its curricular and make it compulsory for every first-year student, as a way of increasing awareness on the phenomenon.

As asserted by Richards and Kafonek (2017:273), effective prevention programmes must have the subsequent features: comprehensiveness, theory-motivated, boost constructive relationships, and socially and culturally pertinent, while using a variety of training approaches, delivered in satisfactory quantity, in a timely fashion, with highly qualified staff, and embrace the desirable outcome assessment. The general idea is that those in charge of campus safety should steer the anti-GBV initiative at the school. Furthermore, the programmes should recognise and direct their attention towards students and staff who are vulnerable or in need.

Joseph (2015) postulates the effectiveness of GBV policies is largely dependent on the degree to which they are adhered to by educational institutions such as colleges and universities. The academic community, the management of the school, the campus workers, and the students themselves must all support the preventative programmes. Campaigns run across the entire campus need to send a strong message regarding the existing intolerance for GBV, the consequences in place for students who violate the associated behaviour standards, and the support and services available to victims (Makhene 2022: 242).

Todorova (2018) recommended information concerning sexual and GBV assaults within institutions should be collected by independent researchers and organisations. This would help eliminate institutional and state self-interest and reduce structural gender, as well as racial, and heteronormative power and bias. Additionally, individuals and survivors of GBV in universities should be encouraged to speak out to the public about GBV utilising media.

The intake of alcohol and drugs, the availability of platforms to role models that reflect misogynistic, sexist, and racist ideals and attitudes, as well as events predisposed to aggressive, hateful, and damaging behaviour should be discouraged in social places (Collins *et al.* 2009). Peacock and Barker (2014) believe it is essential for males to participate in efforts to combat GBV. Engaging males in the fight for gender equality, on the other hand, should not detract from efforts being made to empower women; rather, it should support and enhance progress being made toward increasing commitment by the institution and the government to end GBV.

6.11 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE GOVERNMENT AND MINISTRY

Men have, because of patriarchy, traditionally been in charge of making decisions, holding positions of leadership, and occupying influential positions in political and productive spheres (Akala & Divala 2016). The attitudes of those in authoritative positions, as well as the ethos of blaming victims, work together to stifle the opinions of women. The power of the legal system should be expanded by the government for it to respond correctly to domestic violence situations. This might be accomplished by passing or implementing laws that protect the legal rights of partners subjected to abuse. Furthermore, the programmes must encourage victims to come out, speak on abuse, and ask for aid in order to put a stop to it (Makhubele *et al.* 2018).

It is more important than ever to create or improve institutional systems that enable women to report incidents of violence committed against them in a setting that is secure and confidential, without fear of being punished or retaliated against, and without the fear of being subjected to retaliation (Makhubele *et al.* 2018). For judicial, legal, and medical reasons, as well as to sensitise police officials regarding the nature of GBV and ensure victims are treated fairly, it is essential the government construct, refine, develop, and fund training programmes. It is also essential that the government build these programmes.

The MHTEISTID must set, as one of its primary strategic goals, the enhancement of the security of students and staff members in HTEIs. This can only be accomplished through

implementation of comprehensive prevention programmes that increase awareness of GBV policies and services in HTEIs, as well as other preventative actions. The purpose of this is to create a secure place, bring attention to the issue, and offer aid. Magudulela (2017) suggested plans should incorporate events, such as dialogues, panel discussions, media interviews, as well as participatory visual methodologies (photo, voice, art, drama, and poetry), social media campaigns, and collaboration with other like-minded parties, in order to raise awareness and educate students with regard to GBV and how to prevent it.

GBV impacts both men and women, although it was clearly pointed out in the discussions that women are the majority victims. Survivors of gendered violence in academia were established to often be more prone to exhibiting poor performance (Beyene *et al.* 2019), with a greater rate of deferring and dropping out compared to their peers not subjected to abuse (Bekele *et al.* 2015). The finding proved universities are really microcosms of the main environment they exist in, as they reproduce and depict what is happening in the entire country, where the causes of GBV reported at the university are similar to those reported in the country.

6.12 CONCLUSION

GBV is pervasive and its effects are unnerving. Even though the scourge is prevalent, most cases do not become exposed as there is a culture of non-reporting due to several reasons, some personal and some institutional. Many identified acts that constitute GBV are often normalised, with male students cited as engaging in them since they seem harmless. The institution and government have much to do to make institutions the safe haven and women empowerment agents they are intended to be. For appropriate measures to be employed as a way of dealing with GBV, reporting all types of cases should be encouraged as it appears people mostly report cases involving beating and dragging. The chapter focused on a discussion of results shown in the previous chapter. The next chapter focuses on the action component of this study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

INTERVENTION, PLANNING IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter concentrates on the planning, execution and evaluation of the education training workshop on reducing GBV. The workshop focused on themes such as gendered roles, attitudes, norms and GBV causes and effects and how to prevent it. The selection of an action team, and those to involve in the workshop, as well as development of the action plan are also the focus of discussion for the chapter. Most interventions adopt the survivor-based strategy, but the researcher noted it to be important to focus on men as agents of change and uproot the entrenched attitudes that endorse male perpetration of violence at individual level. The chapter speaks to objectives three and four of the study:

- To design and implement an intervention programme with male students to reduce GBV.
- To evaluate the short-term impact of the intervention programme.

The main themes that informed the intervention plan were what GBV is, its causes and effects.

