

**SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN ZIMBABWE TEACHER EDUCATION: UNHEARD VOICES
OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS IN SELECTED TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES**

BY

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**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Education in the Faculty
of Arts and Design at the Durban University of Technology**

March 2024

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DECLARATION

I, **HERBERT MURADZIKWA**, declare that:

This work or any part thereof has not been submitted previously to any university or any institution in any form for the purpose of assessment or publication.

Except for the express acknowledgements and references cited in this thesis, I confirm that the intellectual content of the work is a result of my own efforts.

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ABSTRACT

Sexual harassment is an unwanted conduct of a sexual nature that affects individual dignity and may be physical, verbal, and non-verbal, often sexually coloured, offensive, intrusive, degrading or intimidating (Oni et al. 2019; Worke et al. 2023). The recent rise of sexual harassment cases globally in workplaces and educational institutions has become a cause for concern and is now viewed as a social ill. Given the focus of sexual harassment research, on universities, and workplaces, internationally, and locally (Vohlidalova 2018; Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020) it became imperative to investigate the phenomenon in teacher training colleges.

This study explored sexual harassment in Zimbabwe teacher education through the unheard voices of pre-service teachers in selected teacher training colleges. It sought to understand student teachers' experiences, the coping strategies that they adopt and the factors contributing to the prevalence of this of sexual harassment phenomenon in these institutions.

An interpretive paradigm informed the study where multiple-site case study design and a qualitative approach investigated 12 purposively sampled lecturers and 30 students from three selected teacher training colleges. Data which were generated through face-to-face interviews and drawings were analysed manually through eight interrelated steps of open coding.

The study was grounded in two theories Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC) theory, which provided a lens for understanding and explaining findings. Student teachers understood sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy which involves sexual assault, uncomfortable contact, and use of threats, derogatory language, and misuse of authority. Sexual harassment affected victims socially, emotionally (psychologically) and academically. The study further revealed that student teachers experienced coerced sexual engagements, rape, uncomfortable touching, sexual exploitation, demeaning sexual remarks and jokes.

Findings also revealed that student teachers adopted mainly three coping strategies: emotion - based coping, problem-based coping and the avoidance coping (dysfunctional or harmful coping) to deal with sexual harassment effects. The factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges that emerged from this study include poverty; lack of knowledge and absence of legislation on sexual harassment, normalisation and trivialisation of sexual harassment, cultural practices, indecent dressing and laziness among student teachers.

This study suggests the re-introduction of student grants and loans withdrawn a few years ago to cushion them against poverty and hence reduce their vulnerability to sexual harassment. Relevant legislation against sexual harassment needs to be instituted and actively executed to curb sexual harassment of student teachers and the colleges are called upon to introduce sexual harassment education to make student teachers aware of how to avoid, and how to handle the phenomenon should it occur.

While the study discovered that a combination of theories SCGT and TMSOC provides a useful lens for unpacking, understanding and explaining sexual harassment experiences, coping strategies and factors contributing to the prevalence of the phenomenon, this was a small study of 42 participants from only three of the seventeen teacher training colleges. The thesis suggests a need for comprehensive studies drawing on this framework and involving more teacher training colleges.

DEDICATION

I dedicate my doctoral study to my late mother Locadia Madyembwa Muradzikwa who inspired me through her hard work and the immense value she attached to my education. I also dedicate this study to my wife Verena Muradzikwa and to our children Bright, Brilliant and Benecia for all the support.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study came to fruition through the massive support from a variety of individuals who contributed in their different but special ways:

First and foremost, my supervisor, Professor Tabitha, Grace Mukeredzi was pivotal in directly influencing the production of this piece of work. Her scholarly insights and guidance were immense. Her meticulousness and professionalism are unmatched. Her patience and encouragement motivated me to continue soldiering on even during my very difficult moments during my study. May the Lord abundantly bless her!!

To my co-supervisor, Professor Julia Preece, thank you for the support.

A special mention goes to my colleague and sister Angeline Paradzai, I thank you so much for all the academic assistance right from the beginning and to the end of my studies. You were my beacon of hope. Your positive approach to life kept me going.

I also wish to extend my gratitude to my workmates Doctor Esnati Macharaga and Doctor Bernard Berejena. I want to thank you both for all the support in particular the provision of academic direction as my seniors in the studies. To all my other colleagues at Bondolfi Teacher Training College, I wish to express my heartfelt gratitude to you.

To Mr Manyere of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Innovation, Science and Technology Development (MHTEISTD), your pivotal role in ensuring that I obtain consent to commence data generation in the selected teacher training colleges cannot go unmentioned. Without your involvement, it could have taken ages before I commenced data generation. Thank you so much.

I would also wish to sincerely extend my gratitude to all the principals of the three teacher training colleges from where I generated data for my study including the staff members who were co-operative and ensured that my stay and data generation within the selected teacher training colleges went smoothly.

Further, I want to thank my family: my wife Verena for the unwavering words of encouragement, moral and financial support, and love, and for allowing me space to focus on my study, while you ‘took care of things’ throughout my arduous research expedition. Without your support, I would not have reached this far!! To our three children Bright, Brilliant and Benecia I say: “grow up and shine; great things come through hard work and resilience.”

Last, but not least, I want to thank my participants: The Vice Principals, the Deans of students, the College Counsellors, and Wardens and the student teachers for sharing with me your ordeals and experiences. This work would not have been accomplished without you! Thank you!!

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

A'level- Advanced level

AAUW- American Association of University Women

ATP- Attached Teaching Practice

DTE- Department of Teacher Education

DUT- Durban University of Technology

EC-Ethical clearance

FSNT-Female Student Network Trust

GBV- Gender Based Violence

HIV- Human Immune Virus

ILO- International Labour Organisation

IREC-Institutional Research and Ethical Clearance

L1 –L4 Lecturer 1 to Lecturer 4

MHTEISTD- Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation, Science and Technology Development

O'level –Ordinary level

PSA- Public service commission

PTH- Primary Teacher Higher

PTL- Primary Teacher Lower

PTSD-Post –Traumatic Stress Disorder

S1 –S-10 Students 1 to Student 10

SCGT-Social Construction of Gender Theory

SDGs-Sustainable Development Goals

TIZ- Transparent International Zimbabwe

TMSC-Transactional Model of Stress and Coping

TP-Teaching Practice

UNAIDS- United Nations on HIV/AIDS

UNESCO- United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNICEF-United Nations Children's Emergency Fund

UN-United Nations

UR- University of Rhodesia

USAID- United State Agency for International Development

UZ- University of Zimbabwe

WHO- World Health Organisation

ZGC- Zimbabwe Gender Commission

ZINTEC- Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course

ZJC-Zimbabwe Junior Certificate

ZLA-Zimbabwe Labour Act

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This study examined sexual harassment in teacher education focusing on pre-service teachers in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. I need to state upfront that while teacher training in other contexts is now generally referred to as ‘teacher education’, this study maintains teacher training colleges because this is what these institutions are called in Zimbabwe, the context of the study. Sexual harassment has become a persistent global violation of human rights (Torre et al. 2020; Adigun et al. 2019). Sadly, notwithstanding the pervasive nature of this social ill, sexual harassment both verbal and physical remains common, inadequately addressed, and negatively impacts the health, effectiveness, and efficiency of individuals in public and private organisations (Zimbabwe Public Service Commission 2022). Sexual harassment has been defined as persistent, pervasive, unsolicited, and unwelcome sexual advances which may be visual, physical, verbal and non-verbal gestures (Oni et al. 2019). In other words, sexual harassment involves sexual exploitation where there is no agreement between the perpetrator and the victim. Worke et al. (2023) view the phenomenon as gender discriminatory because it tends to be perpetrated on one gender more than the other: victims have predominantly been women while men are the perpetrators (Monslave et al. 2022; Sojo et al. 2016; Menon et al. 2014). Sexual harassment is rife in many contexts and spheres of life.

Choo and Ping (2021), from the Malaysian context, show that victims of sexual harassment in institutions experience rape, inappropriate touching, sexual comments, and coercion into sexual relationships. All these experiences may have a bearing on their social, emotional, and academic behaviour. Bergeron et al. (2019) reveal that a high prevalence of rape among other forms of sexual harassment is experienced by female students in universities in Canada. Incidents of rampant sexual violence often also involve perpetrators posting sexist, misogynist and violent messages on Facebook. This is probably why Bergeron et al. (2019) and Agardh et al. (2022) from Swedish studies claim that sexual harassment is now labelled a modern pandemic which cuts across all races, contexts and spheres of life.

Sexual harassment has also been encountered regionally as female students in South African universities are also victims of this phenomenon. Makhaye et al. (2023) reveal that female students receive unwanted sexual advances and are exposed to alcohol and other drugs during parties which make them prone to sexual exploitation and rape as they would not consent to unethical intimacy due to their drunken state. Erinosho et al. (2021) from Nigeria highlight that sexual harassment incidents are high in institutions but are, however, downplayed due to underreporting. They lament the high prevalence of coerced sexual relationships through student intimidation by professors and other senior staff. Such behaviour by senior staff places students in vulnerable positions given their desire to successfully complete their programmes.

Students experience sexist attitudes, inappropriate touching, stalking, and degrading, unpleasant sexual comments, and such professors and staff engage in sexual bribery promising female students financial and material rewards in exchange for sexual relations. Taylor and Hardin (2017) add that sexual coercion, threats and punishment are adopted by perpetrators in learning institutions demanding that students give in to their sexual demands. In the Zimbabwean context, Mafa et al. (2021) and Takavarasha (2021) agree that students in learning institutions experience sexual harassment from male lecturers and male students. In most of these incidences, students suffer in silence as often the cases go unreported.

Sexual harassment is humiliating, offensive and disabling as it affects the victim's safety and psychological health (Maran et al. 2022; MacDermott 2020). This view is extended by Barker (2017) and Vohlidalova (2015) who concur that sexual harassment affects performance of victims at workplaces or learning institutions as they often exhibit low productivity rate, anxiety, fear, reduced academic performance and a very high likelihood of developing antisocial behaviours. Thus, sexual harassment may affect victims socially, emotionally, or academically. In such cases, as Mapuranga et al. (2015) contend, victims of sexual harassment suffer from a sense of insecurity, isolation, stigmatisation, and embarrassment which may lead to dropping out of college or university programmes. Dropping out eliminates them from progress and participation in higher education. When women are eliminated from learning, they are automatically left out of playing a role in national economic development and social progress (Nyandoro and Zhou 2022; Maunganidze 2020). Thus, sexual harassment interferes with victims' engagement in society as its effects create precarious conditions which negatively affect them.

The high prevalence of sexual harassment, in learning institutions requires victims to adopt coping strategies to survive the effects of the harassment. Chang et al. (2020) in Taiwan reveal that victims of sexual harassment often adopt avoidance coping and may move away from their harassers or just keep quiet. Some university students, according to Almas et al. (2022) from a study at a Pakistan university, normalise sexual harassment and blame themselves for not fighting back hard enough to stop perpetrators or for failing to physically resist. Many female students normalise, internalise, and trivialise sexual harassment by maintaining silence: very few fight through policy, as noted by Almas et al. (2022) and Anderson and Naidu (2022). Avoidance coping strategies such as normalisation, internalisation, trivialisation, and self-blame seem to be the common strategies adopted by student victims in learning institutions. These strategies are confirmed by Dlomo et al. (2012) and Dube et al. (2021) who concur that most female students remain silent and endure sexual victimisation quietly. In concurrence, the Zimbabwe Labour Act (ZLA) (2022) highlights that there is a reluctance by victims to report sexual harassment incidents and cases due to various reasons including fear of unknown outcomes, fear of retaliation from the perpetrator or family or fear of societal pressures.

Lombardo and Bustelo (2021) and Shalihin (2022) concur that factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment of students in higher education relate to male dominance, sexual objectification of women by men (which women accept and internalise), gender inequality and the absence of policies on sexual harassment. While Taiwo et al. (2014) argue that each context has its own prevailing factors, Kabaya (2016) in South Africa and Omorogiwa (2018) in Nigeria concur that causes of the perpetuation of sexual harassment in institutions of higher learning include poverty, lack of legislation, cultural practices, male dominance (gender inequality) and abuse of drugs and alcohol. Similar factors are highlighted in the Zimbabwean context, where cultural practices, poverty and lack of legislation attribute to sexual harassment (Mapuranga et al. 2015; Mukwidigwi 2018).

The United Nations (UN) (2015) indicates that sexual harassment violates the goals of quality education. UN Sustainable Developmental Goal (SDG) Number 4 on Quality Education focuses on the elimination of gender disparities in education. In this SDG, the UN advocates that all nations must fight for equality in education without gender discrimination (Saini et al. 2023; Yadav and Adsule 2020). The perpetuation of sexual harassment inhibits attainment of SDG 4. Further, SDG 5 on gender equality emphasises the elimination of all forms of violence including sexual violence which disproportionately affects women and girls more than men and boys (Crawford 2020; The World Health Organisation 2019). In the same vein, the United Nations Educational Scientific Organisation (UNESCO) (2022) supports the fulfilment of these SDGs in fighting discrimination to enhance the provision of quality education in all nations and ensure that each person enjoys their basic human rights in full. The United Nations (UN) (2011) argues that whenever and wherever humanity's values are abandoned we all are at great risk as solutions to today's greatest crises are rooted in human rights. Sexual harassment is an abandonment of human values.

Given the prevalence of sexual harassment globally, an attempt to develop a little more understanding of this big issue is worthwhile. This is what this study aims to contribute in a limited way. Through personal experience of teaching and working with students as the college counsellor in the Zimbabwean context, two very interesting issues emerged. First, student teachers do not easily open up about their sexual harassment. Second, the higher education system does not have a sexual harassment policy that could deter perpetrators from harassing student teachers. This again is in line with international trends where institutions do not have stringent legislation to address sexual harassment of students.

The sample explored in this study are students who were training to be teachers. Thus, examining their experiences of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges enabled an exploration of issues that intersect with the bigger debates. These include whether higher education systems can be left maintaining a blind eye towards these issues that violate human and gender rights, promote gender discrimination and inhibit achievement of quality higher education (UN 1999; 2015) or put up an intensive, collective and coordinated fight towards addressing this social ill. This interaction, therefore, lifts the specifics of the

30 student teachers and 12 lecturers that form the heart of this study into the wider debate on human rights, gender equality, teacher education and quality education. Thus, in this study it is not only about understanding the 42 participants. While these student teachers and lecturers are not fully representative due to the small sample size, they exemplify student teachers and lecturers in teacher training colleges and universities in Zimbabwe, a developing country, and may shed light on issues that are pertinent to the wider context.

Further, given the interest in social equity and social justice globally, an understanding of what helps those student teachers to fight sexual harassment in their college contexts may assist in ultimately developing better policies to fight the scourge in higher education institutions and provide better learning atmospheres free from sexual harassment and other harmful practices. This thesis is not necessarily addressing all those high-level questions. It does, however, address a specific research question that contributes to a wider discussion around what can be done to ensure quality teacher education and, in this situation and context, in teacher training colleges in Southern Africa, specifically in Zimbabwe.

Given that the phenomenon of human rights has become an international concern it, therefore, became imperative to focus local efforts in this direction. Therefore, this study sought to explore sexual harassment experiences of student teachers, the coping strategies that they adopt in response to the harassment, and the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

In this study the terms pre-service teacher and student teacher are used interchangeably to mean a teacher trainee.

1.2 Focus and purpose of study

The focus of this study was to explore the sexual harassment of student teachers in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Sexual harassment is currently seen as a social ill prevalent in public and private organisations, institutions and other spheres of life which violates individual rights, given its unsolicited and unwelcome nature, and the offensive, humiliating and disabling consequences to victims (Maran et al. 2022). The question of how student teachers in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe experience sexual harassment has apparently remained inadequately answered. In addition, the coping strategies that they adopt to survive sexual harassment encounters, and the factors that continue to perpetuate sexual harassment in institutions remained blur and need to be explored. Such knowledge was regarded as essential for reviewing the teacher training efforts undertaken by institutions, which reviews were apparently vital if the quality of teacher education provision was to be boosted. Engaging in this study was against the backdrop of an apparent absence of such knowledge.

The student teachers explored in this study were in the third year of their teacher training programmes and the lecturers held posts of responsibility in the selected teacher training colleges as student counsellor, warden, and dean or vice principal in their college (a total of nine lecturers and three vice principals from the three teacher training colleges). These lecturers dealt with student welfare issues on a day-to-day basis.

The purpose of this study was to understand the experiences of sexual harassment that the student teachers had gone through or were going through. Sexual harassment at teacher training level in this context was viewed as having three dimensions: verbal (making sexual comments), non-verbal (sexual gestures) and physical sexual harassment (rape, inappropriate touching etc.). This study set out to understand all three dimensions of experiences of sexual harassment student teachers encountered (Cowan et al. 2020). Data generation, therefore, attempted to extract information indicating to what extent some or all of these dimensions were experienced by student teachers in the selected teacher training colleges.

1.3 Background to the Study

1.3.1 The State of Sexual Harassment in Global and Regional Contexts

Sexual harassment as alluded to above has become a global problem. In relation to that view, Quick and McFadyen (2017) claim that sexual harassment is a global cancerous epidemic which has now been regarded as a chronic health problem in institutions of higher learning and work environments. It is a threat to the peaceful existence of individuals which constitutes a violation of human rights, dignity, honour, social security, and equality (Girdhar and Rajput 2019). Consequently, the UN (2019) recognises this scourge as a severe form of violence and an unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature against women or men (Deora and Vishwakarma 2016). The International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2013) laments that one in three women experience sexual harassment in institutions and workplaces. This makes sexual harassment a real challenge which negatively affects the wellbeing of victims. In the same vein, the UN statistics reveal that 40-50 percent of women in the European Union experience unwanted sexual advances, physical contact, verbal suggestions, or other forms of sexual harassment (ILO 2013). These figures portray a scary situation and suggest unsafe environments for the victims.