7.2 MALE STUDENTS' EDUCATION TRAINING WORKSHOP

There is increasing global evidence suggesting that working with boys and men in gender transformative programs is effective in shifting men's gender and violence linked attitudes. Men's participation as agents of change in transformative GBV programmes is a fundamental component of all comprehensive efforts to reduce GBV globally. This is because gender ideologies are entrenched in men's individual risk factors for engaging in violent acts, and their commitment to contribute to violence prevention (Casey *et al.* 2016: 3; Jewkes Flood and Lang 2015; Peacock and Barker 2014).

The researcher agrees with the aforementioned scholars, as most violent acts result from men assuming their dominance over women and the power culture ascribed to them. When engaging

men and boys, programmes should be tailored to unequivocally address gender attitudes and encourage alternate ideas of masculinity (Casey *et al* 2016: 1). The workshop was a single-sex workshop involving only male students. The programme was educational, encouraging the alteration of fixed, inflexible gendered role mindsets and patterns linked with GBV. It was deemed necessary to educate first year male students in order that their stay at the university will be nonviolent, as they impart the knowledge to others. The development of the workshop materials was informed by several manuals, from program h, and its adaptations on engaging men in fighting gendered violence.

The action team browsed through the internet to develop ideas on how to formulate and execute the intervention plan.

7.3 PLANNING OF THE INTERVENTION

The male and female FGDs and individual interviews helped in ascertaining the nature, extent, causes and effects of GBV, as well as students' perceptions and attitudes on GBV. In the FGDs, students brought some ideas to the table as possible intervention strategies necessary to curb GBV.

TABLE 7.1 POSSIBLE WAYS TO REDUCE GBV AS SUGGESTED BY STUDENTS.

<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Creating a club that discusses GBV and related issues2. Engage in awareness campaigns (GBV campus road shows)3. Whole university dialogue (inclusive of all university stakeholders)4. Peer education5. Adding a compulsory GBV course to the university curriculum6. Government should reintroduce student loans7. University to come up with a form of dress code8. University should offer students paid tutorship positions

7.3.1 Selection of Action Team

The action team was a five-member team and had someone who acted as advisor, Mr Jephias Gora, who became the sixth member since he was well versed with the law pertaining to GBV in his capacity as a police officer, which really helped in delivery of the workshop. The initial

planning started soon after the male FGD ended, and a WhatsApp group was created for further discussions on the how and why of the intervention. It was decided, after much deliberation, it would be best to conduct workshops to educate first-year male students on GBV and its consequences, thus socialising them on an aspect that can positively change campus life. With most students that engaged in the first part of the study being final-year students, there was consensus on the training of first year students.

The education training manual comprised of 3 sessions made up of flip charts and discussion questions. The first session was devoted to identifying different types of violence, second session focused on defining GBV as well as conscientizing students on what GBV entails in all its forms. The last session was dedicated to the identification of roles and actions associated with each gender to demystify myths associated with gendered roles.

The need for familiarising students with the GBV phenomenon was identified, making it vital to clearly articulate and expound the definition, causes, effects, and types of GBV. Due to COVID-19 regulations and time limitations, a one-day workshop was opted for, with delivery through the teacher-learner method.

The findings from the FGDs' problem exploration initiated and informed the necessary intervention implementable in such a short time. Conception of the intervention strategy was based on findings, such as lack of awareness of what constitutes GBV, prevalence of masculine attitudes that promote GBV, and the causes and nature of GBV. The action team engaged male students at entry level, in this way, transforming attitudes that promote violence, which stem from the different societies they originate from; as everything from their communities' norms will have socialised them. Thus, an education training workshop was deemed best suited to socialise and empower male students with positive and constructive masculinities, thereby discouraging inequality and violence, promoting gender equality and nonviolence at entry level and throughout their campus lives. This exercise was entirely participatory, people were given equal opportunities to articulate their ideas, which ranged from conducting awareness campaigns to drama. Nonetheless, COVID-19 remained prevalent at the time and the group decided against this. The purpose of the intervention was to transform attitudes and principles that reinforce GBV.

7.3.2 Selection of first year students participate in the training workshop

In April, with the help of the action team, 15 male students were recruited based on their willingness to participate. The action team played a vital role in recruiting these students. Selection was based on willingness and availability. Due to the busy schedule of the action team (all were final-year students), the intervention implementation and evaluation were accomplished within a day, with the first implementation workshop taking six hours, featuring different sessions and a time for refreshments, while the evaluation focus group took only an hour.

7.4 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE INTERVENTION

On the day of the workshop, the action team and I introduced ourselves and the project topic, thereafter the participants introduced themselves. Then the workshop started with an icebreaking exercise, wherein a person was to tell two truths and one lie about him/herself. This created a conducive and joyous environment as some indicated they were presidents of countries, with some indicating animals and even mimicked what the animals do.

1st session: GBV students were asked to first define their understanding of GBV, its causes, effects, and forms.

2nd session: Is this violence or not? - this session was based on scenarios and students were asked to indicate where there was a violation in the scenarios - some scenarios contained myths associated with violence.

3rd session: Act like a man, Act like a woman. The session's goal was to identify behaviour men and women are expected to show.

4th session: Gender roles, violence in relationships and on campus.

The final session marked an evaluation of the immediate impacts of the training session, utilising an FGD session with nine students.

7.4.1 What is GBV, its causes and consequences

As the students in the workshop were not in the preliminary FGDs and interviews, it was necessary to repeat some questions asked in the exploratory phase.