In Vietnam, Vietnamese women because of their culture are a legitimate and natural target of sexual harassment and flirting by men (Maran et al. 2022; Landin et al. 2020). In such situations, female students in learning institutions may be prone to sexual exploitation by their academic superiors without questioning it. According to Maran et al., young women in particular receive sexually suggestive phone calls and messages, love proposals and threatening sexual advances. In an environment where sexual harassment and exploitation are viewed as legitimate and natural, victims do not have anywhere to run

to for protection and support. The above sentiments by ILO (2013) are echoed by Burczycka (2020) in Canada who reveals that 51% of female students experience sexual harassment within their learning institutions where they must deal with repeated non-reciprocal sexual pressure, uncomfortable touching, grabbing and pornography. These revelations are in line with Rotenberg (2017) who points out that globally sexual harassment is rife among students in universities where they are offered high grades in assignments and examinations to seduce them to give in to sexual intimacy with perpetrators. Concomitant to this, in America Ridde et al. (2019) found that 83% of female students experience sexual harassment through threats and/or actions where they are unjustifiably penalised, have their grades suppressed or are failed as a strategy to coerce them to provide sexual favours to their lecturers. The above statistics reveal a high prevalence of sextortion in institutions and gross abuse of power.

Not only is sexual harassment rife in the global arena but also regionally. Muasy and Kahiga (2020) indicate that there is high sexual harassment of students at many public universities in Kenya where they experience physical harassment like being touched or caressed on their breasts, buttocks and shoulders against their will. Further, other victims are exposed to verbal harassment where they experience sexually suggestive and offensive comments, and sexual gestures, while some female students are gang raped by their male counterparts. Oni et al. (2019) claim that sexual harassment is rife in South African institutions, where victims are raped by male lecturers or coerced to offer sexual relations on campus by the more socio-economically powerful members of staff. In the same vein, Konlan and Dangah (2023) express similar views pointing out students in the colleges of education in Ghana who experience rampant sexual harassment on campus. The students experience unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, as well as being inappropriately touched. Female students experience sexual violence anywhere on campus: in the library, classrooms, and administrative offices (Muasya 2014; Lazard 2020). Such incidences of sexual harassment in spaces that are meant for students' learning create a hostile learning environment for them. To make matter worse, Landin et al. (2020) reveal that sexually victimised students experience discrimination or segregation following the sexual harassment from their peers, families and society. Such discrimination takes away support structures which could help them to cope with the sexual harassment effects.

Vohlidalova (2018) with reference to the Czech Republic shows that victims of sexual harassment adopt different coping strategies in dealing with sexual harassment. Coping strategies are the mechanisms that victims employ to deal with the effects of sexual harassment. Coping, which is discussed in detail in Chapter Three, is defined by Landy and Laxman (2022) as cognitive and behavioural strategies used by victims of sexual harassment to manage a stressful situation arising from experiencing harassment. Vohlidalova (2018) indicates that student victims of sexual harassment in the Czech Republic use both problem-focused coping and emotion-based coping to manage their unpleasant situations. Problem-

focused coping according to Pantelmann and Walty (2022) is a mechanism which involves active efforts to manage the problem by directly confronting the stressor to eliminate it. In the case of students, problem-based coping may involve confronting or reporting the perpetrator of the harassment to stop it. This is supported by Ferguson (2022) who says victims of sexual harassment may use coping strategies like reporting the harassment or physically resisting the harasser so that they stop the behaviour.

On the other hand, emotion-based coping focuses on the negative emotions that the victim suffers following sexual harassment. In the context of this study, student teachers may search for psychosocial support on campus so that they are assisted to overcome their emotional challenges subsequent to sexual harassment. Such a coping mechanism involves denial of the stress, venting emotions on something else, going for counselling, or even diverting one's attention from the harassment (Ferguson 2022; Leaper et al. 2013; Wood 2017). Concomitantly, Ruhs et al. (2017) claim that many students in universities and colleges rely on psychosocial support from significant others like friends, family, and counselling by professionals to cope with sexual harassment effects. In the college campuses students may rely on friends, peers, or their deans for psychosocial support. Thambo et al. (2019) add that South African students use an emotion-focused approach where they depend on their peers, friends, and family members to cope with sexual harassment. In other cases, for example in Germany, Pantelmann and Walty (2022) show that university students remain silent about their experiences of sexual harassment because the phenomenon has become normalised and legitimised. Students may adopt a normalisation coping strategy because of limited knowledge on how to deal with sexual harassment within their contexts. This normalisation coping strategy is also dominant among Ethiopian students (Worke et al. 2021) and is supported by Sgoifo et al. (2017) who point out that many students normalise the harassment by adopting avoidance coping as a safe strategy due to fear of retaliation by the perpetrator and just suffer in silence.

Sexual harassment hinges on a combination of individualised and system-wide coping strategies to capture the personal, as well as organisational dimension, of sexual harassment (Jenner et al. 2022). Only a concerted effort addressing both aspects will sensitise institutional communities, support the victims, and prevent sexual harassment in education institutions. However, such efforts can only be undertaken when voices of victims are clearly heard. This study attempts to bring to the fore the voices of some victims of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

Factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in learning institutions include absence of legislation to control the violence (Newman et al. 2021). Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) from Sweden, for example, reveal that lack of appropriate legislation and education on sexual harassment are some of the factors contributing to its prevalence in learning institutions. While lack of legislation is a factor influencing sexual harassment prevalence in Sweden, a similar scenario is found in Zimbabwe where Veritas (2022) claims that there is no specific legislation on sexual harassment crafted for teacher training

colleges. This has been confirmed by the Public Service Commission (PSC) (2022) sexual harassment policy. The lack of sexual harassment policy is also confirmed by Ngubelanga (2021) as a contributory factor in South African institutions, as perpetrators can always 'get away with it'. Such views emerge from several studies in other contexts (see for example Anierobi et al. 2021; Gweshengwe and Hassan 2020; Matsikidze 2017) which concur that lack of appropriate legal instruments is a major factor in contributing to the high prevalence of sexual harassment. In the absence of sexual harassment policy, perpetrators may continue harassing the students because nothing is done to punish them for the sexual abuse. Dessel et al. (2017) highlight that male dominance and normalisation of sexual harassment influences its perpetuation in institutions. Culturally, in patriarchal African society, socialisation shows division between boys and girls where boys are expected to be dominant over their girl counterparts. Consequently, girls take subordinate roles. Further to this, dress and the subordination of women in society have come to the fore as other causes of sexual harassment, for example in Malaysian universities and colleges (Shalihin et al. 2022). Ngubelanga (2021) highlights that in addition to the absence of legislation, other issues of poverty, peer pressure, drug and alcohol abuse, and cultural practices are causing the high prevalence of sexual harassment in institutions. There are also issues of power dynamics, where men enjoy superior status socially and economically, including cultural beliefs and practices, within institutional communities which contribute to sexual harassment (Anierobi et al. 2021; Mieczanski 2018).

1.3.2 State of Sexual Harassment in Zimbabwe

Matsikidze (2017) claims that The University of Zimbabwe's Code of Conduct views sexual harassment as unwanted conduct of a sexual nature that affects the dignity of men and women and which includes physical, verbal, and non-verbal conduct that is sexually coloured, offensive, intrusive, degrading or intimidating. Sexual harassment in Zimbabwe has been described as 'as rife as research itself' and a major social problem in institutions of higher learning (Mapuranga et al. 2015; Mkono 2010; Takavarasha 2021).

The Zimbabwe Gender Commission (ZGC) (2021) discovered that gender-based violence in general and sexual harassment in particular, are common ills not only in Zimbabwean workplaces, but also in public and private institutions. Indeed, the number of cases relating to GBV and sexual harassment which have been handled by the ZGC and other responsible institutions, arms of government and non-state-actors, points to the fact that the problem is rampant in Zimbabwe. The ZGC (2021) further highlights that there are various research papers (see, for example, Female Students Network Trust (FSNT) (2015); Mapuranga et al. 2015; Radu and Chekera 2014) and untold individual experiences, which support the conclusion that GBV and sexual harassment are a widespread cancerous scourge in institutions and workplaces in Zimbabwe.

The phenomenon manifests in many forms; verbal, non-verbal and physical harassment (Mkono 2010). Mapuranga et al. (2015) indicate that victims of sexual harassment in colleges and universities experience exposure to sexist or suggestive materials, as well as offensive or objectionable remarks, jokes which are sexual in nature, and inappropriate physical contact. The victims of sexual harassment may also experience being whistled at because of their dress, or receiving sexual intimidation that they will fail in their courses if they do not comply with perpetrators' sexual demands (Hungwe 2010). Such situations may create hostility in the institutional environment. Further, Veritas (2022) adds that victims of sexual harassment experience attempted rape or rape, cyber bullying, explicit sexual remarks, indecent exposure, or are sent obscene pictures. Non-verbal harassment experienced by victims includes leering, ogling, stalking and being sent unsolicited sexual videos by perpetrators while physical harassment encompasses being fondled, kissed, and blocked, as well as being rubbed against (Veritas 2022; Felmlee and Faris 2016).

All these forms of sexual violence experience are grouped by ZGC (2021) into three categories: Cyber violence; Cyber harassment; and Cyber stalking. The ZGC (2021:5) defines these concepts as follows: **Cyber violence** is the online abuse that includes a diversity of tactics and malicious behaviour such as cyber stalking and harassment, sharing embarrassing or cruel content about a person, impersonation, gender-based slurs, 'slut-shaming', unsolicited pornography, 'sextortion', doxing, electronic surveillance to the non-consensual use of photography (or 'revenge porn') and violent threats. **Cyber stalking** is about making a request, suggestion or proposal which is obscene, lewd, lascivious or indecent or threatening to inflict injury or physical harm on the person or property of another person using news media and web-based technology to carry out harassment, such as unwanted emails, text messages, and posting on social network sites such as Facebook. **Cyber stalking** refers to wilful, malicious, and repeated use of electronic communication to harass another person and make threats to instil fear in that person for his or her safety or to a member of that person's immediate family.

The Zimbabwe Female Students Network Trust (FSNT) (2015) and ZGC (2021) concur that rampant sexual harassment in institutions occurs in three forms: vertical, horizontal, and bottom-up. The vertical form of harassment occurs when one has higher status and the other occupies a subordinate position, like lecturer and student. Generally, vertical sexual harassment is the most common type occurring in institutions in the form of a 'quid pro quo' which is influenced by use of power and coercion. 'Quid pro quo' refers to a situation where the perpetrator of sexual harassment sets conditions that the victim may only get what they want if they provide sexual intimacy. In simple terms it is regarded as "something for something" or "a pass for a thigh". This practice in turn increases the vulnerability of female students to 'quid pro quo' arrangements, such as sextortion, because their programme success may be based on the

benevolence of lecturers. Sextortion is the most common 'quid pro quo' arrangement in institutions where lecturers force female students to provide sexual favours in exchange for good marks in assessments. Horizontal sexual harassment is when both parties are at the same level, such as male and female students, while the bottom-up sexual harassment is when a person of lower status harasses a superior, for example, a female student harassing a lecturer.

Takavarasha (2021) commenting on quid pro quo non-contact sexual harassment points out that students receive threats and intimidation, threats of being failed in assignments and examinations, or are offered gifts to lure them into sexual intimacy by perpetrators. Given that students want to succeed in their programmes, and without the courage to report or fight their lecturers who determine their 'success', they end up giving in to the perpetrators. In some cases, students are physically sexually assaulted or raped by male lecturers within campuses (Dhlomo et al. 2012; Humphreys and Towl 2020). Sexually harassing students within their institutions deprives them of safety and freedom, and diminishes the lecturer in 'loco-parentis' pastoral role, as it is the lecturers who are expected to enhance the development of emotional, social and ethical well-being of students by being caring and supportive.

The bottom-up form of sexual harassment, as Mawere and Seroto (2022) claim, is directed at male lecturers by female students and has been described as a modern form of sexual harassment. As explained above, such harassment is perpetrated by a person of a lower status on an individual of a higher rank or status within an organisation. In institutions like universities and teacher training colleges, female students could be the major perpetrators while the male lecturers become the victims (Mawere and Seroto 2022). The bottom-up form of sexual harassment may be perpetrated by female students to get benefits like money, gifts, and undeserving high marks. Such cases are common, as highlighted by Lampman et al. (2016) who reveal that male lecturers experience sexual harassment where female students dress in a sexually provocative fashion, which is revealing, short or tight showing inside parts of their bodies. The perpetrators frequent male lecturers' offices alone, displaying sexual gestures to seduce the male lecturers (King 2019; Keeton-Olsen 2020). Often the female student perpetrators are those who are too lazy to do their schoolwork or are academically weak to pass on their own and so resort to using 'bottom power' to attain good grades and go through the programme. While the above view accuses female students of dressing in a sexually provocative way, on the contrary, female students as argued by Lampman (2016) dress to look attractive, and to feel happy and confident, rather than to seduce men.

Takavarasha (2021) shows that sexual harassment victims in Zimbabwe, like in the global and regional contexts highlighted above, generally adopt an avoidance coping strategy where they are silent about the harassment, avoid meeting the perpetrator, and normalise and internalise the harassment. Avoidance coping may lead to the perpetuation of sexual harassment as the issue is not talked about in the institutions

and may continue unabated. This may be out of fear of the harasser, confusion, or lack of knowledge of what action to take which relates to a research themed “Who can I tell? What should I do?” by the Federation of African Media Women Zimbabwe (2012). This may be, as the ZLA (2022) above suggests, due to fear of unknown outcomes, fear of the perpetrator, family or societal retaliation, hence reluctance to report sexual harassment incidents. In some cases, it may be due to reasons that Dube et al. (2021) highlight when they say students mainly use avoidance as a way of dealing with sexual harassment to avoid exposing themselves to the public. Jenner et al. (2022) point out that coping strategies exist at individual and institutional levels. Individual coping strategies include personal protection strategies and measures against perpetrators. Institutional strategies include guidelines and policies, structured complaint and reporting procedures, formal awareness campaigns, and institutional development and leadership strategies. However, as highlighted above, most institutions lack guidelines and policies. For these reasons, very few victims, according to Mapuranga et al. (2015), develop the guts to openly resist sexual harassment or report the harassment to authorities.

The major contributors to sexual harassment in Higher Education institutions in Zimbabwe include unequal power distribution between men and women in society, male superiority, poverty, legislation, dress and the normalisation of sexual harassment (Dube et al. 2021; Mawere and Seroto 2022). Gender based violence and sexual harassment have their roots in socially constructed gender roles and the power of men over women that is ascribed to these roles through defining what is feminine and what is masculine (ZGC 2021). This power imbalance between men and women leads to women being the most vulnerable to gender-based violence and sexual harassment. For example, women are generally understood as the victims of sexual harassment and the ILO (2018) notes that gender-based violence and sexual harassment remain a problem for women. The ZGC (2021) has established that women rather than men are disproportionately affected by sexual harassment and GBV in workplaces and institutions.

In addition, Mawere and Seroto (2022) indicate that poverty or lack of resources create desperate situations for students, making them susceptible to sexual harassment. Recognising that poverty is one of the key drivers of gender-based and sexual violence, it is vital to note that poverty levels in Zimbabwe have increased over the years. According to ZGC (2021), in 1990 an estimated 25 per cent of the population (2.6 million people) were poor: of these, 7 per cent (slightly more than 700,000) were extremely poor. Since then, poverty has increased in the country. Between 2011/12 and 2017, the proportion living in extreme poverty increased from 22.5 per cent to 29.3 per cent. An estimated 74.5 per cent of the population was living in poverty in 2017 compared to 70.5 per cent in 2011/12. Recently extreme poverty has increased from 29.4 per cent in 2017 to 38 per cent in 2019. This means that about 4.5 million Zimbabweans are living in extreme poverty. This state of poverty has filtered from homes to

institutions. In situations where poverty is a contributing factor, students may not reveal sexual harassment due to economic benefits they may be accruing from the unethical intimacy.

Takavarasha (2021) also claims that poor handling of cases of sexual harassment in institutions or courts of law, including the absence of appropriate legislation, contributes to its prevalence within the learning institution. Further to absence of policy, the general non-criminalisation of sexual harassment perpetrators in Zimbabwe has also influenced the perpetuation of sexual harassment (Veritas 2022). Be this as it may, however, as Matsikidze (2017) posits, those Zimbabwean institutions which may have attempted to develop institutional sexual harassment codes of conduct do not have adequate mechanisms, such as strong, objective investigating committees and counselling services, dedicated to sexual harassment matters. This may imply that the only punishment (if any) meted out to perpetrators would be dismissal from employment. Notwithstanding, the Zimbabwe Constitution (2013) Section 14 and 56, acknowledges gender imbalance, the need for equality, and the rights of all people, especially women, to be protected against human rights violations. More emphasis focuses on protection of women in organisations, workplaces, and institutions both public and private. In addition, the ZLA (28:04) stipulates the fundamental “rights of employees and regulates conditions of employment, as well as the need to fight sexual harassment within work and learning environments, and prohibits any verbal, physical or other form of harassment.” In April 2022 the Government approved the Zimbabwe Public Sexual Harassment Policy as part of measures to improve ambience at workstations and institutions and tackle sexual harassment in organisations. Drawing on this, the Public Service Commission (PSC) Policy (2022) developed guidelines on how sexual harassment can be addressed within the civil service, which includes learning institutions, expecting the institutions to either adopt and use, or come up with their own localised policies. This PSC policy document reveals that the PSC Body acknowledges the high prevalence of sexual harassment in many government workstations in the country and assumes that power imbalance, due to socio-economic conditions, cultural practices, patriarchy, as well as cultural or religious beliefs, contributes to high levels of sexual harassment in these institutions.

A report released by Transparent International Zimbabwe (TIZ) (2023) has revealed that sexual harassment remains rampant despite the awareness and interventions that may be implemented in some public spaces to create safer learning and working environments for women. TIZ shows that more than 57% of the respondents surveyed had been forced to offer sexual favours in exchange for jobs, medical care, and vacancies at institutions, teaching posts or school placements for their children. From these insights it became vital to develop, through a theoretical investigation, an in-depth understanding of sexual harassment in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

1.3.3 Historical and Policy Context of Education in Zimbabwe

Education in Zimbabwe before Independence was offered on racial lines after the arrival of European settlers in 1890. The white minority were regarded as a superior race, hence their education was different from that offered to the black majority children (Mukeredzi 2013). Education for the black children at the time was offered by missionaries. The colonial administrators wanted education for the black child to be practically oriented to create labourers with just basic education for communication while working on the white men's farms (Kanyongo 2005; William 2013). In addition to offering basic education, missionaries initially opened schools as centres for evangelisation. During that period, teachers for the white children's schools were graduates recruited from foreign universities to ensure realisation of effective teaching and learning in the white schools.