Discrimination against someone of a particular gender. (Workshop participant 8)

Ill treatment of women by men. (Workshop participant 1)

Violence that is gendered ha ha ha I just twisted the term I don't know what it exactly means. (Workshop participant 2)

A term that is often on tv, but I don't really pay attention to it. I don't think it's anything important. (Workshop participant 6)

7.4.2 Causes

Cheating can cause a man to beat a wife or girlfriend. If ever my girlfriend cheat it will not end well. (Workshop participant 3)

Poverty and food shortages in homes make some mothers insult their husbands and when the husband cannot take it anymore, he can resort to beating the wife. (Workshop participant 7)

7.4.3 Effects

There was this family and the husband used to beat his wife a lot. On one incident the wife fell, and her arm dislocated it never got back to normal. Her family had to take her away that was the end of that marriage. (Workshop participant 2)

A husband returned from fishing and found no food he took an axe and used it on the wife's face she has a big scar. A she went to report to the village headman and the man came and beat the headman and his wife. People think the man is mentally challenged. The police were notified, and he was arrested. (Workshop participant 5)

Most respondents treated GBV as a synonym of VAW, a common misconception that may accrue to women being the most affected. It was also interesting to note some participants thought GBV issues do not concern them and was nothing important to pay attention to. The session demonstrated inadequate knowledge on GBV, with 20 minutes devoted in expounding what GBV entails, the different forms it can take, and that everyone has a role to play in ending it. All students agreed violence was bad and affects youth and children in many ways.

At the end of the workshop, students were asked to define GBV and list the causes and effects to ascertain whether they had learned and grasped something from the workshop. The responses proved they had. The students managed to identify the effects of domestic violence. They highlighted, due to fathers' aggressive behaviour, children end up fearing the return of their fathers, as well as divorces leading to single parent families that affect the child's mental

health and, in turn, impacts his or her education. Moreover, physical impairments from abuse and scars were also identified as consequences of violence. Beating, bullying, rape, and verbal violence were some of the types of violence students identified. Students also identified poverty, infidelity in relationships, disobedience by women, and dressing as some of the causes of violence. Some students opined reporting violence to authorities is risky as the victim may end up suffering more.

The sessions revealed students have been ingrained with toxic attitudes toward gendered roles, as they agreed to wife subjugation by husbands, and that men should put women in their place, as well as justifying wife beating for not following the husband's orders and denying him sex. Some had mixed opinions and said a wife and a girlfriend should decide to some degree when to have sex and how but overall, it is a man's decision. They identified changing nappies, bathing babies, cooking, and cleaning as a woman's role, while men can only be forced to stand in when the woman is seriously ill. Students believe women should be smart and orderly whereas men should be responsible and commanding.

Some norms and behavioural expectations identified indicated the negative roles of social institutions in shaping toxic perspectives, where during the session, a participant posited that:

“...society is toxic and men cannot open up and end up bottling their suffering, this is limiting and psychologically detrimental and I think that is the reason most cases of suicide we are seeing on social media are men's. Women are told shinga semunhu wemukadzi (as a woman you have to endure) which is unfair as she will be expected to bear and suffer everything in silence as they are told that is what marriage is like. Women end up dying because of abuse in marriages because of how society view divorcees. (Participant 9)

When a man is not working and the wife is the breadwinner, society will view that man in a certain way; he loses society's respect. As one participant opined:

A man's respect comes from how he handles his home affairs. Most men who are out earned by their partners have less respect from society and treated as failures because society expect them to be the providers and leading in everything. (Participant 10)

7.5 EVALUATION OF IMMEDIATE OUTCOMES OF THE INTERVENTION

At the end of the workshop an hour was devoted for a FGD to evaluate the effects the workshop had on the first-year students. 8 male students willingly participated in the evaluation process.

This has been an eye-opening workshop as most of the things that I normalised contribute to GBV and some are acts of violence, for example whistling and calling girls ugly when they reject me, associating cooking as a girl's role, now I think I can actually help my sister with household chores. (Workshop evaluation participant 2)

This exercise changed my understanding about GBV and gender roles, now I am going to be a better brother and son, I will help my mother and sister with household chores; I will wash, cook, sweep, and try to kneel and mop the floor ha! Ha! Ha! Ha! (Workshop evaluation participant 6)

I now know what GBV is and all the forms it persists in; I am now even able to tell others about it. I learnt that boys and girls should be treated equally and given equal chances with no preferences. There is nothing bad about sharing chores at home, it helps us all to have enough time to do our schoolwork. I think a workshop like that should be done with primary school boys so they know at a young age there is no such thing as girls' roles and boys' roles. (Workshop evaluation participant 3)

The workshop was helpful although it was long. I now know that as a man it's not bad to express your emotions and that we should not use force to get what we want. A no is an answer, and we should respect a girl when she says no and never insult her. (Workshop evaluation participant 5).

Instead of leaving people to fight and exploit others I learnt that I have a role in stopping violence. (Workshop evaluation participant 4)

Some of the things I heard here on the causes of GBV are normal and I used to do them, especially saying you are ugly to girls when they ignore my advances. I started calling them names. Now I will not do that. (Workshop evaluation participant 1)

I learnt that there is no justification for being violent. The way a person dresses doesn't provoke violence. And violence is not about the victim it's about the offender who chooses to take advantage of certain circumstances. I liked the statement that was said, if people are raped because of what they are wearing then beaches would have been hotspots for rape. (Workshop evaluation participant 7)

It made me appreciate women and all they put up with and all they go through because of culture and what society says. When they do not even have to go through it. I should have learned how to cook at an early age the food I am now eating is trashy. Chores are for everyone, you struggle when you are alone and you are not used to cook, wash and clean for yourself; am sure this is the reason some gents rush into marriage and cohabiting on campus. I learnt that you don't marry to treat a woman as property but as a partner in decision-making and everything. (Workshop evaluation participant 8)

I learnt that it's okay for men to open up and express what they feel and to help out in chores, this creates happy homes and setting an example to his kids on how to treat women with respect and help out with chores. (Workshop evaluation participant 3)

Although it was long the workshop was very educating. I think I can now call out acts of violence disguised as jokes and often regarded as normal. (Workshop evaluation participant 2)

I learnt that a girlfriend visiting you doesn't signify consent to sex, and I should respect her when she says no., I never knew that when a wife doesn't give her consent to have sex and the husband forces himself on her is rape, now I know, thanks to the workshop. (Workshop evaluation participant 6)

Some students were unaware of the different forms that GBV manifest in and were unable to define GBV, but this changed because of the workshop. Participants noted that it was okay to help with household chores and that a girlfriend visiting is not consenting to have sex. It is everyone's duty to reduce the prevalence of duty. This can be done by personally choosing to refrain from actions that victimise others as well as stopping others from fighting or passing on abusive comments. The workshop helped students to unlearn toxic behaviours they had normalised due to culture and social norms and learned new ways of co-existing in a peaceful way without violating other people's rights.

7.6 DISCUSSION

Male students were very involved in an activity 'is this violence or not' adapted from program H, which identifies folklores and truths about GBV in relationships. Through the activity they were reminded violence is not the victim's choice but the offender's, as they take advantage of situations. A victim of rape should not be blamed for wearing a short skirt; the rapist must take all the blame. Some myths were demystified offering students a different positive perspective on who and who not to blame in the face of violence. The workshop served as a reminder of

the types of violence that exist on campus in particular, and in society as a whole, because they are also members of society, and the university reflects what happens in the country at large. The workshop brought to light that student relationships also showed signs of GBV, as they are not exempted from the scourge. In the face of violence, participants were encouraged to act to stop it and speak out against it to the perpetrator, as well as offering help to the victim.

“Is this violence or not?” helped in effectively challenging entrenched myths connected with aggressive behaviour. Students managed to identify some scenarios correctly as violence and some incorrectly because of their socialisation to GBV myths that became realities to them. Most male students contended in the workshops that girls incite violence by their dressing, being drunk and talking back at men; which justifies rape and victim-blaming. It was then necessary to remind them that rape is the rapist’s choice and overall violence is the offender’s choice to engage in such unacceptable behaviour. The offender could have chosen to cover her up or ignore her.

In the ‘act like a man’, ‘act like a woman’ session students indicated the phrases are limiting and very detrimental to health. While men bottle up their emotions and end up being depressed and suicidal, women will stay in abusive relationships and end up paralysed or even dead. Moreover, it is shameful for girls to carry condoms and that a man can have multiple intimate partners at the same time.

It is the researcher’s supposition that participants of the workshop will continue reflecting on the knowledge and experience gained and will empower others, developing different ideas to address GBV at the institution by reason of the AR technique utilised in this study. There was much evidence suggesting the time for the workshops was insufficient for participants as they felt rushed and that there was need for more workshops. There is a further need for the workshop to be dispersed, to allow sufficient time for effects to be realised, however, due to time constraints in this study, the workshops were arranged and delivered in a day, allowing only seven hours to comply with COVID-19 restrictions that stipulated no gatherings should take long hours; this served as a restriction on the research.

The researcher has not found a primary prevention programme that deals with socialising only male students with positive attitudes and constructive masculinities, although having searched for such a programme in the Zimbabwean HTEIs setting. It is, therefore, the researcher’s belief that the study serves a purpose important enough to warrant its continued effects on the

participants. The GBV education training intervention warrants, without a doubt, its valuableness to all, regardless of whether participants are at risk of committing GBV or not, because it is a transformative initiative challenging beliefs or inflexible gendered roles, gendered norms, and stereotypes, as well as imparting constructive masculinities and positive attitudes that discourage GBV perpetration in the long run.

It is, however, superficial to say the immediate subjective effects of the intervention are effective in reducing GBV in the long-term, as no follow up exercise will be conducted to review the long-term impacts, even though participants reported seeing quick improvements in their levels of knowledge, competence, and positive attitude. One of the most important aspects to consider is whether these advancements or gains can be maintained over time. It is necessary to establish a connection between the immediate and the long-term results, such as a decrease in GBV. Another problem was that the outcomes were self-reported, making it subjective. It is possible participants inflated the amount of information they received on changed gender stereotypes, constructive masculinities, positive attitudes and health for the sake of facilitators. However, the fact that they hold the concept they must contest and circumvent shows GBV is a form of behavioural intent which is vital, since it is usually associated with individual's actual/ current behaviour.

7.7 CONCLUSION

The intervention was made both exceptional and auspicious in the fight against gendered violence as it targeted young male students in addressing aspects accredited to GBV. It also imparted students with positive attitudes on gendered roles, constructive masculinities and constructive ways of dealing with conflict while demystifying certain myths associated with GBV.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

GBV is rampant at the institution under study, although authorities seem reluctant to acknowledge its existence, which discourages reporting cases of GBV. There is also mistrust of authorities handling GBV cases since they favour their colleagues and end up taking little or no action. This final chapter of the thesis provides a summation and concluding remarks regarding the study, based on the study objectives, while it also provides recommendations based on study findings. The study sought to ascertain the cause and effects of GBV on an institution of higher education, to inform on the relevant intervention to develop in helping reduce this social ill. The objectives listed below will be summarised in the following sections:

- To examine the nature, extent, causes and effects of GBV at GZU.
- To explore students' perceptions and attitudes on GBV.
- To design and implement an intervention program with male students to reduce GBV.
- To evaluate the short-term impact of the intervention program.