Schools were categorised into three groups: Group A, Group B and Group C. Group A schools were solely for white children and these were fully funded and resourced by the government, while Groups B and C were for coloured and black children respectively and only partially funded and resourced (Tarusikirwa 2016). Education in the primary school at the time, according to Manyadze (2021), started with Sub A proceeding to Sub B equivalent to Grades One and Two. After Sub B, children proceeded to Standard One (Grade Three), then Two, Three, Four, Five up to Standard 6 (Grade 8) the then, highest primary school grade before secondary education (Manyadze 2021).

Education during the pre-Independence era had several bottlenecks which were implemented starting at very early stages. Promotion to Standard One was based on performance in Sub B, and advancement to secondary education was bottle-necked at Standard Six (Gomba 2017). Tarusikirwa and Mafa (2013) state that only a handful of black children would be allowed to proceed beyond primary education (beyond Standard Six) after passing national examinations. Only 12.5% of primary school graduates were allowed to proceed to F1 purely academic secondary education, 37.5% were channelled to vocational (practical) education, and the remaining 50% would look for employment as farm labourers, domestic workers or would just disappear and not be accounted for in terms of formal education systems (Berejena 2022; Manyadze 2021; Tarusikirwa (2016).

According to Mukeredzi (2009) most black children (37%) received only basic education and those directed to vocational education in the F2 system, would go into practical fields, which included sewing, cookery, building, agriculture, carpentry, and any other manual jobs thereby leaving the white-collar jobs for the white minority. Mukeredzi further notes that the F2 learners would also be taught commercial arithmetic which comprised home budgeting in preparation for work in the white man's kitchen. As a matter of fact, F2 schools offering technical or practical subjects were designed for black children only.

The F2 system had two exit levels: Grade 9 and Grade 11 and students sat for the Zimbabwe National Examinations at Grade 9 and Grade 11 (Chikozho and Siyakhwazi 2014; Zvobgo 2007).

The F1 schools for academic subjects were meant for the white children and a few black children (12.5%) who were exceptionally good academically (Gomba 2017). In these F1 schools, black children met another bottleneck at Form 2 (Junior Certificate Level after two years of secondary education) to progress to Form 3. At all these national examination points (Standard 6, Form 2), a cut off point for the pass mark was calculated based on the candidates' performance to ensure that the progression percentages were maintained (Tarusikirwa 2016). The dual education system was abandoned on attainment of Independence in 1980 and all bottlenecks removed (Manyadze 2021; Mapako et al. 2012).

1.3.4 Pre-Independence Teacher Education

According to Mukeredzi (2013) teacher education was the responsibility of mission schools mainly in rural areas. Missionary teacher training centres trained Primary Teacher Lower (PTL) which would ensure that after a four-year training, graduates would teach Sub A and Sub B equivalent to Grade One and Two respectively as alluded to above (Berejena 2022; Manyadze 2021). During that period, literature consulted is silent on sexual harassment as there are apparently no documented cases.

At that time in the then Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) graduates from Standard Three, Four, Five and Six were eligible for teacher training and would teach during term time and attend teacher training during the school holidays (Tarusikirwa 2016; Odo 2016). From 1928 to 1963 teacher training was offered at missionary colleges or centres following the Primary Teacher Lower (PTL) and Primary Teacher Higher (PTH) programmes. While the PTL was for Grades One and Two, the PTH graduates would teach Grades Three to Seven. The PTL four-year programme was re-modelled in 1939 to a two-year in-service training for those who had completed Junior Certificate (Manyadze 20021). The PTH model was also changed to a two-year programme for those who had completed ten-years of secondary schooling or those with a Southern Rhodesia Junior Certificate or an equivalent of 12 years of schooling (Siyakhwazi 2014; Odo 2016).

According to Siyakhwazi (2014) between 1956 and 1976 the country witnessed the introduction of government teacher training colleges in addition to the already existing mission centres training teachers, which improved availability of teacher training in the then Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe). In 1956 the government opened the Teachers' College, Hillside, in Bulawayo which was initially a whites only college. Gwelo Teachers' College – now Gweru Teachers College – was opened a few years later to train black teachers (Manyadze 2021; Mukeredzi 2009). Other colleges, like Mutare Teachers' College, were also opened in the late 60s to train teachers for Vocational Secondary Schools (Mukeredzi 2009). During that time the University of Rhodesia was established to help enhance quality in teacher training in conjunction with colleges as associate institutions (Maguraushe 2015).

In the then existing primary teacher training colleges the government introduced the T4 teacher training, a two-year programme to replace the PTL model which developed Early Childhood Education female teachers for Grades One and Two (Tarusikirwa 2016) as highlighted above. The T4 two-year programme's thrust was on learner-centred pedagogies: discovery methods, and group teaching, vital for infant teaching. Later a T3 two-year programme replaced the PTH course for Grades Three to Seven teachers. The course content then included three main areas: professional subjects, academic subjects, and teaching practice. In 1975 the T3 was split into two specialisations to cater for the infant teachers (Grades One and Two and junior teachers Grades Three to Seven) and student teachers would choose specialisations at college (Siyakwazi and Siyakwazi 2012). Around 1976, this T3 two-year teacher training programme was remodelled to a three-year teacher training programme but maintained the name T3 and entry qualifications included a Cambridge 'O' Level School Certificate (Equivalent to Grade 11). All these changes from one programme to the other were meant to enhance teacher quality (Rhodesia Government Education Policy 1966).

To cater for the F2 schools which were teaching practical subjects (vocational courses), another qualification, a T2B, was introduced at Mutare Teachers' College which opened in the late 60s as highlighted above to prepare teachers for teaching vocational subjects. The vocational subjects included agriculture, food and nutrition and clothing and textiles in the vocational secondary schools (Mukeredzi 2009; Zvobgo 1997). Learning levels in this system were Grades Eight to Eleven while those in the F1 schools were Form One to Form Four. On the other hand, a T2A was also introduced at the same time with T2B to train teachers to teach academic subjects in the vocational secondary schools (Chiromo 1999). However, those who would go to teach in F1 secondary schools would be trained on the T1 programme at Gweru Teachers' College and The Teachers' College in Bulawayo. Below, in Table 1.1, I provide a summary of the Pre-Independence teacher training models according to the Education Policy of 1966.

Table 1.1 Pre-Independence Teacher Training Models (Education Policy 1966)

Qualification	Duration in Years Length (Years)	Grades taught
T4	2	1 and 2
T3	3	3 and 7
T2B	2	8 to 11
T2A	2	Forms 1 to 3
T1	3	Forms 1 to 4

Source: Researcher 2023

On attainment of Zimbabwean Independence, the F2 system and secondary schools which had been unpopular from their inception, as they were considered to discriminate against blacks and were used to ensure that black students were trained for manual labour and housework instead of management, the schools were abolished (Mungazi 1989).

From all the literature and records consulted, except one article by Zindi (1994), who researched sexual harassment in Zimbabwe's institutions of higher education and found that in almost every institution in Zimbabwe there existed a significant number of male lecturers who sexually harassed female students, there is no other reference to sexual harassment revealed within the models which would suggest that it was probably discreetly done and did not draw the attention of researchers.

1.3.5 Post-Independence Teacher Education in Zimbabwe

At Independence in 1980 the government of Zimbabwe's focus was on access and universal primary education. The government operated under pressure to provide schools and teachers particularly to rural communities, opening schools in areas that had no schools before, and resourcing schools that had been under-resourced thereby embarking on a massive expansion of and heavy investment in education (Mukeredzi 2009; 2013). Extending educational facilities and resources to the black majority was one of the primary targets and, within a year, the new government had introduced a set of educational reforms designed to redress the disparities and inequalities inherited from the colonial regime (ibid). The dual education system was abolished and several strategies adopted to operationalise the policy of the massification of the education system across all levels (Zvobgo, 2007). The government, therefore, announced free and compulsory education for all in the primary system leading to large volumes of pupils getting enrolled (Mapako et al. 2012). Manyadze (2021) defines massification as referring to mass enrolments of learners at national level to allow many of them to access education. Massification of education in schools also meant that more teachers were needed to cater for the increased numbers of learners in classrooms (Mukeredzi 2009). Mukeredzi further indicates that massification of education occurred across all levels of the education system including teacher education given that the massive expansion of the education system gave rise to teacher demand that outstripped the supply from the conventional teachers' colleges. Consequently, various teacher education programmes and models were introduced to run either concurrently or subsequently: the Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) or the 2.5.2, the 5.7.9, the 2-Year in, 2-Year out Model, the Attachment Model (the 1.1.1.) then back again to the 2.5.2 Model. I briefly discuss these below.

1.3.5.1 The ZINTEC Model (2.5.2)

The Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) was introduced in 1981 in response to the severe teacher shortage given the increased number of pupils and the number of new schools opened. The ZINTEC programme was designed to ensure that many learners in schools were

taken care of by the student teachers as the programme required student teachers to spend more time (Five Terms) on Teaching Practice (TP) and less (Four Terms) at college. The programme had an advantage that it provided on the job training (learning in situ) which made more teachers available in schools (Samkange 2013). Given that students operated as full-time teachers the model was considered as a “shotgun” approach as it quickly helped in the provision of teachers in schools (Proation 2010).

The 2.5.2 model was a three-year teacher training programme which comprised two terms of residential learning on the college campus in the first year, (one term was four months) followed by five terms of TP, and in the final two terms the students were back in college for final examinations. This was a total of nine terms or three years given that a school year in Zimbabwe has three terms. In the ZINTEC model, student teachers assumed full responsibility for classes and were attached to a mentor as overseer (Mukeredzi 2013). This distance education mode to train pre-service, non-graduate teachers for primary schools and its launch was directly responding to making primary education accessible, free and compulsory (ibid). Entry requirements into ZINTEC were 5 ‘O’ Level subjects including a language, and later English language and Mathematics were added. The 2.5.2 model was launched in 1981 complementing the three-year conventional model which had been running before Independence. Another model, the 5.7.9, was introduced a year after ZINTEC.

1.3.5.2 The 5.7.9 Model

The 5.7.9 Model was adopted for implementation in 1981 and then launched in 1982 (Chiromo 1999). This model was a modification of the three-year conventional model, which was only adopted by some but not all the colleges. According to Maguraushe (2015) the 5.7.9 model ran concurrently with the ZINTEC and the three-year models. This programme was designed to allow students to go on TP in their fifth, seventh and ninth terms during training. Due to challenges faced by some colleges in implementing the programme, it did not last long (Siyakwazi 2014). The programme required that twelve months were spent on TP while twenty-four months were spent on campus learning the theory of teaching. Soon after the programme stopped a new model, the 2-Year in, 2-Year out, was introduced (Proation 2010).

1.3.5.3 2-Year in, 2-Year out Model.

The 2-Year in, 2-Year out model was a four-year programme introduced in 1982 where students were in college in their first year (the first three terms) doing the theory of teaching. Berejena (2022) explains that in the second year, the student teachers would be out in schools on TP after learning theory in the first year. In the third year the student teachers would go back to college which would be followed by their final year back on TP. According to Tarusikirwa (2016) the 2-Year in, 2-Year out model meant that students spent two years on campus and two years on TP. During TP, students took full responsibility for classes, alleviating the pressure on teacher shortages in schools. However, in 1990 the programme was abandoned as both lecturers and students felt the fourth year when students were on TP for the second

time, was a waste as students operated like qualified teachers (Manyadze, 2021; Mukeredzi 2009). This led to programme change to the three-year attachment teaching practice model (ATP model).

1.3.5.4 The Three-Year Attachment Teaching Practice (ATP) Model

In the mid-1990s the ATP model was introduced to enable students who were deployed for TP to be attached to qualified and experienced teachers who would help and provide guidance in the students' practice teaching. This was a three-year programme where student teachers would be attached to a qualified and experienced mentor during the entire period of TP in schools. This, therefore, meant that students did not have teaching loads of their own but would take part of their mentor's teaching (Mhlolo 2014). In this regard, according to Mukeredzi (2009), while student teachers were treated as 'supernumeraries', contrarily, the Attachment Model to some extent brought closer cooperation between participating schools and teacher training institutions as it was the mentor who was expected to provide for and nurture professional growth. TP supervision for the student was done by the mentor and lecturers.

For quality assurance the University of Zimbabwe's Department of Teacher Education (DTE) was mandated to carry out external assessment in the final part of practicum. This meant that all the colleges were expected to affiliate with the DTE as associate colleges so that teacher training quality would be standardised across the whole country (Mhlolo 2014). Associateships with the University of Zimbabwe were a way of ensuring a high standard of teacher training through TP external assessment, as well as assessment of course materials and examinations. According to Siyakhwazi (2014), applying for associateship would enable the University of Zimbabwe through DTE to work with all Teacher Training colleges, both secondary and primary teacher training colleges, and provide quality assurance in the production of teachers in the country thereby enhancing education quality. Following the ATP another model the 1.1.1 was later introduced.

1.3.5.5 The 1.1. 1 Model

From 1998, teacher education reverted to a three-year teacher training programme (Tarusikirwa 2016). The 1.1.1 model required student teachers to be residential in college in their first year, followed by TP in the second year, and finally back on the college campus in the third year to integrate practice and theory and eventually write final examinations. This model was popularly known as the "Sandwich" Model of teacher education (Manyadze 2021; Mukeredzi 2009; Tarusikirwa 2016) because the TP year was sandwiched between the two years of residential college courses. The model, however, exposed the students to more time in college than on TP. Musingafi et al. (2015) remark that this conventional mode of training placed emphasis on trainees acquiring the requisite theory and skills before they were deployed to teach.

1.3.5.6 Return of the 2.5.2 Model

In 2003, the government reverted to the 2.5.2 model to meet teacher demand in schools following an unprecedented economic meltdown in the country which led to a mass exodus of teachers to neighbouring countries (Berejena 2022). At the time of this study, all the primary teacher training colleges were following the 2.5.2 teacher training model. In other words, participants in my study were on the 2.5.2 teacher training model.

All the teacher education models discussed above were implemented in a bid to provide professionally qualified teachers who would enhance the quality of the Zimbabwean education system and enhance children's learning achievements (Manyadze 2021). In Table 1.2 below I provide a summary of the different teacher training models that were introduced after Independence in Zimbabwe.

Table 1.2 A Summary of Teacher Training Models 1980-2003

Model	Year Launched	Duration in Years	Programme Structure
ZINTEC 2.5.2	1981	3	First 2 Terms theory on Campus, 5 Terms on TP, and Last 2 Terms theory on Campus
5.7.9	1982	3	TP Terms 5, 6, and 9, Other 6 Terms theory on Campus
2-Year in, 2-Year out	1982	4	TP in 2 nd and 4 th year, Theory on Campus 1 st year and 3 rd year
ATP	1990	3	TP 2 nd Year Student Attached to Mentor 1 st year and 3 rd Year theory on Campus
1.1.1	1998	3	TP 2 nd Year only, Attached to mentor 1 st and 3 rd Year theory on campus
2.5.2	2003	3	First 2 Terms on Campus, 5 Terms on TP and Final 2 Terms on Campus

Source: Researcher 2023

From the models of teacher training discussed above, it is not clear whether sexual harassment occurred as literature consulted was silent on the issue except the article by Zindi (1994) alluded to above. According to Muridzo and Chikadzi (2020), cases of sexual harassment in learning institutions seem to be a new phenomenon as they have recently been reported. This study sought to establish the sexual harassment experiences of student teachers, the coping strategies that they adopt, and the factors contributing to the prevalence of this practice in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

Having provided in detail the history of both basic education, and teacher training in Zimbabwe, from the colonial era through post-Independence to the time of this study, in the next section I outline the statement of the problem.

1.4 Statement of the problem

Sexual harassment has become an epidemic in tertiary education systems the world over, affecting the wellbeing of students in learning institutions (Bondestam and Lundquist 2020). Students experience verbal, non-verbal and physical harassment which severely affects their emotional and social health, as well as their academic progress as teacher trainees (Cowan et al. 2020). Notwithstanding the prevalence of the phenomenon in higher education, the lack of sexual harassment policy, including under-reporting

by the victims, who adopt silence cultures and normalise the harassment, makes it complicated to address the phenomenon in teacher training colleges (Latcheva 2017; Tavares and Wodon 2018). Lots of academic work (Anderson and Naidu 2022; Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020; Burczycka 2020; Mutinta 2022; Ridde et al. 2019; Tegegne et al. 2018) on sexual harassment in universities has been carried out globally and regionally. Limited research on the phenomenon has been carried out in Zimbabwean universities (Mawere 2021; Mawere and Moyo 2020; Mukwidingwi 2018), however, and no research has been done on teacher training colleges to understand from student teacher voices their experiences of sexual harassment. Their voices need to be heard and the sexual harassment issues engaged with, interrogated, and critically analysed to provide some insights into this phenomenon in teacher training colleges. This study, therefore, sought to explore sexual harassment in Zimbabwean teacher education through the unheard voices of pre-service teachers in selected teacher training colleges.

1.5 Key Research Question

In pursuit of the issues raised above, the study attempted to answer the following key question: *What are the unheard voices of pre-service teachers on sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe?* To achieve this aim, the following research questions were asked:

1.5.1 Sub-research questions

1. What are the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges?
2. How do pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?
3. What are the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?

1.6 Personal context and motivation

My interest in sexual harassment dates back to the time when I was a learner in secondary education. I witnessed cases of teacher-pupil sexual relationships, where young girls would be “forced” into the sexual relationship with teachers in the high school. This teacher-pupil relationship continued unabated, notwithstanding the fact that professionally the relationship between teachers and pupils is supposed to be like that of parents and children. The teachers were abdicating their ‘in loco-parentis’ pastoral role where they were expected to demonstrate support and empower learners, responding to their educational, social, emotional and other needs to enhance their learning. According to Nakpodia (2012), teachers’ responsibilities include acting ‘in loco parentis’ where they assume the role of parents in their interactions with their learners. As a high school learner, I wondered whether sexual relationship between teachers and female pupils was based on mutual consent or whether teachers were taking advantage of the lack of legislation and or supervision, as some of the perpetrators were School Heads, and on the other hand the young female learners just out of fear or respect submitted to the demands.

Later, as a student teacher in a teacher training college, rumours would swirl around about lecturers sexually harassing female student teachers in return for high marks and other material and financial benefits. While such 'quid pro quo' relationships existed, there were likely to be others outside this form of coercion, but all these sexual relationships and violations were normalised as they were not formally reported. Reviewed literature indicates that normalisation of sexual harassment is common in higher education as both victims and management trivialise or minimise the harassment (Karami et al. 2021).