8.2 NATURE AND EXTENT OF GBV

It was acknowledged GBV is pervasive at the institution, however, most cases do not reach the authorities for reasons indicated below:

- Fear or revictimisation;
- Lack of trust in authorities to deal with the cases;
- Fear of failing;
- No clear guideline to show reporting lines and what constitutes violence;
- Fear of stigmatisation.

The main prevalent forms of GBV were found to be sexual harassment (student to student IPV; lecturer to student *quid pro quo* violence) and verbal abuse. Statistics on the extent of GBV could not be ascertained as the study did not include a quantitative component. The qualitative

data revealed this scourge is highly perpetrated and experienced at the institution. All participants in the FGDs and those in interviews agreed GBV is prevalent at the institution, although some forms are more prevalent than the others.

8.3 CAUSES

As a microcosm of the main environment where GBV is prevalent, the institution depicted the same and or similar causes as those in the country on the whole. This may be because, before they are students of an institution, they are citizens first and members of communities. The main cause of GBV as identified in the study is poor economic conditions, which result in students engaging in semester marriages to cut living expenses, furthermore, poor economic conditions also cause students to engage in transactional sex with lecturers and old men for funding and sustenance. Lack of awareness that some actions constitute violence, due to how people are socialised through communities and families, is another factor resulting in violence perpetration and normalisation of GBV.

8.4 EFFECTS

GBV was associated with detrimental female students' reproductive health, with unwanted pregnancies terminated unsafely and illegally, resulting in complications. Certain students were said to experience some form of PTSD, psychological issues and end up attempting suicide. Furthermore, many academic consequences such as, poor performance, failing, absenteeism, and lack of concentration, are also linked to experiencing GBV. In addition, perpetrators also experience the negative effects of engaging in violent behaviour, including being expelled from the institution to more personal effects such as self-resentment and loathing, avoiding relationships and self-isolation.

8.5 REPORTING OF CASES

Most cases that take place are not reported for fear of revictimization, stigma and mistrust in those where the cases are reported. Some students do not report for lack of evidence and sympathising with the perpetrator, along with fear that the perpetrator may face tough consequences.

8.6 INTERVENTION PROGRAMME

Many intervention strategies were suggested in both the male and female FGDs. From holistic approaches (involving all institutional stakeholders), forming a club that focuses on GBV and other related issues, as well as awareness campaigns through campus road shows, and peer education. The last was adopted, because it seemed appropriate due to time and capacity constraints. The focus of the intervention workshop was identified as first year male students in order to socialise them with positive attitudes and masculinities that discourage violence perpetration, as well as helping them unlearn toxic masculinities they bring with from different social structures and communities. With the help of an action team, the education material was formulated, informed by various manuals, including the “youth for youth”, manhood 2.0 and some USAID manuals, which helped provide ideas of the plan and how to execute the workshop.

The students perceived the workshop as helpful as one student said, starting that day, he was *going to help his mother and sister with the household chores.*

8.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

8.7.1 Institutional recommendations

It is important for high-ranking university executive management officials to discuss GBV issues in an open and forthright manner using the GZU radio. It should be mandatory for HTEIs to develop GBV sensitive budgeting and form budget advisory boards comprising all university stakeholders, to secure sufficient and adequate information and funding for preventative programmes. Additionally, institutions must seek support from the government in order to obtain ongoing funding. Implications for the institution and the ministry were noted based on the discussions.

1. The university should put in place efficient, accessible, and trusted 24-hour crisis response services. These services should have a specific communication point known to all staff and students, and should be able to mobilise the appropriate psychological, medical, social, and security support without placing any additional stress on the victims.
2. Include a GBV course compulsory level at entry level to the university.

3. A clear draft of the GBV policy made accessible to everyone on online platforms and in print.
4. Proper enforcement of the policy and those in violation to suffer consequences.
5. Encourage formation and sustenance of groups that focus on human rights, reproductive health, and GBV.
6. Establish an independent office that focuses on GBV with staff who are not part of academia, management to encourage proper reporting of cases.
7. Every campus to have a suggestion box for cases of GBV to be reported unanimously.
8. Provide a counselling unit, contraceptive pills, and condoms.

8.7.2 Implications for the Ministry

1. Develop a well-articulated SGBV policy to be universally applicable for all HTEIs in the country and ensure each institution has implemented and enforces the policy;
2. Fund some projects and programs that focus on GBV;
3. Encourage and sponsor GBV research on institutions of higher learning; and
4. Reintroduce grants to help deal with some identified causes of gendered violence on campus.

For those who want to venture on a study of a similar nature, it is vital to adopt a mixed methods approach and use the quantitative component as a baseline study. There is also a need for a holistic approach when devising and implementing the intervention strategy; all university stakeholders must be included.

8.8 CONCLUSION

GBV is prevalent and has adverse effects on academic performance and outcomes, as well as student reproductive health and mental health, however, the high prevalence is not coupled with reporting. It is, therefore, essential to encourage a culture of reporting through establishing an independent office with qualified personnel to deal with matters pertaining to GBV and related issues.

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APPENDIX 1: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS



LETTER OF INFORMATION

Title of the Research Study: Reducing Gender-based violence at Great Zimbabwe University

Principal Investigator/researcher: Francisca Rumutsa, Master of Management Sciences- Peace Studies

Supervisor: Dr Sylvia Kaye, PhD

Brief Introduction and Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to reduce gender-based violence on campus and through equipping male students with skills and development of attitudes and behaviours that challenges masculinity, sexuality, gender roles and GBV

Greeting: Good Day, how are you? I am a Postgraduate student at DUT doing research for my Masters degree in Peace Studies. I would like to invite you to participate in the research.