In 1998 I joined the teaching profession as a qualified secondary school teacher. Given my memories of sexual harassment of young girls in primary school, I was determined to find an opportunity to talk to learners, especially girls, about sexual relationships with staff and other social life issues. So, I volunteered to be a school counsellor where I would talk about social and academic issues.

Subsequently, I applied to study for a Bachelor of Science Degree in Counselling. After my first degree in counselling I was automatically appointed School Guidance and Counselling Coordinator. This post exposed me to many cases of teacher-pupil relationships in the school which happened during sporting activities and other school outings.

These teacher-pupil relationships were termed improper relationships because they were between two people of different statuses. My post as Guidance and Counselling Coordinator made me aware of sexual abuse prevalent in schools but not reported, although rumours went around.

In 2011 when I joined the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation and Science and Technology Development (MHTEISTD) as a college lecturer I was also appointed College Students Counsellor. In this position I became aware that sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges was rife from the number of students who came to my office for help to fight victimisation and sexual harassment from lecturers and other college staff. I handled several cases affecting students at the college and sexual harassment was one of the issues students raised, though they were reluctant to make formal reports against the perpetrators or allow me to take issues up. All this not only kept me in close contact with student exploitation issues, but also developed in me a passion for in-depth understanding of student sexual harassment experiences on a wider scale. Reviewed literature (Gaidzanwa and Manyeruke 2016; Mawere and Serot 2022; Shumba and Matina 2002; Veritas 2022) shows that sexual harassment was rampant in institutions of higher learning. Apart from these academic works which indicated a high prevalence of sexual harassment in tertiary education, focusing on universities, there was apparently no literature on the state of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges. This motivated me to investigate sexual harassment in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Given my involvement as a counsellor at high school and college level as discussed above, I came into this study with some axiological assumptions that are discussed in the following section.

1.7 Axiological Assumptions

Axiological assumptions may be perceived as the role of values and ethical issues taken into consideration when one is carrying out a study (Kivunja 2017). Values are fundamental beliefs, behaviours and attitudes that have been approved and accepted as good by society and are regarded as the inner realities of an individual (Gamage et al. 2021). Thus, in my case, axiological assumptions involve values and biases that I brought into the study as a researcher.

Due to the fact that I generated data through interviews and drawings, I openly acknowledge the value-laden nature of the data generated from the field and report my own values and biases (Mukeredzi 2009; Rahman 2017). The researcher, therefore, openly acknowledges and discusses values that shape the narrative. As the major data generating instrument my presence would be apparent through the interpretation and presentation of data. In my interpretation and presentation of data, my perceptions and experiences as a college counsellor and college lecturer working at a teacher training college may have influenced the way I conducted the study.

Despite the efforts that I made in ensuring objectivity during data generation and analysis, my biases could in some way have influenced my conduct of this study. On the other hand, the values of my participants could also have influenced this study because their responses were analysed and explored through their understanding of sexual harassment in terms of their experiences, coping strategies and factors that they thought were contributing to sexual harassment in the selected teacher training colleges. I, however, ensured that ethical considerations were adhered to throughout the study, for example, ensuring confidentiality and anonymity in reporting findings using pseudo-names, allowing voluntary participation of participants and exercising honesty, and integrity in the way I conducted my study (Arifin 2018; Kivunja 2017). I maintained an open mind throughout the processes, treating participants with respect and honesty at all times (Cresswell 2014; Gamage et al. 2021). Having declared my axiological assumptions in advance, the rationale for the study is presented next.

1.8 Rationale

The rationale for my study was driven by the following three aspects: lack of research on sexual harassment in teacher training colleges; the desire to get insights into sexual harassment in teacher training colleges; and lack of sexual harassment policy in teacher training colleges.

First, sexual harassment has become a topical issue across the globe and contemporary studies have been conducted and are still being conducted on sexual harassment in universities. For example, Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) investigated sexual harassment experiences of students in higher learning in Sweden and Ridde et al. (2019) researched sexual harassment of female students at an American university. Tegegne et al. (2018) explored the prevalence and experiences of sexual harassment among

students in Ethiopia's Jimma University while Makhaye et al. (2023) at a South African university studied students' challenges after sexual harassment. Limited research on the phenomenon has been documented in Zimbabwean universities by Mawere and Moyo (2020) who researched sexual harassment of female students during attachment in schools and Mukwidingwi (2018) researched sexual harassment and coercion of female students at a Zimbabwean university. However, there seems to be a dearth of research on sexual harassment of student teachers in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Dube et al. (2021) lament that the few studies on sexual harassment conducted in Zimbabwe have concentrated on sexual harassment in universities, while the teacher training colleges have been completely ignored.

Secondly, this study would give me insight as a student counsellor on sexual harassment experiences of student teachers in teacher training colleges. Given that new ways and ideas emanate from research, the study would fulfil this utilitarian value and consequently any feedback would be of maximum benefit to my work and responsibilities (Mukeredzi 2009), not only as counsellor and lecturer in college but as a parent, and as someone in loco parentis of these students. In addition, this study would provide a safe platform for victims of sexual harassment to share their experiences, coping strategies and knowledge on why sexual harassment is rampant in teacher training colleges. Further, with an in-depth awareness of the state of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges, interactions with colleagues at local college level, as well as colleagues in the colleges explored, could contribute to in-college policy formulation, critique and practice in relation to sexual harassment not only in the three selected teacher training colleges, but also at national level.

Thirdly, very limited literature is available for policy makers regarding the sexual harassment that student teachers have gone through or are going through in teacher training colleges. The daily challenges that they are confronted with, the stresses that they have to live with (Mukeredzi 2009), and the sexual harassment experiences that they go through in these teacher training colleges needed to be documented. The student teachers under these circumstances are expected to engage in their learning as required by their programmes. The purpose of this study was to develop an understanding of the sexual harassment experiences that these student teachers encounter, and the coping strategies that they adopt. It attempted to get behind the 'faces and skins' of these student teachers and to understand, through their eyes and stories (Mukeredzi 2009), their sexual harassment experiences and how they cope with the effects in teacher training colleges.

Further, given that the study was located within larger international concerns about sexual harassment, findings therefrom would inform policy makers, institutions, as well as other experts, on issues of sexual harassment in institutions. The government through the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation, Science and Technology and Development (MHTEISTD) needed empirical evidence about

the prevalence and escalation of sexual harassment to unimaginable levels within the country (University of Zimbabwe World News 22 July 2021). Therefore, this study could contribute knowledge in that area.

1.9 Overview of the Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded in two theories which provided the framework that guided data generation and analysis, and the explanation of findings: Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC). These two theories complemented each other and provided a lens to explore and understand the unheard voices of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in the selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

The SCGT was the overarching theory which helped address my Research Question One on how students experience sexual harassment. It also helped address Research Question Three on factors contributing to the prevalence of the phenomenon in colleges. The main proponents of SCGT were Judith Lorber and Judith Butler. From the SCGT, everything that people see or come to know as reality is socially constructed (Wood and Eagly 2015). In the context of my study, the way victims of sexual harassment experience it is influenced by societal perceptions of male dominance where women are looked down upon as inferior (Subasi 2020). Student victims experience sexual harassment through coerced sexual engagements, which encompass rape, threats, and improper contact, because it is normalised in the learning institutions.

According to proponents of SCGT, gender is socially constructed knowledge which emanates from socio-cultural influences (Grunow and Baur 2014). Further, from the theory, sexual harassment of women is located in a societal structure which promotes patriarchy, where male dominance within homes and society is pronounced. Thus, the sexual harassment experiences of student teachers are a reflection of what society teaches men through socialisation in the family, school or media (Subasi 2020). Further the victimised students are exposed to sexualised remarks, sexual exploitation or being sent nude pictures as perpetrators abuse their positions. All these forms of sexual harassment experiences reflect the marginalisation of women due to culture in patriarchal societies (Heise and Stern 2018).

The SCGT also helped unpack Question Three about factors that contribute towards the prevalence of sexual harassment. Patriarchy creates power inequalities where men disproportionately enjoy more power than women. This may be one of the causes of the prevalence of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges (Gweshengwe and Hassan 2020). Within the teacher training colleges poverty, normalisation of sexual harassment, laziness of students, cultural factors, lack of legislation and indecent dress are some of the factors that may contribute to sexual harassment.

The complementary theory, the TMSC, was vital for addressing Research Question Two on coping strategies which SCGT could not assist in unpacking. The TMSC, whose main proponents are Richard

Lazarus and Susan Folkman (Biggs et al. 2017), shows that stress is a relationship or transaction between a person and the environment which is appraised as unbearable or exceeding one's coping abilities (Goh 2010; Wolfers and Schneider 2021). Coping is regarded as a cognitive and behavioural mechanism which is taken to modulate internal and external pressures (Smith et al. 2017; Stevens and Dillman 2016).

The TMSC theory is based on three key principles: Emotional-Based Coping, Harmful (Dysfunctional) Coping and Problem-Based Coping.

Emotional-Based Coping focuses on altering the emotional responses of the victim. This coping technique reduces the symptoms of stress without actually addressing the source of the stress (Keller 2020). It involves psychosocial intervention where the victimised student teacher could get psychosocial support from peers, family and/or seek counselling from college counsellors.

Harmful (Dysfunctional) Coping strategy involves avoiding the situation or denying its existence or pretending as if the stressor does not exist (Ganster and Rosen 2013; Segerstrom and Smith 2019). In this study this strategy could be avoidance coping where students avoid the harasser through, for example, absconding from his or her lectures if the harasser is a lecturer or even indulging in drug and alcohol abuse as a way of 'running away' from or managing their stress.

Problem-Based Coping strategy is a task-oriented coping mechanism which predominantly focuses on the problem, making a direct effort to modify the situation or to diminish the source of stress (Bonanno and Burton 2013). This strategy deals with the stressor directly: for example, students could report sexual harassment to authorities or resist sexual harassment by challenging the harasser to stop the harassment.

1.10 Overview of the methodological approach

My study, which explored the unheard voices of sexually harassed pre-service teachers in **some** teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe, was located in the interpretive paradigm and adopted a multi-site case study design where students in three teacher training colleges were investigated. The interpretive paradigm focuses on human experiences, and subjectivity rather than objectivity (Cresswell 2009). Given my focus on experiences, the paradigm enabled generating data from students' perspectives of their lived experiences. The multi-site case study enables data generation from real life scenarios and ensures replications and comparisons between and within sites (Creswell 2013; Yin 2017). This was the case in my study where I used three research sites. This study also adopted a qualitative approach aligned to the interpretive paradigm and case study design due to the fact that it enables exploring lives and lived experiences of the participants (Rahman 2017; Yin 2009). **Thus, non-probability** convenience sampling designs and purposive sampling techniques were employed. Convenience sampling was used to identify

the students who had experienced some form of sexual harassment, and it was from this large group, that I purposively selected my sample for the study.

In addition, purposive sampling was utilised in identifying for sampling the three teachers training colleges, as well as the three lecturers and one vice principal at each college. The lecturers and vice principals were selected for the study because of their strategic positions which allowed them to work with students on a day-to-day basis. Face-to-face interviews and drawings were used to generate data in this study. Both lecturers and students were interviewed. Drawings were confined to female student teachers only to illustrate how they were affected by sexual harassment. Interviews allowed participants free expression and enabled me to probe and follow up on responses. On the other hand, drawings assisted female student teachers to share their emotions and feelings which they might not have been able to verbalise. Generated data were transcribed and then organised according to research questions, following which they were analysed through eight steps of open coding which included transcribing, familiarisation with data, sorting and organising data according to research questions, assigning codes to data, clustering codes into categories, forming themes by clustering categories, hermeneutic cycle and development of interpretation.

The trustworthiness of the study to enhance rigour was discussed under its four aspects: credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability. Credibility was enhanced through methodological and theoretical triangulation. Transferability was enhanced by providing thick descriptions in data presentation and analysis and using different teacher training colleges as research sites located in different environments and under different governance (government, missionary). Therefore, transferability of results would be possible to similar and specific contexts. Dependability was promoted by maintaining an audit trail, by recording all the research steps and processes for anyone to confirm. Member checking peer debriefing and audit trails also enhanced confirmability.

In this study, ethical considerations were observed throughout and these included informed consent where participants voluntarily confirmed willingness to take part in the study by signing consent forms, and also the use of pseudonyms to safeguard confidentiality and maintain anonymity, as well as sharing data with supervisors only. I conducted the whole research process in an honest manner and only started data generation after obtaining ethical clearance from the university and consent letters from all gate keepers at both ministry and college levels. Finally, limitations of the study related to lack of generalisability of the findings given the philosophical and methodological orientations adopted, and issues of researcher bias in the generation and interpretation of data are highlighted.

1.11 Chapter Summary and Overview of the Thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters. The study explored sexual harassment in teacher education, through the unheard voices of pre-service teachers in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

Chapter One, the current chapter, introduced the study indicating that sexual harassment is prevalent in both workplaces and learning institutions in Zimbabwe.

The focus and purpose of the study were outlined, followed by background for the study which covered aspects on the state of sexual harassment in global and regional contexts, as well as the state of sexual harassment in Zimbabwe. The historical and policy context of education in Zimbabwe was also presented, which was followed by a description of pre-Independence and post-Independence teacher education in Zimbabwe. I then outlined the statement of the problem, after which I set out research questions. Following this, I described my personal context and motivation for carrying out the study, as well as my axiological assumptions. The rationale for the study was also outlined. Thereafter, overviews of the theoretical framework and methodological approach were outlined, followed by chapter summary and overview of the thesis.

Chapter Two reviews literature related to sexual harassment drawing on global, regional and national studies. The literature review is organised conceptually, drawing on concepts from research questions. The reviewed literature first addresses the sexual harassment experiences of students in institutions of higher learning, then coping strategies employed to handle the effects of the harassment, and finally factors influencing the prevalence of sexual harassment in institutions. Literature (Buczyka 2020; Mumford et al. 2020; Muntinta 2022; Ngubelanga 2021; Matsikidze 2017; Ncube 2022) from the global, regional, and national contexts show that sexual harassment is rampant in institutions of higher learning. These studies reveal that students adopt emotion-based coping where they rely on friends and peers for psychosocial support, consult counselling services or simply avoid the harassers. Research (Garret and Hassan 2019; Keplinger et al. 2019) reveals that not many students adopt problem-based coping to resist harassment or report to authorities. With regard to the main factors contributing to sexual harassment, reviewed literature (Dessel et al. 2017; Shalihin et al. 2022) highlights lack of relevant policy, poverty, normalisation of sexual harassment and cultural practices.

Chapter Three presents the two theoretical frameworks which inform my study. The chapter traces the historical development of the Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC), drawing on their historical proponents: Judith Lorber and Judith Butler and Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman respectively. For each theory, following the discussion of the historical development, the key principles and their application are discussed, and finally a critique and how the weaknesses are addressed in the study to minimise their impact on findings.

Chapter Four outlines the research design and methodology employed to answer the three research questions set out in Chapter One. In this study on sexual harassment in teacher training colleges, I discuss the interpretive paradigm followed by multiple-site case study research design where three teacher training colleges were used as research sites. A qualitative approach, population and sampling of colleges, 30 student teachers and 12 lecturers, are discussed. Thereafter, the processes of data generation through interviews and drawings are outlined.

Data analysis through open coding is described. Trustworthiness and ethical considerations that were adhered to throughout the study are also described.

Chapter Five presents and analyses data addressing Research Question One on the sexual harassment experiences of student teachers. What emerged is that student teachers understood sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy which included sexual assault, uncomfortable touching and use of threats (Zucchini and Fatima 2019). In addition, sexual derogatory language and misuse of authority are other understandings of sexual harassment students held. Their sexual harassment experiences included coerced sexual engagements where they experienced threats, rape, inappropriate touching or improper contact, abuse of position, sexual exploitation, and sexualised remarks.

Chapter Six analyses and presents the data generated to address Research Question Two on coping strategies adopted by victims of sexual harassment. Three basic coping strategies, as described above, emerged: emotion-based coping, harmful or dysfunctional coping mechanism and problem-based coping (Lomax and Meyrick, 2020).

Chapter Seven, the last data presentation and analysis chapter, focuses on Research Question Three, addressing the factors which contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment of student teachers in teacher training colleges. The data show lack of legislation, poverty and normalisation of sexual harassment as the major factors that perpetuate sexual harassment of student teachers in colleges.

Chapter Eight is the final chapter which brings together the findings through discussion, and conclusions drawn from the study under the different research questions to show how the questions were answered. Methodological reflections are provided, followed by a review of the study. The chapter highlights the contribution of the study to the body of knowledge. Recommendations and implications drawn from the study are then provided before a summary wraps up the chapter.

1.11 Definitions of Terms

The purpose of this section is to provide operational definitions of key terms as they were understood and used by the author in the context of this study.

Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is defined by Girdhar and Rajput (2021) as unwelcome, undesirable and sexually exploitative behaviour which includes sexual contact, request for sexual favours, sexual remarks, rape and sexual jokes and showing pornographic material. In this study sexual harassment is perceived as unwelcome behaviour of a sexual nature where lecturers or other staff within the teacher training colleges coerce or exert their influence on student teachers to force them to have sexual relations. In such a scenario sexual harassment interferes with the learning of the student teachers as these perpetrators abuse their authority. Sexual harassment results in physical, emotional, psychological, or sexual harm.

According to Choo and Ping (2021) and Son (2017), sexual harassment whether small or big negatively affects the individual socially, emotionally, and academically. It is the vertical harassment perpetrated by people who are economically and socially superior to the victims which is prevalent.

Teacher education

This refers to the structures, institutions and processes, policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes required to make them effective teachers when they enter the profession of teaching (Rajagopalan 2019). It is, therefore, the training offered in tertiary education by universities and teacher training colleges. In the context of this study, however, teacher education is offered by teacher training colleges to pre-service teachers.

Pre-service teachers

These are students who are enrolled in the teacher training programmes so that they go through theory and practical lessons before they are awarded certificates to teach as qualified teachers (Dejene et al. 2018). In other words, these are student teachers pursuing teacher training for certification. In this study, pre-service teachers are student teachers going through a period of training in the teacher training colleges before they are awarded certificates to work as qualified teachers. In Zimbabwe at the time of this study, qualified teachers who would have gone through teacher training in college were awarded a diploma in education.