What is Research: Research is a systematic search or enquiry for generalized new knowledge. You can ask any questions regarding the research as you wish so that you get full understanding of what the study is all about. You can take this letter of information and discuss the study with your family and friends and decide if you want to take part in the study.

Outline of the Procedures: The study will be conducted at Great Zimbabwe University in Masvingo Province, Zimbabwe. In the first stage of the research you will be asked to provide your perception and attitude to GBV; provide information on the nature, extent, causes and effects of GBV on campus. 5 male and 5 female students will be asked to take part in 30 mins interview and 10 male and 10 female students, will be asked to participate in a focus group discussion that will take 1hr to 1hr 30mins. In the second stage 5 male students will form part

of the action team that will plan and devise and implement an intervention program and in the final stage the short-term outcomes of the intervention program will be evaluated. If you agree the proceedings of the interviews and focus group discussions will be voice recorded. Your participation is voluntarily; your privacy and anonymity will be respected, always; and research information relevant to you will be available upon request.

Risks or Discomforts to the Participant: There are no apparent risks in your participation in the interviews, focus group discussions and planned interventions to reduce gender-based violence.

Explain to the participant the reasons he/she may be withdraw from the Study: Participation is voluntary, and you withdraw from the study of your own accord. There will be no adverse consequences and you may withdraw from the research activities anytime without any explanation.

Benefits: You will benefit individuals in important skills that contribute to positive attitude and behaviours to gender issues and GBV, creation of peaceable campuses and reduction GBV may be a more likely outcome. As the researcher I shall benefit from that one research article that will be produced and a Masters qualification.

Remuneration: You will not receive any remuneration. Light refreshments may be available in the interviews and focus group discussions depending on the circumstances at the time of the research activities

Costs of the Study: You are not expected to cover any costs in this study.

Confidentiality: In the interviews and focus group discussions you may choose not to use your real names. Fictitious names will be used when presenting data so that no response will be attached to you. I will carry out your wishes according to such agreements. I request that when you participate in the focus group discussion you respect confidentiality and you do not discuss the proceedings with others after the FGD.

Results: The finding will be used to produce a thesis and a journal article. **The research will be made available for access upon your request.** You can have access to the findings as this is one way of verifying the credibility of the results (member checking)

Research-related Injury: The research will be conducted at the university premises and due to the nature of the research no injuries are likely to happen

Storage of all electronic and hard copies including tape recordings: The records will be kept and archived safely in a secret place in line with the stipulated period of DUT and afterwards will be shredded and discarded in all other forms. No one will have access to the recordings except my supervisor if need be.

Persons to Contact in the Event of Any Problems or Queries:

Please contact the researcher (+263 771 028 677), my supervisor Sylviak@dut.ac.za or the Institutional Research Ethics Administrator on +27 31 373 2375. Complaints can be reported to the Director: Research and Postgraduate Support, Dr. L. Linganiso, on +27 31 373 2326 or researchdirector@dut.ac.za.

APPENDIX 2: CONSENT FORM



CONSENT

Full Title of the study: Reducing Gender-based violence at Great Zimbabwe University

Name of Researcher: Francisca Rumutsa

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, Francisca Rumutsa, about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study.
- 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 and participation in the study.

- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

_____	_____	_____	_____
Full Name of Participant Thumbprint	Date	Time	Signature / Right

I Francisca Rumutsa herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Francisca Rumutsa

Full Name of Researcher	Date	Signature
--------------------------------	-------------	------------------

_____	_____	_____
Full Name of Witness (If applicable)	Date	Signature

_____	_____	_____
Full Name of Legal Guardian (If applicable)	Date	Signature

APPENDIX 3: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

Questions

We are going to get a few minutes to think about our GBV experiences. Is anyone ready to share his experience?

What do you understand by the term violence?

- In your own understanding what does Gender-based violence mean
- What forms of GBV do you know
- What causes GBV in society and on campus
- What actions and behaviours constitute GBV in your opinion?
- Do you think GBV happens on campus

If yes what forms/kinds of GBV are commonly experienced here

- Do these forms of violence happen to female students and why?

If yes what?

- What do you think about violence on women?
- Can it be justified if yes under which circumstances can it be justified
- What resources are available to female students on campus if they experience violence? Do you think there is a need for these resources?
- What happens to men at this university if they commit violence against women?
- What do you think are the effects of gender- based violence in general?
- Does violence or the threat of violence affect victims and perpetrators’?
- Do you know anyone who has experienced this type of violence? Without using any names, tell me what happened to them.
- Do you know anyone who experienced or committed this type of violence?

Without using any names, tell me what happened to them.

- Have you ever experienced this type of violence since you have been at the university?
Please tell me what happened.
- Is there anything you wish the university would do differently for students regarding GBV?
- Do you as male students ever do something to stop GBV
- Have you ever discussed preventing violence against women with other male students?
What did you talk about?

Thank you for your participation and cooperation!!

APPENDIX 4: INTERVIEW GUIDE

My name is Francisca Rumutsa a master's student at Durban university of technology my topic is REDUCING GENDER BASED VIOLENCE AT GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY. I am here to gain your understanding on the nature, extend, causes and effects of gender-based violence on campus. Welcome and thank you for attending. May you allow me to record this proceeding, I assure you that your confidentiality will be protected, and the recording will only be used for the purposes of this study and will be discarded afterwards. The interview will take 30- 40 minutes of your time and your participation is voluntary you can withdraw anytime.

What do you understand by the term violence?