Student teachers

These are students who participate in an educational course so that they obtain a teaching qualification (Kim et al. 2020). Student teachers and pre-service teachers both refer to teacher trainees and are used interchangeably in this study. In my study student teachers or teacher trainees are the learners undergoing a three- or two-year training so as to obtain a Diploma in Education from teacher training colleges. Three years training at the time of this study were undertaken after Ordinary level graduates and those who would have acquired Advanced Level would undertake a two-year teacher training course, also leading to a Diploma.

Teacher Training Colleges

These are tertiary education institutions designed to facilitate the effective training of students pursuing teacher education (Mishra et al. 2020). In this study teacher training colleges are institutions of higher learning offering Diplomas in Education for both primary teachers and secondary teachers across the country. While elsewhere they may be known as teacher education colleges, in Zimbabwe they are called teacher training colleges, hence the use of the terms in this study.

Unheard voices

These are voices which are not listened to or considered important to be taken note of (Morton et al. 2021). Unheard voices are regarded as silent voices since no one takes heed of them. In this study unheard voices refer to the complaints, challenges and plight of student teachers as the victims of sexual harassment which are not given any meaningful attention by those in authority, hence, the harassment goes on unabated.

Having introduced and set the scene for the study, the next chapter (Chapter Two) presents a critical review of related literature.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter (Chapter One) set the scene for the study, arguing for the problem highlighted, providing the background information and outlining the focus of the study. Research questions were outlined, as well as the rationale which was preceded by personal context, and motivation for carrying out this study on sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in teacher education in Zimbabwe. This chapter critically reviews relevant literature, which Van der Waldt (2021) defines as a systematic identification, location and analysis of relevant documents which contain information pertinent to the research problem under study.

Reviewing literature in this study was vital for providing a picture of academic work carried out and enabling a richer appreciation of the phenomenon of sexual harassment under investigation (Kraus et al. 2021; Snyder 2019). Therefore, the process helped in contextualising my topic and exposed me to how similar, related concepts are viewed, understood and applied by other researchers in the field. Reviewing literature is vital for informing and guiding researchers (Gusenbauer and Haddaway 2019; Mudavanhu 2017). In this study, the literature review provided me with the lenses to understand how experts in the field engaged with research principles, methodologies and the whole process of research. Ramdhani et al. (2014) point out that literature review provides a meaningful description, summary and critical evaluation of an aspect under scrutiny. In this regard, the descriptions, summaries and critical evaluation of the studies carried out by other researchers on the phenomenon, exposed me to what has been addressed on sexual harassment and the questions that were still outstanding. I was able to identify gaps (the outstanding/unanswered questions) in the existing body of knowledge (Ferreira et al. 2019; Mudavanhu 2017) to which my study would contribute.

Literature in this chapter is drawn mainly from recent sources that I consulted. However, a few dated sources were consulted because of the pertinent information that they contained which I could not find in the current sources. Further, the literature is presented conceptually, drawing concepts from research questions and informed by global, regional and national debates.

This chapter is organised into five sections. The first section reviews literature which deals with the understandings of sexual harassment. The second section reviews literature on experiences of sexual harassment. This is followed by a discussion of the effects of sexual harassment on the victims. Thereafter, I critically review literature on coping mechanisms adopted by victims of sexual harassment, followed by a critical review of literature on the factors contributing to sexual harassment. Finally, a chapter summary ties up the key issues emerging from the discussions. In the next section I discuss how sexual harassment is understood.

2.2 Understanding Sexual Harassment.

Chavan and Amiri (2016) from India define sexual harassment as unwelcome verbal, visual (non-verbal) or physical conduct of a sexual nature that is severe and pervasive. Kelly (2017) from Korea goes further to view sexual harassment as unwanted conduct of a sexual nature which violates a person's dignity or creates an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment. Drawing from the definitions above sexual harassment is an unwelcome and pervasive act which violates the other person's rights (victim). Sexual harassment occurs whether the harasser is aware of it or not (Kelly 2017; Nauman and Abbasi 2014). Ridde et al. (2019) in the United Kingdom further argue that sexual harassment of women involves unwanted physical contact, verbal comments, ogling and stalking. They, further, say that violent outcomes such as sexual assaults are common within campuses and organisations. From the above literature, sexual harassment takes many forms with which the victims are not comfortable. Worke et al. (2021) regard sexual harassment as a serious manifestation of sexual discrimination where the victim suffers in a plethora of ways which affect their dignity and create a hostile environment for them. In this study sexual harassment is understood as any unwelcome behaviour of a sexual nature directed towards the victim by a perpetrator which violates a person's dignity, or creates an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment. Most victims in these cases are pre-service teachers in teacher training institutions.

Agardh et al. (2022) at a Swedish university investigated staff's and students' understanding of sexual harassment through a cross-sectional analysis. Findings indicate that 80% of the participants understood sexual harassment as unwelcome gestures, unwelcome remarks and touching as the most prevalent forms of sexual harassment according to their understanding. The same study suggests that 2.1% of female and 0.6% of male participants viewed sexual harassment as associated with rape. Other findings of the study reveal that sexual harassment was also understood as unwelcome soliciting of or pressuring for dates, unwelcome bodily contact, unwelcome gifts, grabbing or fondling, suggestive looks and stalking. These findings were supported by WHO (2021) who argue that sexual harassment is understood as basically unwanted sexual attention, sexual coercion, unwelcome compliments or remarks, invitations and suggestive acts. The above study by Agardh et al. (2022) is similar to my study in terms of student

participants. However, it differs from my study in that I adopted a qualitative approach in the context of teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe, a developing country. Agardh et al.'s (2022) study suggested what I should focus on in my study regarding participants' understandings of sexual harassment.

Another study by Monslave et al. (2022) carried out in Colombia at two universities in Medellin explored female and male understandings of sexual harassment. A mixed methods approach was employed where surveys, in-depth interviews and reflection workshops were used to generate data. From the findings, women viewed sexual harassment more negatively than men. Further, sexual harassment was understood as unwanted sexual advances due to power dynamics between men and women within an organisation or institution. In addition, the research findings revealed that sexual harassment was understood as a violation of women's fundamental freedoms which prevents them from exercising self-determination and enjoying decent conditions within their organisations or deprives them of their right to complete their education. The findings are further supported by literature from Holland and Cortina (2016) who argue that sexual harassment is gender abuse where crude sexual attitudes both verbal and nonverbal are directed towards a certain gender. Sexual coercion and unreciprocated sexual advances and unwelcome repeated requests for dates and sex are also understood as associated with sexual harassment (Sojo et al. 2016; Thurston et al. 2017). While the study was carried out in a different context, and used a different research approach, it was conducted in institutions of higher learning similar to my study and used similar data generation instruments, like interviews, which gave me pointers to what to look out for in my own study.

At a regional level, Menon et al. (2014) in Zambia conducted a study at the University of Zambia on participants' perceptions and knowledge of sexual harassment. This was a cross sectional study, where data were generated from 913 students, 90 academic staff and 97 non-academic staff. Women understood sexual harassment as involving solicitation of sex in return for something, for example, promotion (*quid pro quo*), and also creating a sexually hostile environment for the victim. The idea of a hostile environment is supported by Choo and Ping (2021) who say that creating a sexually hostile environment implies making whistles, leers, sexual remarks or even cornering the victim physically with one's body or even standing too close to the person which may be uncomfortable for the victim. Further, unwelcome sexual advances, degrading statements or behaviour, sexual teasing, jokes, looks and gestures were cited as what they understood as sexual harassment. It was yet to be determined in this study, whether my participants also understood sexual harassment in this manner. In support of this, Buchanan et al. (2018) and Langer (2017) concur that victims of sexual harassment understand it as annoying, offensive, upsetting, dehumanising, intimidating and disempowering sexual behaviour towards the targeted individual. This study relates to my study in terms of its focus and context (higher learning institution). The method of generating data differed from my study which is qualitative but the study helped me to

appreciate that women tend to have more knowledge of sexual harassment because of being more vulnerable to the phenomenon than men (Karami et al 2021; WHO 2013). This informed me to probe and follow up more on women participants' responses during interviews than male participants.

Another regional study was conducted by Kabaya (2016) in South Africa at the University of

KwaZulu-Natal. The study sought to explore the meanings students attached to sexual harassment and ways of reducing the phenomenon. The study relates closely to my study as it was informed by the Social Construction of Gender Theory as its theoretical framework, one of the theories that I adopted in my study. Again, like in my study, an interpretive paradigm was adopted with a qualitative approach, focus group discussions and individual interviews generated data which employed thematic analysis to understand and unpack it. The theory used by Kabaya (2016) pointed me to how to use this theory in data generation and understand it, as well as describing findings. While I did not use focus group discussions in my study, but interviews and drawings, Kabaya's (2016) methodology guided me on generating data. Research findings reveal that some students understood sexual harassment as forbidden behaviour which is unwelcome, and which causes harm to the victim. Sexual harassment was understood as the use of force to make someone enter into a relationship with the perpetrator. These ideas suggested to me what to look out for in my study.

Nationally, Mapuranga et al. (2015) carried out a study at a Zimbabwean state university focusing on developing an in-depth understanding of sexual harassment as understood by female workers at this state university. This was a mixed methods study. Findings revealed that sexual harassment was understood by victims as a common occurrence within that institution. The findings further showed that sexual harassment is perceived as behaviour which interferes with the victim's work because there is often intimidation and threats directed at the victims by the perpetrators. They also understood it as involving verbal, non-verbal and physical harassment. While the major similarity with Mapuranga's study relates to context, Mapuranga studied university students at one institution, whereas my research was a multiple-site case study of students in three selected teacher training colleges. Mapuranga et al.'s (2015) study made me aware that the most data on sexual harassment is obtained from the victims, the women. This is supported by Oni et al. (2019) who argue that female students are sexually harassed more than male ones and as such they can provide rich data.

From the discussion above, globally sexual harassment is understood as unwanted conduct of a sexual nature, which is an unwelcome and pervasive act that violates other people's rights, and dignity, creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for the victim. Regionally, sexual harassment is understood as involving quid pro quo approaches and making the context hostile. Sexual harassment was also understood as unwelcome sexual advances, making degrading remarks or

behaviour, including sexual teasing, jokes, looks and gestures. Others saw it as forbidden behaviour which is unwelcome and causes harm to the victims, which involves the use of force to make someone enter into a relationship with the perpetrator. Then, nationally, sexual harassment is understood as behaviour which is a common occurrence in institutions which interferes with the victim's work and often is associated with intimidation and use of threats directed to the victim by the perpetrator. It is understood as involving verbal, non-verbal and physical harassment.

In this study, sexual harassment is understood as a common, unwelcome and forbidden occurrence in institutions, experienced by student teachers in the teacher training colleges. According to Bondestam and Lindquist (2020) sexual harassment can be understood as pressured sexual intimacy where victims suffer from sexual assault. It is seen as a violation of the victim's rights and dignity, which creates an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating and offensive environment. Sexual harassment is understood as making sexual advances, degrading or derogatory remarks, sexual teasing, jokes, looks and gestures. It is harmful to victims as there is force, intimidation, as well as threats and can be verbal, non-verbal or physical and all these impact on student teachers emotionally, academically, and socially. Perpetrators of sexual harassment are understood as misusing their authority by taking advantage of the vulnerable learners to demand sexual relations against the will of the victims (Fedina et al. 2016; Tombardo and Bustelo 2021).

Having discussed the understandings of sexual harassment, in the next section I discuss sexual harassment experiences of students in institutions starting with global studies.

2.3 Sexual Harassment Experiences of Students in Institutions

Several studies carried out across the globe have revealed that sexually harassed victims come across a myriad of nasty experiences within their different organisations (UN Women 2019; Voth et al. 2019; Hsiao et al. 2021). A study carried out by Ridde et al. (2019) in an American University to understand students' experiences concluded that 83% of female students experience some form of harassment at the University. The research recognised that sexual harassment was a widespread challenge among women on college campuses (Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020; Casonovas et al. 2022). The study used a cross sectional survey design to generate data from female students enrolled in two universities. All data were generated from 422 conveniently sampled female students from two Southern American institutions using an anonymous 14-page questionnaire which took less than 30 minutes to complete. The study used chi-square for data analysis. The results suggest that 83% of participants had experienced sexual harassment in the institution. Ridde et al.'s (2019) findings further indicated that victims of sexual harassment experienced repeated non-reciprocal requests for dates, intrusive letters and uncomfortable phone calls and inappropriate touching. Matsikidze (2017) concurs when she argues that uncomfortable

contact and fondling of the victim by a perpetrator constitutes sexual harassment. While Ridde et al.'s (2019) study was a large scale survey carried out in a different context as compared to my small qualitative Zimbabwean study, it remained to be seen in my study whether experiences in this American study would also emerged in my study.

Similar to Ridde et al.'s (2019) research, Burczycka (2020) in Canada carried out a study on students' experiences of unwanted sexualised behaviour and sexual assault at post-secondary schools. Participants were 2, 5 million post-secondary students aged between 18 and 24 years in Universities. Data were generated through a survey and analysed quantitatively. The results revealed that unwanted sexual discussion, sexual jokes, whistles, catcalls, being shown explicit sexual material like pornography, being touched inappropriately, exposure to and display of one's body parts were some of the experiences of the victims. My study would try to understand whether student teachers in my study had similar experiences. Repeated pressure for dates or sexual relationships were also revealed as some experiences of sexual harassment. Findings indicated that sexual harassment was experienced by both men and women students. Results reveal that while male students were the major perpetrators of sexual harassment in the institutions, professors and other staff in authority also sexually harassed female students. My study would examine whether both male and female students in my study experienced sexual harassment in the institutions and who the major perpetrators were. Male students who experienced sexual harassment were often part of women dominated programmes (Hampson 2019; Tambe 2018; Lindqvist and McKay 2018). These male victims experienced being grabbed, unwanted touching and kissing, as well as fondling. Findings revealed that bi-sexuals experienced being sexually harassed by their peers. While in this study women were the majority in the final year programme studied, it was yet to be established whether they had similar experiences from their male counterparts, and from those in authority. The results of Burczycka's (2020) study are supported by Rotenberg (2017) who asserts that young people are more prone to experiencing sexual harassment than older people like in this Canadian study which had young participants.

Global studies discussed above were carried out in universities and schools. The methodology was basically quantitative where a questionnaire generated data. Students' sexual harassment experiences included repeated non-reciprocal pressure and requests for dates, uncomfortable touching and phone calls, intrusive letters and sexual jokes, whistles, catcalls, pornography, and sexually offensive comments, exposure to and display of body parts. The sexual harassment was experienced by both men and women students. The male victims experienced grabbing, unwanted touching and kissing, and fondling. Bi-sexual students experienced sexual harassment by their peers. While male students were the major sexual harassment perpetrators in institutions, people in authority, including professors, also sexually harassed female students. However, none of these studies examined student teacher sexual

harassment in teacher training colleges which gap this study attempts to contribute to. Next, I review regional studies.

In the regional context, a study carried out by Mutinta in 2022 in a South African University in the Eastern Cape aimed to understand sexual harassment experiences of female students in the university. This cross-sectional research found that some female students experienced rape. Rape may be defined as penetration of any sort, slight or deep into the vagina or anus with a body part or object (Schneider 2020; Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare 2021; White and Ivie 2021). Further, Schneider (2020) asserts that rape involves oral penetration using a sexual organ or object without the consent of the victim. Results of Mutinta's study show that the majority of the female students experienced emotional and verbal harassment. While Mutinta's (2022) study investigated students in a learning institution like in my study, the context differed as did the level of study. However, my study would also wish to establish whether such forms of sexual harassment were experienced in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

Another regional study was carried out by Tegegne et al. (2018) in Ethiopia at Jimma University. This was a cross-sectional study which focused on female students only. Data were analysed using SPSS -21 version software. The study utilised a quantitative approach where it used questionnaires to generate data. Findings suggest that 83 % of students experienced sexual harassment. This closely relates to a study by Mumford et al. (2020) and also Muluneh et al. (2020) in America where 45% of female students experienced sexual harassment within their institution of higher learning. This is also consistent with WHO (2013) which indicates that one in every three women globally is exposed to sexual harassment. The study by Tegegne (2018) resembles my study in terms of the use of a qualitative approach and interviews for generating data. However, my study investigated third and final year students in three teacher training college, as opposed to the university students investigated by Tegegne. The Ethiopian study opened space for comparison of experiences emerging in my study.

Related to the sexual harassment experiences of female students by Tegegne et al. (2018) is a study by Anderson and Naidu (2022). The study was carried out in South Africa at the University of KwaZulu-Natal on first year female student teachers. The purpose of the study was to establish how the female students experience sexual harassment on campus. This was a qualitative study which utilised semi-structured interviews to generate data. The findings indicate that these first year female students were treated as "fresh meat" by the perpetrators of sexual harassment at the university who were mostly lecturers. The students indicated that they were coerced into sexual relationships by the lecturers because of their poor economic situation. This finding was supported by Chinyoka and Mutamba (2020) who assert that students from low income families are often vulnerable to sexual harassment as they are enticed into sexual relations by lecturers and other staff who offer them money and other economic

benefits in return for sexual favours. On the other hand, Makhaye et al. (2023) argue that in their study students in higher education often experience incapacitated rape as they are sexually exploited by lecturers because they are bought alcohol and other drugs. Incapacitated rape is described as rape within campuses and is a situation where lecturers buy beer for students, especially the female students, and they become intoxicated to such an extent that they may not give consent to sexual relations or even resist due to their drunken state (Makhaye et al. 2023; Mostad-Jesen 2021; Marsall et al. 2014). Further, the students revealed that they experienced inappropriate touching from their perpetrators.

From the regional studies on the sexual harassment of students reviewed above, all three identified studies were done in university contexts where they all focused on sexual harassment experiences of female students. Two of the studies employed a quantitative approach, where questionnaires were used in generating data, while one was qualitative, where interviews generated data. Findings in the regional studies indicated that victims experience rape, coerced sexual relations, inappropriate touching and emotional and verbal harassment. However, my study explored both the male and female students. None of the studies investigated teacher training students employed a multi-site case study design nor used drawings data generation to elicit sensitive sexual harassment data.

In the national arena, studies on sexual harassment experiences were carried out (Chireshe and Chireshe 2009; Mawere and Moyo 2020; Mukwidingwi 2018; Zireva and Makura 2013). These are discussed in the following section.

A study on experiences of sexual harassment was carried out by Mukwidingwi (2018) at a Zimbabwean university, on female students. The study focused on experiences of coercion among female students and was guided by social constructionist epistemology. A mixed-methods design where a survey questionnaire, in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and observation generated data was adopted. Analysis of data was through SPSS, thematic and content analysis. The findings in the study indicate that female students experienced sexual coercion, where significant levels of pressure and unwanted sexual behaviour were perpetrated on them. Similarly, the above findings are echoed by Burczycka (2020) who conducted a study in Canada where students in universities experienced sexual assault at the hands of professors and other staff at the campus. Further, findings from the participants indicated that they experienced physical, verbal and emotional forms of sexually coercive behaviour from perpetrators. It emerged that they experienced unwanted touching on their breasts, shoulders and buttocks. Other findings were that their drinks were spiked with drugs or they were forced to take alcohol and then indulge in sexual intercourse. Whether such experiences were also encountered by female student teachers in my study was yet to be established.

Similar to Mukwidingwi's (2018) study in terms of focus of study, target population and research methodology, Mawere and Moyo (2020) carried out a study in another Zimbabwean university on the experiences of sexual harassment of student teachers during teaching practice in secondary schools. Qualitative design was employed where in-depth interviews were employed in generating data. Findings revealed that female student teachers experienced physical, verbal and visual sexual harassment from qualified male teachers and male school heads (principals). In support of these findings Amofah (2020) in Ghana shows that some working conditions predispose females to experience more sexual harassment than in other situations. The above studies of Mukwidingwi (2018) and Mawere and Moyo (2020) differed in the approaches each adopted in data generation, however, they shared similarities. These two studies both focused on the sexual harassment experiences of female students only at university education. This is contrary to my study which focused on sexual harassment of both genders in teacher training colleges

While the two studies of Mukwidingwi (2018) and Mawere and Moyo (2020) have some similarities, they also differed in that the study by Mukwidingwi (2018) used a mixed methods approach in data generation and data analysis which differed from my study that used a qualitative approach in data generation and analysis. The context of my study was also in teacher training colleges, unlike the two studies above. The use of interviews in both studies offered me some appreciation of how the method could be utilised to generate data. Apart from the use of interviews my study further utilised drawing as another method of data generation different from the methods used by both Mukwidingwi (2018) and Mawere and Moyo (2020).

Another national study on the sexual harassment experiences of student teachers was conducted by Zireva and Makura (2013) which focused on the sexual harassment phenomenon as experienced and expressed by the victims who were student teachers on teaching practice registered with one teacher training college in Zimbabwe. The study utilised a quantitative approach where a sample of 127 student teachers were selected from rural schools. A questionnaire was used to generate data and chi-square tests were used to test the hypothesis. The findings revealed that student teachers both female and male experience sexual harassment in a wide range of forms. Victims of sexual harassment in this study experienced lustful stares, sexist and rude sexual comments, persistent requests for dates and for sexual relationships. These findings are consistent with Mawere and Moyo (2021) who point out that female students in universities experience whistling, staring, being followed or catcalls. The study by Zireva and Makura (2013) however differed from my study as they used a quantitative approach where questionnaires generated data, contrary to my qualitative approach where interviews and drawings were used to generate data. Further, my study targeted final year student teachers on college campuses while, Zireva and Makura (2013) investigated second year student teachers on teaching practice

Another national study in learning institutions was carried out by Chireshe and Chireshe (2009) in Masvingo Urban High Schools in Zimbabwe. Despite the fact that the study was carried out on school girls, the aim of the study was the same as that of the studies reviewed above. The purpose of the study was to establish the sexual harassment experiences of girls in three high schools. Questionnaires and interviews were used to generate data. The findings revealed that high sexual harassment was prevalent in schools and girls experienced verbal and physical sexual harassment. This finding above is consistent with what Ridde et al. (2019) found from an American university where 83% of female students experienced sexual harassment at the institution. Further, in line with Chireshe and Chireshe's (2009) study, Tegegne et al (2018) from a study at Jimma University in Ethiopia show that high levels of sexual harassment are experienced by students. While Chireshe and Chireshe's (2009) study was conducted in the same context as my study in terms of the province where I carried out my study, I studied college student teachers whereas these researchers studied high school learners. It remained to be seen in my study whether experiences of college students were similar to those of high school learners.

From the national studies both the quantitative and qualitative methods were used where questionnaires and in-depth interviews were employed to generate data within institutions, as well as in schools. None of these studies used drawings as a method of generating data on sexual harassment. Further, among the studies reviewed none used a multiple-site case study involving three teacher training colleges in different provinces like in my study. Findings of these reviewed studies revealed a high prevalence of sexual harassment in secondary schools where schoolgirls experience verbal and physical sexual harassment. Findings further revealed that both female and male student teachers in higher education experience sexual harassment related to lustful stares, sexist and rude sexual comments, pressured requests for dates and sexual relationships, whistling, staring, being followed or catcalls. Student teachers further experienced physical, verbal, emotional and visual sexual harassment from male teachers and male school heads (principals) during practicum. Female students also experienced pressure, sexual coercion, and unbecoming sexual behaviour, unwanted touching on their breasts, shoulders and buttocks and even having their drinks spiked with drugs or being forced to take alcohol so that they give in to sexual intercourse. However, while the studies explored sexual harassment in institutions, none investigated sexual harassment of student teachers in teacher training colleges. In the next section I critically analyse studies that examined experiences of sexual harassment of victims in the work place.

2.4 Experiences of Sexual harassment in the workplace

The studies discussed above on experiences of victims of sexual harassment were carried out in learning institutions; however, the following section examines sexual harassment experiences of employees in working organisations. A study was carried out by Peyregne (2022) from the University of London on sexual harassment experiences across different nations. The aim of the study was to find out how different

nations experience sexual harassment in the workplace in their respective countries. The study was conducted in 20 countries in Africa, Asia and Central America. This was a survey of 2000 media professionals from different organisations and countries. The survey was complemented by interviews with 85 senior executives. The results indicated that 41% of women journalists experienced verbal sexual harassment where uncomfortable sexual jokes and sexually offensive comments were made. Further, they experienced physical sexual harassment where victims were inappropriately touched on sensitive body parts. 12 % of men also experienced both verbal and physical sexual harassment where they received offending sexual comments, unwanted hugging and deliberately being brushed up against by the perpetrators. The finding above is supported by Burke et al. (2020) who claim that a report conducted in Ireland on female students at a university show that 65% of those female students experienced non-consensual sexual contact which included being fondled, kissed and being rubbed up against on their private parts, breasts or chest. Zireva and Makura (2013) in their study in Zimbabwe viewed sexual harassment in teacher training colleges as experienced by both male and female student teachers. The results suggested that sexual harassment was an endemic problem. According to Ngubelanga (2021), an endemic problem means that the problem of sexual harassment is naturally very common or regularly found in any setting be it educational institutions or work environments. Therefore, in any work place or environment sexual harassment is widespread and a common practice. My study would establish any similarities and differences between industry sexual harassment experiences and educational institution experiences.

Another study was carried out in the production industry. Maran et al. (2022) in Italy studied participants from a variety of industry organisations. Among the organisations, five of them were private companies involved in the production of goods and services, one was from the social care sector and two were from the public health sector. The aim of the study was to explore sexual harassment experiences of workers in their work places. Questionnaires were used to generate data from 321 participants. Findings revealed that participants experienced unwanted offensive and threatening sexual behaviour at work from their superiors. Kipane (2018) in agreement with the above view claims that victims of sexual harassment may experience threats from the perpetrator so that they give in to their sexual demands. Findings further show that victims experienced sexual gestures, lingering looks, verbal cues or sexual comments, unwanted phone calls, inappropriate touching of the hair, body massages, and rape. Whether or not such experiences were encountered in my study would also be established. Maran et al.'s (2022) study, which generated data from several institutions, gave me guidance on generating data in multiple sites.

Kirillova (2020) of the Kazan Federal University in Russia investigated how sexual harassment is perpetuated in the work environment. The purpose of the study was to determine the experiences of victims of sexual harassment in their respective work organisations. The study analysed and synthesised

data generated from the complaints of sexual harassment made by different workers in their work places. Russian legislation was used to analyse cases of sexual harassment experienced by victims within their work places.

Research findings revealed that victims experienced sexual harassment in two main forms: hostile environment where there was coercive power to subjugate them; and being pressured into sexual relationships, receiving offensive remarks about their dress, looks and their physical structure. Further, findings indicated that victims experienced a scenario where sexual posters were pinned on the walls in the work environment making it hostile to the victims. In support of the above findings Hudson (2017) asserts that a hostile environment is a work atmosphere associated with an offensive sexual environment which is unwelcome to the victim. Therefore, such an environment interferes with one's work performance because it creates an intimidating and threatening situation. In Kirillova's (2020) study, participants experienced coercion into relationships, as well as threats with some form of punishment if they refused to comply with the perpetrator's sexual demands. Victims experienced unwelcome comments which made the working environment hostile, intimidating or offensive. According to MacDonald and Campel (2016) a hostile environment may be permeated with some form of discriminatory insult and intimidation which belittles the victim to such an extent that the environment becomes abusive. A hostile working environment violates the dignity of the abused person and the victim may be exposed to a rude, lewd and uncomfortable environment (Hejase 2015; Cortina and Areguin 2021). From Kirillova's (2020) study it became vital to determine whether student teachers in my study also experienced hostile environments.

Global studies reviewed above showed that sexual harassment was an endemic problem in the workplace. Victims of sexual harassment experienced offending and threatening sexual behaviour from superiors which included uncomfortable sexual comments and jokes, inappropriate touching on sensitive body parts, being brushed up against, as well as being raped.

Regionally, Sarkodie et al. (2022) investigated sexual harassment experiences of young females working in the hospitality industry in Ghana. This was a qualitative phenomenological study where semi-structured interviews generated data. The interviews were validated through peer review and reading. The research findings indicated that the victims experienced unwelcome comments about their physical appearance, indecent remarks on their sex life, uncomfortable physical contact and a humiliating working environment. Further, victims experienced slapping on the back, hips and or face. While this study explored female workers' in the hospitality industry, it remained to be seen in my study whether student teachers' sexual harassment experiences were similar to those experienced by female workers in Hejase (2015), Karami et al. (2021) and Sarkodie et al. (2022). Experiences of sexual harassment confirm that

sexual harassment in the workplace creates a hostile and undesirable working environment where victims experience intimidation, ridicule and insult.

Another related study on female workers was carried out by Pillinger (2022) in South Africa in the mining, garments and electronics sectors. The study was of a qualitative nature where individual and group interviews with 21 women union leaders and two male trade union leaders (NUM and NUMSA) were conducted. The study focused on establishing sexual violence and harassment experiences of women in the mining, garments and electronics sectors.

Research findings indicated that women, especially in the mining sector, experienced sexual violence due to power inequalities between them and men. Other findings revealed that women experienced sexual abuse and rape from male perpetrators. This view is supported by Fitzgerald and Cortina (2018) who contend that in most workplaces in the sex segregated labour market there is a high rate of sexual harassment. Further, results of the study indicated that women generally suffered from gender discrimination when they entered the mining sector because it was male dominated.

The two studies of Sarkodie et al. (2022) and Pillinger (2022) focused more on the sexual harassment perpetrated on female workers as opposed to my study which paid attention to both genders. Further the two studies above were concerned with sexual harassment of working females unlike my study which focused on student teachers at teacher training colleges.

The above regional studies carried out on female victims suggest that they experienced verbal harassment through indecent comments about their physical appearance, ridicule and sexual insults. Victims also experienced undesirable working environments when they were physically harassed through being slapped on their backs, hips and even faces by the perpetrators of sexual harassment. Further, regional studies reveal that women experienced sexual violence and harassment, rape and discrimination from male perpetrators within the mining sector.

At national level, in Zimbabwe Mkono (2010) studied the experiences of female victims of sexual harassment, similar to that study of Sarkodie et al. (2022) in the hospitality industry. The study used interviews to generate data from 77 female participants. Findings indicated that 78% of the participants experienced being beaten, slapped, hit, or threatened so that they gave in to the sexual demands of the perpetrators. In addition, 20% of participants indicated that they witnessed other females being sexually harassed at work: harassed verbally in a sexual way about their physical structure. Matsikidze (2017) in support argues that the use of females only in the study indicates that more females experience sexual harassment than males. The findings from Mkono's (2010) study revealed that sexual harassment was a common practice in the hospitality industry where co-workers, managers and customers were the

perpetrators. The study relates to my study on adopting a qualitative approach and the use of interviews for generating data. However, my study is different as it is in teacher education and not in hospitality.

A related study in Zimbabwe was carried out by Ncube et al. (2021) on the sexual harassment experiences of female journalists in male dominated newsrooms. The study was informed by Hegemonic Masculinity theory in examining female journalists in Zimbabwean newsrooms. The study was an interpretive/qualitative design where purposive sampling was used to select participants for the study. In-depth semi-structured interviews were employed for data generation. The findings express that women experienced being molested by male perpetrators against their will. Females received calls at odd hours and sexual requests despite being married women. Young women were promised employment and promotion if they gave in to their bosses' sexual demands. This, therefore, makes women vulnerable to sexual exploitation. Women also suffered from sexual violence because of men's hegemonic masculinity. Wolfendale (2016) views hegemonic masculinity as a socially constructed masculine ideal, which is associated with dominance of men over women due to the patriarchal nature of the society. Further findings revealed that in the newsroom dominated by men foul language was used that made women uncomfortable. Women also were physically harassed because of their dress which men perceived as inappropriate. In support Ncube and Chawawana (2018) argue that the use of vulgar language and the demand for sexual favours against the will of the victim was an expression of male dominance within the newsroom.

The above studies by Mkono (2010) and Ncube (2022) focus on sexual harassment of females only who are in the work environment. These studies by Mkono (2010) and Ncube (2022) create an opportunity to compare the experiences that females encounter in a working environment with those in educational settings where my study is based.

The global studies of sexual harassment experiences in the workplace revealed that sexual harassment has become an endemic problem in the workplace. Victims received offending sexual comments and being inappropriately touched on their sensitive body parts. Both males and females experienced sexual harassment through unwanted hugs and being brushed up against by the perpetrators. Other victims of sexual harassment experienced rape. Others experience pressure into sexual relationships, offensive remarks on dress, looks and physical structure making the working environment hostile, intimidating and offensive. They were also threatened and punished for refusing to comply with sexual demands. Some experienced coercive power to subjugate them, had sexual posters pinned on walls, sexual gestures, lingering looks, verbal cues, unwanted phone calls, inappropriate touching of the hair and body massages. Men also experienced verbal and physical sexual harassment related to offending sexual comments, unwanted hugging and being brushed up against by the perpetrators of sexual harassment, as well as being raped.

Regional studies indicate that victims of sexual harassment experienced a hostile working environment where they were ridiculed and insulted by perpetrators. Victims of sexual harassment experienced unwelcome sexual comments from the perpetrator. Victims were also physically harassed when they were inappropriately touched and slapped on their back, hips and on the face. Further, female victims experienced sexual abuse, including rape. The victims felt discriminated by men due to the fact that in the mining sector men dominate in that field.

The national study revealed that victims also received negative verbal harassment about their physical structure. Further, sexual harassment victims got threats from the perpetrators who wanted to force them to give in to their sexual demands. From the discussion above, workplace sexual harassment experiences and experiences in institutions have shown that women are more vulnerable to sexual harassment than their male counterparts (Wolfendale 2016, Dhillon and Bakaya 2014). Perpetrators of sexual harassment of women in institutions of higher learning (universities, polytechnics and teacher training colleges) are the male lecturers and other male staff members. In the workplace, men who occupy higher offices, supervisors and managers are the main perpetrators because of their economic and status advantage over their victims (Ncube 2022; Dillman 2017; Folkes 2017). Further in comparison to women, men experience sexual harassment in the form of contra-power harassment. This form of harassment is experienced in institutions of higher learning where female students entice lecturers into sexual relationships for them to enjoy some benefits which include getting higher marks in assignments and exams, as well as getting financial resources especially in contexts where tertiary education is expensive (Mawere 2021; McLaughlin et al. 2021). Apart from experiencing contra-power harassment, men in the workplace experience verbal sexual harassment when they work within women dominated fields, for example, when men work within the hospitality industry where women dominate.

Having discussed sexual harassment experiences in institutions, as well as in industry, in the following section I review studies on the effects of sexual harassment on the victims.

2.5 Effects of Sexual harassment on the victims

While the above research studies focused on the sexual harassment experiences of victims, in this section I review literature on the effects of sexual harassment on the victims. In the global arena, Anwar et al. (2022) in Pakistan investigated the association between sexual victimisation and the development of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and other depressive symptoms in the victims. A questionnaire was completed by 586 female university students in three cities in Pakistan. The mean age for the respondents was 22.3 years. Results show that sexual harassment made them feel ashamed and afraid of further harassment. Sexual harassment also made them develop PTSD and become severely depressed. The effects of sexual harassment from Anwar et al.'s (2022) study were seriously revealed by women as they accepted that sexual harassment in Pakistan was part of their daily lives. Anwar et al. (2022) found that

participants suffered emotional distress due to sexual harassment perpetrated on them. Ali et al. (2015) concur that the effects of sexual harassment of Pakistan women affected them socially and they also suffered from mental health challenges. Whether student teachers in my study experienced similar effects from sexual harassment needed to be established.

In relation to the above study, Zafarzai and Amiri (2021) in Afghanistan studied the effects of sexual harassment on the victims. The study investigated 55 women who were victims of sexual harassment from Nangarhar province in Afghanistan. Structured interviews generated data from a random sample and descriptive analysis was adopted. Results revealed that sexual harassment has a drastic effect on the victim's mental health. Khan et al. (2020) and Ullah (2020) concur that victims of sexual harassment suffer from emotional or psychological effects like depression, anxiety, fear, frustration, shock, denial, insecurity, embarrassment, irritability and feelings of betrayal, confusion, powerlessness, self-consciousness, low self-esteem, guilt, self-blame and isolation. Zafarzai and Amiri (2021) in this study in Afghanistan discovered that some victimised women made irrational decisions after the abuse while others exhibited inappropriate stuporous tolerance (a completely suspended sensibility or mental condition where there is absence of spontaneous movement), unreasonable anger, fear, and incoherent talking. The Afghanistan researchers further found that sexually harassed women displayed psychopathological behaviours like depression, anxiety, feelings of shame, guilt and physical asthenia (chronic exhaustion) and psychiatric stress. This is consistent with Choo and Ping (2021) who assert that women who have experienced sexual harassment exhibit depression, anxiety and stress.