- In your own understanding what does Gender-based violence mean
- What forms of GBV do you know
- What causes GBV in society and on campus
- What actions and behaviours constitute GBV in your opinion?
- Do you think GBV happens on campus

If yes what forms/kinds of GBV are commonly experienced here

- Do these forms of violence happen to female students and why?

If yes what?

- What do you think about violence on women?
- Can it be justified if yes under which circumstances can it be justified
- What resources are available to female students on campus if they

experience violence? Do you think there is a need for these resources?

- What happens to men at this university if they commit violence against women?
- What do you think are the effects of gender- based violence in general?
- Does violence or the threat of violence affect victims and perpetrators'?

- Do you know anyone who has experienced this type of violence? Without using any names, tell me what happened to them.
- Do you know anyone who experienced or committed this type of violence?

Without using any names, tell me what happened to them.

- Have you ever experienced this type of violence since you have been at the university? Please tell me what happened.
- Is there anything you wish the university would do differently for students regarding GBV?
- Do you as male students ever do something to stop GBV
- Have you ever discussed preventing violence against women with other male students? What did you talk about?

Thank you for your participation and cooperation!!

APPENDIX 5: EDUCATION TRAINING WORKSHOP

Greetings

Introduction of the facilitators, Action Team and Participants

Introduction of the purpose of the workshop

Boundary agreements

Icebreaking: Before we start each everyone is going to tell 2 truths and 1 lie about themselves

1. SESSION 1: WHAT IS GENDER BASED VIOLENCE

Objective

To identify different types of violence that may occur in intimate relationships and communities

Time

1 hour

Materials

- Flipchart paper
- Marker pens

PROCEDURE

1. Ask the group to sit in a circle and to think silently for a few moments about what violence means to them.
2. Invite each participant to share how violence effects them and what it means. Write the responses on flipchart paper.
3. Discuss some of the common points in their responses, as well as the unique points. Review the definitions of violence below and let participants know that there is often no clear or simple definition of violence and that in the second part of the exercise you are going to read a series of case studies to help them think about the different meanings and types of violence.

Physical violence: using physical force such as hitting, slapping, or pushing.

Emotional / Psychological violence: often the most difficult form of violence to identify. It may include humiliating, threatening, insulting, pressuring, and expressions jealousy or possessiveness such as the controlling of decisions and activities.

Sexual violence: pressuring or forcing someone to perform sexual acts (from kissing to sex) against their will or making sexual comments that make someone feel humiliated or uncomfortable. It does not matter.

Discussion Questions

What is GBV

1 What kinds of violence most often occur in intimate relationships between men and women? What causes this violence? (Examples may include physical, emotional and/or sexual violence that men use against girlfriends or wives, as well as violence that women may use against their boyfriends or husbands.)

2 What kinds of violence most often occur in families? What causes this violence? (Examples may include the parental of physical, emotional or sexual abuse of children or other types of violence between family members.)

3 What kinds of violence most often occur in schools and universities? What causes this violence? (Examples may include physical violence between men, gang or war related violence, stranger rape and emotional violence or, stigma against certain individuals or groups in the community),

4 Are there types of violence that are related to an individual's sex? What is the most common type of violence practiced against women?

- Are only men violent, or are women also violent? What is the most common type of violence that men use against others? What is the most common type of violence that women use against others?
- Does a person—man or woman—ever “deserve” to be hit or suffer some type of violence?
- What are the consequences of violence on individuals? On relationships? On communities?
- What can you and other young men do to stop violence in your community?

Closing

At its most basic level, violence can be defined as the use of force (or the threat of force) by one individual against another. Violence is often used as a way to control another person, to have power over them. It happens all over the world and often stems from the way that individuals— especially men—are brought up to deal with anger and conflict. It is commonly assumed that violence is a “natural” or “normal” part of being a man. However, violence is a learned behaviour and, in that sense, it can be unlearned and avoided. As has been discussed in other sessions, men are often socialized to repress their emotions, and anger is sometimes one of the few socially acceptable ways for men to express their feelings.

Moreover, men are sometimes raised to believe that they have the “right” to expect certain things from women (domestic tasks or sex, for example), and the right to use physical or verbal abuse if women do not provide these things. Men may also resort to violence to assert their views or decisions thereby making communication among partners about condom-usage, sex, and HIV almost impossible. It is important to think about how these rigid gender roles regarding how men express their emotions and how they should interact with women are harmful to both to individual men and to our relationships. In your daily lives, it is fundamental that you, as men, think about what you can do to speak out against other men’s use of violence.

2. Session 2: is this violence or not

3. Panashe is an older boy who comes from a wealthy family. He meets Selina one day on her way home from school and they chat a little. The next day, he meets up with her again and this continues until one day he tells Selina how much he likes her. They start to kiss and Panashe starts touching Selina under her blouse. But, then Selina stops and says that she doesn’t want to go anything further. Panashe is furious. He tells her that he has spent lots of time with her and says: “What are my friends going to say?” He pressures her to get her to change her mind. First he tries to be seductive, then he begins yelling at her in frustration. Then he begins pulling at her forcefully, pushing her down. He even begins to violate her sexually though she keeps saying, “No, stop!”

• Is this a kind of violence? Why or why not?

4. MR Mashumo has twins a boy and girl who both passed their ‘A’ level the girl with 15 points and the boy 12 every day from the day the results came he has been insulting the boy saying how could he be outclassed by a girl. Because of some COVID 19 effects he

can only afford to send only one of his twins to university and he decides to send the boy, the girl starts complaining and he says, sending her to high school was a privilege primary education for her to read and count was enough as she has to bear children and take care of the house and children when she gets married. The boy is the man of the house who will carry the family name. He then asks the girl to either find work or someone to marry her.