Victims of sexual harassment may also suffer from absenteeism, withdrawal from work or school, and drop in their academic or work performance due to stress (Ullah et al. 2019; Bondestam and Lundqvist 2018; Silvertsen et al. 2018). Thus, the victims of sexual harassment may end up having decreased job satisfaction, unfavourable performance evaluations, loss of job or promotion, or change of career goals, dropping out of programmes and, in extreme, cases committing suicide. Whether or not student teachers in my study had similar experiences would need to be determined.

Global studies reveal that sexual harassment may affect the victims emotionally or psychologically where they suffer from stress, anxiety, depression or even contemplate suicide. Socially victims of sexual harassment may feel lonely and withdrawn from others. At work, sexually harassed victims may lose interest in their job or end up quitting it. In the same vein victims in the learning institutions may abscond from lectures leading to a drop in their academic performance or, in extreme cases, totally withdraw from their studies. While these international studies researched women only, unlike my study which investigated both men and women, it remained to be seen whether the sexually harassed student teachers in my study would end up with similar feelings as a consequence of the sexual harassment.

At regional level, Anierobi et al. (2021) in Nigeria evaluated sexual harassment effects on female workers at three institutions of higher learning. The aim of the study was to evaluate the incidents and effects of sexual harassment on the workers who had been sexually victimised. The study utilised a quantitative approach, i.e., a descriptive survey of a sample of 312 female workers aged 23 to 37 years from three institutions who volunteered to participate in the study. Participants were taken from one university, one polytechnic and one college of education and they responded to a 31-item questionnaire to provide data on the effects of sexual harassment on the victims.

The study found that sexual harassment causes tremendous damage to the workers who experience it. In support of this view Au (2019) postulates that sexual harassment workers suffered emotional and psychological effects at work. Further, sexual harassment affected the institutions as it caused a high turnover in the workers and gave rise to lower productivity as victimised workers would absent themselves from work through sick leave (The World Bank 2020). Aina-Palemo et al. (2019), in support of the above findings, confirm that sexual harassment of workers creates low performance and psychological and health challenges. Similarly, Adetutu and Iseoluwa (2020) assert that sexually harassed workers from the banking, medical and legal sectors and the police have suffered from anxiety, depression, headaches, sleep disorders and even sexual dysfunction after being sexually harassed. How participants were affected by sexual harassment in my study would be determined.

Another similar study on the effects of sexual harassment on victims was carried out by Makhaye et al. (2023) in three selected institutions of higher learning in Durban, KwaZulu-Natal province in South Africa. The focus of the study was on the effects of sexual harassment of female students in selected universities in Durban. A sample of 60 female students was purposively selected to participate in the study. A qualitative approach was employed where interviews were used to generate data which were thematically analysed.

Findings of the study reflect that female victims of sexual harassment suffered from psychological harm, which ranged from physical trauma to social withdrawal. Short to long term health problems like depression, eating disorders and post-traumatic stress disorder, as well as suicidal ideation, were other effects of sexual harassment. Harmer et al. (2022) defines suicidal ideation as suicidal thoughts or ideas and as a wide range of contemplations, wishes and preoccupations with death and suicide. Further, victims of sexual harassment often suffered physical injuries like having chronic illnesses related to sexually transmitted infections. In support, Sibanyoni (2018) notes that sexual harassment in female victims has given rise to mental health problems as individual victims display borderline personality disorder. Borderline personality disorder is described by Bohus (2021) as a common mental disorder associated with severe emotional impairment or mental illness that negatively affects one's ability to regulate one's emotions.

Similarly, also in South Africa, Oni et al. (2019) studied the effects of sexual harassment in one university. The target population was made up of students registered in this higher education institution, where the sample size studied was 342. This was a quantitative descriptive study. A questionnaire was used to generate data which were analysed through a Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 program. Victims suffered from unsolicited and unwelcome behaviour which was sexual in nature. The affected victims suffered socially, emotionally or psychologically, as well as academically (Oni et al. 2019; Aina-Palemo 2021; Mostad et al. 2021).

Regional studies reveal that the effects of sexual harassment on victims included lower productivity due to 'absenteeism because of sick leave. In addition, victims suffered from health challenges like depression, anxiety, borderline personality disorders, as well as a drop in academic performance as they absconded from lectures. My study would, therefore, wish to establish the effects of sexual harassment on the male and female teacher training college students, in a different context, using different research methods from those used in the above studies. Sexual harassment was also discussed drawing on national level studies which were reviewed.

Nationally, Mugabe et al. (2021) investigated the psychosocial effects and holistic development of sexually abused girl children in high schools. The study focused on the secondary school learners in Gokwe district in Zimbabwe. Ellis' Rational behavioural therapy, Erikson's Psychosocial theory and Bronfenbrenner's Ecological theory were the theoretical framework which informed the study. This was a qualitative study where in-depth interviews and focus group discussions generated data.

The research findings reflect that sexual abuse has devastating lifelong effects on the girl victims where they suffer from anguish and their normal operations in life may be disrupted. Findings further show that sexual abuse affects the victims morally, physically, cognitively, psychologically/intellectually, emotionally, socially and behaviourally. Gyawali (2020) concurs with the above effects of sexual harassment when he argues that learners who are persistently victimised through sexual harassment are more likely to suffer from high levels of anxiety, loneliness, poor mental health and their academic performance may go down.

While participants in this Zimbabwean study were secondary school girls as opposed to teacher trainees in my study, it remained to be established whether sexually harassed participants in my study were also affected psychologically, socially and behaviourally. This is given that Mugabe et al.'s study (2021) used three theories as the framework whereas I used two. This Mugabe et al. (2021) study pointed me to the effects to look out for in the female student teachers in my study and enabled me to compare whether such effects were common across female victims of sexual harassment.

Related to the above sexual harassment study of women and girls, Zengenene and Susanti (2019), also in Zimbabwe, investigated the negative effects of sexual assault on women and girls. The study employed a qualitative approach where focus group discussions and in-depth interviews generated data. Purposive and snowball sampling methods were used to select the participants for the study. The research findings suggest that the victims of sexual harassment were psychologically affected by stress which led to deteriorating health. Other participants indicated that they lost trust in people, especially men, and felt ashamed and guilty for being targeted by the perpetrators of sexual harassment. Findings also revealed that sexually abused girls and women succumb to unplanned pregnancies and also suffer from sexually transmitted infections which may negatively affect them in the long term. Muyambo et al. (2022) concur with the above findings when they say that sexually harassed women may contract HIV or even fall pregnant which may make them lose their self-esteem.

Another study in Zimbabwe was carried out by Nesongano et al. (2022). The purpose of the study was to establish the effects of sexual harassment on the women working in Hurungwe and Zvimba districts. 301 economically active women participated in the study. The results suggest that sexual harassment causes serious health issues and human rights violations. In support Heidari and Moreno (2016) argue that short and long term psychological, physical and reproductive health were found to be some of the effects of sexual harassment. Further, some of the effects of sexual harassment on women which emerged from Nesongano et al.'s (2021) study include unwillingness to continue participating in economic activities because of fear. Sexual violence in some women was said to have made some victims avoid work due to high rate of harassment (Gyawali 2020; Amuda 2019; Muzokura et al. 2021).

The national studies on the effects of sexual harassment revealed that victims are affected in several ways which include emotional and psychological effects like anxiety, trauma, depression, stress, fear and poor mental health. Sexual harassment may also lead to unintended pregnancies and contraction of sexually transmitted infections, including HIV. Further, victims' performance is affected as they portray a drop in academic performance. In my study I, therefore, would wish to establish the effects of sexual harassment given the differences in theoretical frameworks, data generation, as well as context, between these studies and my study. Having critically evaluated and discussed the effects of sexual harassment on victims, in the next section I discuss studies analysed which deal with coping strategies victims adopt in dealing with sexual harassment.

2.6 Coping Strategies in Dealing with Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment can be described as a universal experience, shared by almost all women at one time or the other throughout their lives (Ferrer-Perez et al. 2021; Moyo-Nyede 2022). This, therefore, means that sexual harassment has become a common challenge which has permeated the lives of many if not all women in particular. Being a health issue, sexual harassment has now been treated as an emerging social

problem (Grosser and Tyler 2021; McDonald 2012). Due to the overwhelming evidence of the alarming frequency of sexual harassment perpetrated on several victims, depending on the degree or severity of the sexual assault or harassment, victims are bound to respond to or deal with the effects of harassment in different ways. This section deals with how victims of sexual harassment cope with different forms of sexual harassment perpetrated on them at global, continental, as well as the national, level. The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC) suggests different forms of coping mechanisms that victims draw on to handle effects of sexual harassment (Silinda 2018; Worke et al. 2021). The TMSC is a framework developed by Lazarus and Folkman to assist sexual harassment victims to evaluate harmful or stressful experiences they face so that they are able to deal appropriately with those situations using different coping strategies (Lazarus and Folkman 1984 in Worke et al. 2021; Morganson and Major 2004).

Coping strategy involves how people deal with a situation which they view as overwhelming to them (Worke et al. 2021; Wagner et al 2022). Coping, therefore, is defined as thoughts and behaviours that victims of stress employ in order to manage the internal and external demands of situations which may be appraised as stressful (Bondestam 2017; Mcewen et al. 2021). Further, coping is a mechanism victims of sexual harassment master, to tolerate or even reduce the effect of internal and external demands and conflicts (Kusuma et al. 2018; Trama and Singh 2019). TMSC as a coping framework, as will be detailed in Chapter Three, has two major categories: the adaptive and the maladaptive. Adaptive style builds resilience in the victim while the maladaptive may result in adverse effects like post-traumatic stress disorder or anxiety (Dymond 2019; Zoeller et al. 2020; Zeighami et al 2022). Adaptive coping strategies, also as explained in detail in Chapter Three, may fall under psychosocial intervention and problem focused coping. On the other hand, avoidance coping is a form of a maladaptive coping strategy, also detailed in Chapter Three. According to Javed and Parveen (2021) adaptive coping involves taking positive steps in addressing the problem one is facing. This coping strategy is associated with a permanent resolution to the problem. Examples of adaptive coping are going for counselling, sharing with friends and family members and getting psychosocial support. On the other hand, maladaptive coping is a form of coping which involves excessive emotional or avoidance response (Putri et al. 2022; Yunita et al 2020). Behaviours which are maladaptive include abuse of alcohol and drugs, overeating and being aggressive. Maladaptive coping may lead to negative effects like depression, greater pain and flare up activities. According to Dymond (2019) the avoidance coping mechanism is an example of a maladaptive coping strategy.

In this study coping is viewed as different mechanisms or strategies victims of sexual harassment may employ in order to deal with different forms of harassment perpetrated on them. The section below discusses global studies on how victims of sexual harassment dealt with the effects of the phenomenon.

A study by Vohlidalova (2018) was carried out in Czech Republic higher education at Prague institution. The study's focus was on how students cope with the harassment taking place at the institution. This study, like my study, was qualitative and also used in-depth interviews to draw information from participants. Sampling was done through the snowballing procedure. The participants involved both victims of sexual harassment and those who had not experienced sexual harassment. Results indicated that participants used two main coping strategies: external and internal coping strategies. Internal coping strategies involve the victim's efforts in managing their own emotions and mental situation (Vohlidalova 2015). This form of coping encompasses the cognitive and the psychological, psychosocial intervention and problem focused coping, like getting spiritual guidance, through prayers, meditating, wishful thinking, and attempts at personal independence, solitariness or locking oneself in a room. Internal coping strategies can offer an immediate solution to the effects of sexual harassment on the individual victim though the method may not offer a permanent solution to the problem (Ruhs et al. 2017; Skarra 2014). Some students used denial, downplaying or normalisation of sexual harassment. This was termed legitimating sexual harassment (Vohlidalova 2015; Chakaryan 2018). Denial and downplaying sexual harassment are a form of the avoidance or escape coping mechanism described by Shen and Slater (2021). This method of dealing with sexual harassment is used by victims to avoid dealing directly with the harasser by pretending that all is well while emotionally the victims struggle to cope (Pickens 2019; McPherson et al. 2012). Therefore, this avoidance coping mechanism is maladaptive since the strategy cannot help in resolving permanently the effects of sexual harassment on the victims.

The second coping strategy was the external coping or support seeking strategy. Here one seeks support through informal and formal sources, for example, getting support from family members, friends or spouses (Ruhs et al. 2017; Melgosa 2014; Matthieu and Ivanoff 2006). Further, external coping involves resistance where direct confrontation takes place. Institutions may help the victim through the provision of policies that fight sexual harassment (Renzeti 2017; Rizo et al. 2021). The above coping strategy is also regarded as psychosocial intervention (Ministry of Health 2016). In support, Lomax and Meyrick (2020) argue that psychosocial intervention combines working in improving negative emotions, as well as improving the mental and social relations of victims.

This study and mine share a similar qualitative research design and similar data generating instruments in the form of interviews. However, sampling procedure differed as my study adopted purposive sampling. Despite the differences identified, the above study by Vohlidalova (2018) is useful to my study given the site of the investigation (tertiary education environment) and provides pointers to what to look out for in my study.

The second study on understanding coping with sexual violence was conducted by Mary (2020) in Canada studying how women coped with intimate partner violence. The focus was on how victims of

sexual violence in an intimate relationship cope with the effects of violence. Semi-structured interviews were used to generate data guided by intersectionality theory as the theoretical framework. Results from the study reflect that victims physically isolated themselves, offered resistance, minimised abuse, used alcohol and drug abuse, and some went for professional counselling (Mary 2020; Robinson et al. 2017). According to Ruhs et al. (2017) five main strategies are usually used as coping mechanisms. In relation to the TMSC, victims in Mary's study in dealing with intimate partner violence, adopted a combination of psychosocial intervention, problem focused coping, as well as avoidance coping strategy (Smith and Keefer 2016).

1. Preventive coping method where victims take some steps in a proactive way, that is, before the stressful event to make the victim ready to avoid or deal with the violence from an informed position. In this case, in relation to my study, both avoidance and problem focused coping drawing on the TMSC are used in dealing with the stressor (Lomax and Meyrick 2020).

2. Anticipatory coping takes place when the potential victim pre-empts the possibility of violence by taking precautionary steps to avoid the occurrence of the violence before it happens. The intervention from the TMSC perspective is problem focused coping where the potential victim deals directly with the problem before it occurs (Biggs et al. 2020).

3. Dynamic coping is another strategy where the victim of violence diverts attention from the stress associated with abuse to reduce the effects of chronic pain which will come as a result of violence. This strategy falls under avoidance as a means of coping with stress. According to Cowan et al. (2020) avoidance is a maladaptive strategy which is part of TMSC theory which relies on the victim avoiding facing the stressor and where the victim only deals with own emotions until he or she recovers.

4. Reactive coping may be a remedial approach which may be engaged in to cope with the effects suffered from being exposed to violence. This scenario, drawing on TMSC, is psychosocial intervention which relies on addressing emotions and social challenges faced by the victim after the sexual harassment has occurred. This involves the victim sharing their challenges with their significant others, as well as being offered counselling (Ferguson 2022; Bagley and Diambara 2016).

5. Residual coping is used as a coping strategy after one has suffered from stress experienced after the abuse. This strategy from the TMSC theory also represents psychosocial intervention and problem focused coping is used in this scenario. Okunlola et al. (2020) concur when they assert that both the psychosocial and problem focused interventions are effective in dealing with the effects of sexual harassment.

While it focuses on sexual violence and violence by an intimate partner, the way the study by Mary (2020) viewed coping strategies is important in informing my study on how victims of sexual violence tend to respond to or deal with violence perpetrated on them. The study used semi-structured interviews which was similar to my study. This study by Mary used a different approach which indicated that effective coping must follow some stages. The result obtained here provided valuable information on how coping could be implemented for effective healing on the part of the victims, which I would look out for in my own study.

The third study in a workplace scenario was conducted by Beltramini et al. (2020) in Italy which focused on investigating young women in a work environment, examining how they coped with sexual harassment. The purpose of the study was to analyse reactions and forms of responses the victimised women employed after being harassed by their superiors at work. The study was carried out between the periods 2017-2018 and it was a qualitative study where interviews were used as instruments for data generation. Results from the study demonstrate that some victims minimised the effects of sexual harassment as a way of reducing the stress associated with the harassment. In support of the above finding, Wijesinghe (2017) argues that minimisation of sexual harassment effects lessens the stress associated with sexual harassment. In some cases, victims said they just smiled as a way of avoiding direct confrontation with the perpetrator for fear of retaliation. One victim indicated that in the hospitality industry and retail jobs, they were taught to smile, therefore, they used the technique as a defence mechanism to avoid showing the perpetrator that they were angry (Good and Cooper 2016; Amuda 2019). This form of coping, according to Balmore-Paulino (2018) drawing on the TMSC, is avoidance coping where the victim chooses to deliberately avoid confronting the harasser for fear of some negative repercussions, which does not address the problem. Other respondents revealed that they used their boyfriends as a shield against being harassed by their superior harassers at work while other employees indicated that they fought the harasser before running away to avoid further and continuous harassment. In support of the above coping strategy Smith and Keefer (2016) assert that facing the harasser is an active behavioural strategy which is a problem based coping mechanism from the TMSC perspective. The strategy is, therefore, regarded as adaptive in nature as seen in the TMSC theory because it is meant to provide a permanent resolution to the problem (Gradus 2017; Quick and MacFadyen 2017).

The above study shares a lot of similarities with my study in terms of the approach used. The study was qualitative and also used interviews to solicit information from participants. The coping strategies on the effects of sexual harassment in the workplace also provided insight into the way student teachers in my study handled the effects of this 'animal' in institutions of higher learning.

Another study, which is the fourth and last presented here on coping with the effects of sexual harassment, was carried out by Kamal (2015) in Pakistan focusing on coping strategies used by women after

experiencing sexual harassment at work. The participants comprised of 205 women between the ages of 19-50 years. A questionnaire was used where participants filled in their responses. Demographic information was generated on the age, education, marital status, organisation and reasons for joining the particular job. The results indicated that the women who had more experiences of sexual harassment used external focused coping strategies compared to the use of internal coping strategies. Drawing on the TMSC this represents psychosocial intervention which utilises both counselling and sharing of sexual harassment effects with significant others, which are adaptive coping strategies (Shen and Slater 2021).