- Is this violence or not and why do you think so
- What do you think Panashe should have done?
- What do you think Selina should have done?

5. SESSION 3: EDUCATION (ACT LIKE A MAN, ACT LIKE A WOMAN) AND GENDER ROLES

6. Objective

To recognize the challenges men and women face in trying to fulfil societal expectations about gender roles, understand the costs and convey that it is possible to change.

Materials

Flipchart paper, markers, and tape

Time

45 minutes

Procedure

1. Ask the participants if they have ever been told to “act like a man” or “act like a woman” based on their gender. Ask them to share some experiences in which someone has either made the same remark or said something similar to them. Why did the individual say this? How did it make the participant feel?

2. Tell the participants that we are going to look more closely at these two phrases. By looking at them, we can begin to see how society can make it very difficult to be either male or female.

In large letters, print out on a piece of flipchart paper the phrase: “Act Like a Man.” Ask the participants to share their ideas about what this means. These are society’s expectations of who

men should be, how men should act, and what men should feel and say. Draw a box and write what it means to “act like a man” inside this box. Some responses might include the following:

- Be tough.
- Do not cry.
- Show no emotions.
- Take care of other people.

3. Now in large letters, print the phrase: “Act Like a Woman.” Ask the participants to share their ideas about what this means. These are society’s expectations of who women should be, how women should act, and what women should feel and speak. Draw a box on the piece of paper and write the meanings of “act like a woman” inside this box. Some responses may include the following:

- Be passive.
- Be the caretaker.
- Act sexy, but not too sexy.
- Be the homemaker.

4. Next, draw another table that includes columns representing men and women. Label it: “Transformed Men/Women.” Ask the participants to list characteristics of men who are “living outside the box.” Record their answers. Once you get seven or so responses, ask the same about women who are, “living outside the box.” Help the participants recognize that, in the end, characteristics of gender equitable men and women are actually similar.

5. Once you have brainstormed your list, initiate a discussion by asking the questions below.

Discussion Questions

- Can it be limiting for a man or woman to be expected to behave in this manner? Why?
- What emotions are women not allowed to express?
- How can, “acting like a woman” affect a woman’s relationship with her partner and children?

- How can social norms and expectations to, “act like a woman” have a negative impact on a woman’s sexual and reproductive health?
- Can women actually live outside the box? Is it possible for women to challenge and change existing gender roles?
- Can it be limiting for a man to be expected to behave in this manner? Why?
- What emotions are men not allowed to express?
- How can “acting like a man” affect a man’s relationship with his partner and children?
- How can social norms and expectations to, “act like a man” have a negative impact on a man’s sexual and reproductive health?
- Can men actually live outside the box? Is it possible for men to challenge and change existing gender roles?
- What would make it easier for men and women to live outside of these boxes?

Closing

The roles of men and women are changing, and it is becoming easier to step outside of the box. Still, it is hard for men and women to live outside. We need to be aware of the vulnerabilities we face when we live in these boxes and the benefits to be gained from living outside of them.

Tinashe gets home hungry and finds his wife Mufaro, away and his neighbour notifies him that she went to the stream to wash clothes some few hours ago. He opens the kitchen and find no food angry he follows his wife to the stream and finds her. He beat her saying she was supposed to make sure there was food for him before she came to the stream. After the fight Mufaro asked him to help carry some of the clothes as they were heavy now that they were wet to which Tatenda declined that it was a lady’s duty to deal with laundry.

Can Tinashe be justified for beating his wife

APPENDIX 6: TRAINING EVALUATION FGD guide

Did the workshop contribute to enhancing your knowledge and understanding of gender roles and GBV? If yes to what extent. If no, why?


Mention at least four unforgettable and important things that you learned from the workshop.

Mention at least three aspects that you have particularly enjoyed about the training and why?

Which part of the workshop did you enjoy the least and why?

Is there anything that you think should have been done differently?

APPENDIX 7: GATEKEEPERS LETTER



REGISTRAR'S OFFICE
+263 - 039- 2261079
P.O. Box 1235, Masvingo, Zimbabwe
registrar@gzu.ac.zw | sgwalidza@gzu.ac.zw

29 June 2021

Ms Francisca Rumutsa
Durban University of Technology
Durban
SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Madam

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITH GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY


The above matter refers.

This is to confirm that your request has been approved.

It is hoped that your research will benefit the University and it would be appreciated if you could supply the office of the Registrar with a final copy of your study, as the findings would be relevant to the University's strategic planning process.

Sincerely,

c.c. Librarian



KNOWLEDGE ● CULTURE ● DEVELOPMENT

APPENDIX 8: TURNITIN REPORT

Signed: Dr. Sylvia Kaye, Supervisor

Turnitin Originality Report

Processed on: 05-Mar-2024 00:19 SAST
 ID: 2311749325
 Word Count: 66480
 Submitted: 1

dissertation By Francisca Rumutsa

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< 1% match () Kim, Jeongsuk. "Correlates of Attitudes Toward Violence and Dating Violence Perpetration Among U.S. College Students", Scholar Commons, 2019
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APPENDIX 9: EDITOR'S LETTER

Helen Richter
Advanced Editing, Proofreading
& Copywriting
feetleding@gmail.com
+27 729538169

23 December 2022

To whom it may concern

CERTIFICATE OF EDITING & AUTHENTICATION

I have proofread and language edited the Master's thesis titled:

"Reducing Gender-based violence at the Great Zimbabwe University"

by

Francisca Rumutsa

To the best of my knowledge, the work is free of spelling, grammar, structural and stylistic errors and the contents are certified as the author's own work.

With thanks.

H. S. Richter