Another observation was that women with financial challenges were more prone to sexual harassment, hence, they used more internal coping strategies. These women further avoided confronting the harasser or rather avoided making the harasser angry as they feared the reaction of the harasser. Some victims also pretended to be ill as a coping strategy so that the perpetrator would spare them from harassment. The women with financial problem were not even willing to use grievance procedure in coping with their harassment due to male domination in their workplaces. Findings further imply that women with financial challenges were afraid of public exposure which, therefore, would lead to their dismissal from work. From the TMSC theory, avoidance coping strategy was used by the above victims due to fear of the outcome of confronting the harasser (Baltimore-Paulino 2018). In concurrence, Pickens (2019) and Cowan et al. (2020) affirm that avoidance strategy is beneficial as it reduces stress and prevents anxiety from becoming crippling on the part of the victim who has experienced sexual harassment. Therefore, avoidance as a coping strategy is resorted to when the victim feels that the problem they are facing is beyond their control. This, therefore, is maladaptive coping mechanism (Skaf 2018). Due to these reasons, women resorted to getting support from their family members like spouses, friends and siblings to cope with sexual harassment effects. This, therefore, means the victims of sexual harassment here further utilised a coping mechanism which involved psychosocial intervention. According to Dworkin et al. (2017) psychosocial intervention involves emotion-based coping because through counselling and interacting with one's significant others victims are assisted to cope with the emotional effects of sexual harassment.

According to Kamal (2015) in Pakistan, there is no formal procedure for complaining about sexual harassment, especially at work. Because of this limiting factor some victims resorted to avoidance, self-blaming or appeasement as ways of coping with harassment. While this study differs from my study in terms of research design and data generating instruments, the results obtained informed my study to examine how my participants handled sexual harassment effects. Lack of formal complaining procedure may reflect that there are no policies controlling sexual harassment. Drawing from this view of lack of policies on reporting, it can be deduced that women's rights were not given due attention, especially in

countries where there is no legislation to control cases of sexual harassment. It was vital in my study to determine whether there were policies that controlled sexual harassment.

From the global studies carried out, four studies were identified from Italy, Czech Republic, Canada and Pakistan. These studies were conducted in different contexts which included work environment and higher education. Qualitative and quantitative approaches were used in the studies where interviews and questionnaires were utilised in data generation. The findings of the global studies revealed that victims of sexual harassment coped through different ways which included minimisation of harassment through smiling or downplaying the harassment, using internal coping mechanisms like wishful thinking solitarisation, praying, meditation, as well as seeking family support or avoidance. Other findings demonstrate that victims confronted the harasser by fighting back or offering resistance. These coping strategies cited above from the TMSC theory (Pickens 2019) can be classified as psychosocial intervention, problem focused coping and avoidance coping. On the other hand, some victims blamed themselves for the abuse or resorted to alcohol and drug abuse, which falls under avoidance coping. My study would be conducted in three different contexts where focus would be on student teachers in teacher training colleges. My study would be a multiple-site case study, which differs from the above studies.

Regionally, a number of studies were conducted on how victims of sexual harassment coped with the effects of the phenomenon. Cases of sexual harassment, according to Kamal (2017), have been an old problem which negatively affected how victims coped with the effects. In Africa victims have adopted several strategies in managing sexual harassment cases.

A study by Thambo et al. (2019) in South Africa on female students in a higher learning institution at the University of Venda focused on resilience in women's strategies and the way they deal with online sexual harassment. The research used a qualitative design and an exploratory design. Semi-structured interviews were used to generate data from 20 female participants. Purposive and critical case sampling were employed. The results reflect that women victims of sexual harassment used blocking as a way of dealing with perpetrators online. Two approaches were also used which included a problem focused approach and an emotions-based approach which relate to the TMSC theory. Nwaogu and Chan (2022) define problem focused coping as encompassing the victim's ability in dealing with the source of the problem or stress by fighting it directly. It involves taking a head-on approach in dealing with sexual harassment. On the other hand, an emotion focused approach involves regulating one's feelings and or emotions without directly facing the problem. Other findings show that victims of sexual harassment in this case resorted to remaining quiet without reporting or dealing directly with the perpetrators of sexual harassment. In this case avoidance was used as a coping strategy (Baltimore-Paulino 2018; Mellgren et al. 2017). This study is relevant to mine as its focus is on students at an institution of higher learning although this is a university whereas my study was in three teacher training colleges. Sexual harassment was

conducted online which may be easier to deal with than in a situation where it is done physically as in my study (Ayres and Leaper 2013). Drawing from this scenario it, therefore, differs in how the victims cope with sexual harassment when the perpetrators are near the victims physically. Finally, the other point of difference related to the focus of the study where Thambo et al. (2019) confined their research to women while my study investigated both men and women students and staff.

Another study was carried out by Worke et al. in (2021) in Ethiopia. The study was carried out in Bahir Dar city focusing on sexual harassment coping strategies and perceived barriers to women in the hospitality workplace. The study was a qualitative one where a semi-structured focus group discussion was used following an interview guide. The results found that four main strategies were used.

The first strategy used was normalisation as a coping mechanism. This strategy involved silence, acceptance, denial, refusal, grief and tolerance as ways of coping with the effects of sexual harassment. Therefore, a coping strategy which involves denial or refusal to accept the negative effects of sexual harassment can be treated as avoidance coping from the TMSC theory (Baltimore-Paulino 2018). Avoidance as maladaptive coping is perceived as a disengagement coping mechanism because the victim denies accepting the presence of the problem (Vohlidalova 2015). In this case the victim chooses to pretend that the stressor cannot be challenged which is avoidance coping.

Secondly, engagement was also employed where the victims confronted the harasser or retaliated, threatened or portrayed discrimination.

The third strategy found was help seeking behaviour which means the victims discussed with friends and colleagues about what could be done in fighting sexual harassment. The method also enables the victim to complain to the supervisor or even confront the perpetrator of sexual harassment in order to stop harassment from continuing. This form of coping from the TMSC theory (Cowan et al. 2020; Smith and Keefer 2016) involves psychosocial intervention where the victims engage family members and friends to get help in dealing with the effects of sexual harassment. In support of the above, psychosocial intervention is utilised by victims of sexual harassment using a wide range of interventions which facilitate care and support offered by people close to the victims (Lomax and Meyrick 2020).

Lastly the victims resorted to job hopping, withdrawal and distancing. This means the victim had to change their jobs or quit employment due to cases of sexual harassment affecting them. This strategy is a way of avoiding facing the stressor directly to rectify the problem. Therefore, it is avoidance coping strategy as viewed from the TMSC theory (Dymond 2019). Stanislawski (2019) describes this as a mechanism where the victim is afraid of challenging or confronting their stressor, hence the problem continues unabated.

Another study, by Verelst et al. (2020) in Eastern Congo sought to find out how school going adolescents coped with sexual harassment and rape effects to have a stable mental health after the war. The study was a cross-sectional study based on 1305 school going adolescents. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to analyse data. Results indicated that most girls used avoidance or disengagement coping but suffered from effects psychologically. According to Curzon (2021), avoidance coping entails distancing oneself from the stressor emotionally, cognitively and physically as a way of coping with stress. However, this coping mechanism is regarded as a maladaptive coping strategy. Avoidance or disengagement was necessitated by high levels of stigmatisation for those who reported being sexually harassed. Further, those who used the strategy of avoidance later suffered from post-traumatic stress symptoms. Findings also demonstrated that another group of victims who did not opt to report the abuse normalised harassment since it was a period of war. The last group of victims reported the abuse to their families and it was discovered that they coped well with the effects of sexual abuse. This is also supported by UN women (2019) who argue that family support is effective in making victims of sexual abuse recover well. In this scenario, psychosocial intervention was used where victims relied on their family members for support after they had gone through sexual harassment. In support of this, Sels et al. (2016) notes that involvement of family members in dealing with sexual harassment effects may be therapeutic to the victim because family members enjoy emotional interdependence with the victim.

The study differed from my study and from the above studies in terms of the context in which sexual harassment took place. The abuse took place during a period of war hence options for the victims were limited. The study provides a different dimension of forms of harassment that may affect the victims. Another difference relates to the age of participants, the adolescent girls who may have a different perspective in resolving sexual harassment perpetrated on them. Despite some of the differences the study remains useful to me in informing my study to examine critically the mechanisms of coping.

Mabuza (2020) on the other hand studied how teachers deal with sexual harassment perpetrated by learners in the Manzini region in Eswatini. The focus of the study was to establish teachers' reaction or coping strategies after being sexually harassed by their learners. Two data generation instruments were used: self-administered questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Random sampling technique was used for 80 teachers. Quantitative data were analysed using SPSS while qualitative data were analysed using qualitative framework analysis.

The results imply that teachers would confront the learner by explaining to them the implications of sexual harassment especially to all the students so that they got correct guidance about the issue. However, some teachers argued that confronting perpetrator learners must be done in a private environment as opposed to doing it in the presence of other learners. Another finding indicated that teachers believed that beating the learner to stop them from engaging in that form of behaviour was

necessary while others suggested reporting the perpetrator to the department of career guidance. In support of the above coping strategy, Okunlola et al. (2020) posit that a problem focussed coping approach is effective in ensuring that the stressor is dealt with directly in order to resolve a challenge, for example, by making reports against the perpetrator of sexual harassment. This coping approach from the TMSC theory is the adaptive or problem focused strategy (Zoeller et al. 2020). Some teachers revealed that they just ignored the sexual advances by learners until they gave up while others indicated that they remained silent since they believed that making a noise about the behaviour of the students would create more problems with the authorities who would accuse the teachers of having initiated a sexual relationship with the learners. Other teachers revealed that they befriended the learner so that the issue of harassment could not be talked about. According to the teachers, befriending a learner helped them to teach the learner more about why it was bad for the learner to sexually harass teachers (Vohlidalova 2015).

While the study is important in showing ways of coping with sexual harassment and the approaches which could be used to cope with the effects, the study is based on contra-power which is very common but less talked about (Mawere and Seroto 2022). Brinson (2020) defines contra-power as a situation where someone with seemingly less organisational power sexually harasses those with more power within the organisation. In this case subordinates sexually harass their superiors notwithstanding the power inequalities that exist between them. Though different in terms of its general focus, the study was important in making me aware of that type of harassment and so to look out for it in my study.

Regional studies critically evaluated above were conducted in South Africa, Ethiopia, Eastern Congo and Eswatini. The studies were carried out in higher education, work environment and in schools. Different approaches were used but mainly qualitative and quantitative, which utilised interviews and questionnaires respectively whereas my study used semi-structured interviews and drawings. Findings included silence, acceptance, as well as denial, as coping strategies adopted by the victims. Some victims in the working environment quit employment as a way of dealing with sexual harassment. Further findings show that some victims used avoidance or disengagement coping as they were afraid of confronting the harasser while others were able to confront the harasser through using problem focused strategy where they directly dealt with the perpetrator. This involved even reporting the case of harassment to the authorities. All the studies differ in the environment with my study which was centred on the teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

At national level in Zimbabwe, the literature search yielded three studies focusing on the coping mechanisms employed by victims of sexual harassment. The studies included that by Muridzo and Malianga (2015), Dlomo et al. (2012) and Dube et al. (2021). All the three indicated how victims of sexual harassment dealt with it in different contexts within Zimbabwe.

Muridzo and Malianga (2015) conducted a study on how children in Zimbabwe may be assisted by social workers in dealing with sexual abuse. Results reveal that coping with sexual harassment may be done on three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The findings express that primary level coping involves prevention, where proactive actions are taken in preventing child sexual abuse. The findings further indicate that all necessary ways of coping are engaged to ensure that the abuse is totally avoided before its onset. Secondary prevention coping involves the use of measures for those children in high risk situations. In support of this form of coping strategy, Rijal et al. (2023) argue that secondary prevention coping is based on the belief that prevention is better than cure since all high potential victims or those at risk are assisted to cope before the onset of the actual sexual harassment experience. This strategy from the TMSC theory is based on a problem-focussed coping mechanism which targets the source of the problem (Dymond 2019; Zoeller et al. 2020). From the findings, coping at secondary level requires selecting only those children who have been identified as at high risk of abuse, therefore needing to be helped to minimise occurrence of the abuse. The last form of coping from the results is the tertiary coping strategy where measures are put in place to ensure that those identified as already affected are supported to cope. This strategy only deals with the once who have experienced sexual abuse.

The study differs from the studies reviewed and from my study in that it focused on young children some of whom had not experienced sexual harassment. The study also investigated coping strategies for both boys and girls. However, drawing on this Muridzo and Malianga (2015) study, my study would establish whether the coping strategies, particularly the tertiary level, would emerge in my study.

Dlomo et al. (2012), also in Zimbabwe, researched sexual harassment coping mechanisms for victims in tertiary education. The study sample was 136 students aged between 19 and 40 years. Questionnaires were used as a tool for data generation given the quantitative nature of the study. The results indicated that most victims used silence to deal with stresses by normalising the harassment from their lecturers. Karami et al. (2021), in agreement with normalisation of sexual harassment, argue that when victims normalise harassment they take it as lawful and acceptable and ignore fighting it through reporting. Some student victims tried to avoid the lecturers harassing them by absenting themselves from the lectures conducted by those abusing lecturers. Further, others avoided invitations from the lecturer as a way of making sure that they minimise the likelihood of being harassed. The above coping strategy becomes avoidance as a mechanism in dealing with sexual harassment viewed against the TMSC theory (Baltimore-Paulino 2018). However, only a few student victims reported the harasser to senior lecturers which resulted in the perpetrators being cautioned. Therefore, viewing this from TMSC theory, this belongs to the problem focussed or adaptive coping strategy (Dymond 2019; Zoeller et al. 2020).

The study relates to mine as it was conducted at a university, whereas mine was in three colleges, hence the ages of participants would be more or less the same and participants would likely have similar

experiences and coping strategies. The study, therefore, suggested to me some learning points for my study.

Dube et al. (2021) carried out a study in Bulawayo in Zimbabwe to establish how female students at a university in Bulawayo dealt with the effects of harassment perpetrated on them by their peers. A mixed methods approach in data generation, involving a structured survey questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussions targeting both male and female students, was adopted. The results show that victims responded to the effects of harassment by reporting or by avoidance, where they were just quiet about the sexual harassment experienced. Many female respondents responded by resisting abuse through slapping or jabbing their peer perpetrator of sexual harassment while others told their perpetrator peers to go away. It also emerged that some victims remained quiet about their abuse to allow the issue to die naturally without making it public, hence avoiding more problems. Drawing on the TMSC theory, this mechanism represents avoidance or adaptive coping strategy (Dymond 2019; Garret and Hassan 2019). Zoeller et al. (2020) in support, submit that in most cases women are afraid to speak out about their sexual harassment as they are not sure of the reaction of the harasser. On the other hand, men who are sexually harassed are afraid of being laughed at, stigmatised or labelled as weak. Further, some male victims indicated that they dealt with the issue as “real men” as it is a shame for a man to report being sexually harassed by women perpetrators. Keplinger et al. (2019) maintain that some men end up being forced to “enjoy” the harassment, hence may not speak out about their harassment by female students.

The above study is relevant to my study in that it investigated both male and female students and it would be interesting to note how male students in my study coped with sexual harassment. While the context was similar to mine pointing me to what to determine in my study, the study confined itself to peer harassment contrary to my study which included all the forms of harassment that take place within the teacher training colleges encompassing those perpetrated by peers, lecturers and other staff.

The three studies, by Muridzo and Malianga (2015), Dlomo et al. (2012) and Dube et al. (2021) were carried out in secondary schools and tertiary institutions. Findings show that victims dealt with sexual harassment through three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary. Findings show that in secondary schools, the primary stage involved strategies taken by learners before they are victimised, for example, getting guidance and counselling lessons. The secondary stage involved all the strategies being taught to learners who are vulnerable to abuse, while the tertiary stage or level where the coping mechanism used was targeted to learners who had already experienced harassment, for example, involved victims being offered counselling by school counsellors. Other findings – for example, a study by Dube et al. (2021) – show that some victims absented themselves from lectures in order to avoid the harassers who were their lecturers. This form of coping from TMSC theory was avoidance coping strategy (Baltimore-Paulino 2018) as victims evaded facing their perpetrators. Further, other victims pretended to “enjoy” harassment,

especially if the harassers were females harassing males. Another group of victims indicated that they hit back or slapped or jabbed the harassers when the perpetrators were their peers. These from the TMSC theory were adaptive or problem focussed strategies (Cowan et al 2020; Pickens 2019). However, my study being centred in teacher training colleges, especially when it uses both drawings and interviews to generate data, would want to close that gap which the above studies could not fill.

2.7 Factors Contributing to the Prevalence of Sexual Harassment in Institutions

Sexual harassment has been a pervasive and perennial problem in different communities and organisations across the globe and efforts to fight this phenomenon have yielded fewer positive results than expected (Hersch 2015). Research (Gweshengwe and Hassan 2020) has shown that the behaviour of perpetrators of sexual harassment requires serious attention if it is to be put under control. Causes of sexual harassment differ from country to country, context to context, institution to institution, as well as from culture to culture (Pappas et al. 2021). This section critically reviews literature that focuses on the factors that contribute to the high prevalence of sexual harassment in learning institutions.

According to Agardh et al. (2022), factors are defined as drivers that actively contribute towards the production of certain behaviours. In this case factors are viewed as influences, ingredients or circumstances that promote or sustain the perpetuation of sexual harassment in organisations. Therefore, the studies discussed below focus on factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment within organisations. Globally, identified studies are from Sweden, Indonesia, the United Kingdom (UK) and the United State of America (USA).

Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) carried out a study at the University of Gothenburg in Sweden which reviewed scientific knowledge on the causes of the high prevalence of sexual harassment among students and staff at the University. This was a qualitative study which employed thematic data analysis. The results indicated that 6 out of 10 countries in the world lack legislation or laws capable of fighting sexual harassment in higher and tertiary education. Further, normalisation of women's sexual harassment cases like rape, prostitution, sexualised violence, as well as human trafficking, made institutions lose interest in fighting sexual harassment. Lack of in-depth research-based evidence on formal mechanisms or management structures of handling cases of sexual harassment in higher education has been a real challenge (Johnson et al. 2016; Tavares and Wodon 2018). In concurrence with the above view, Fedina et al. (2018) assert that support structures of student victims in institutions are inadequate so cases of sexual harassment may not be curtailed due to this weakness. Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) also found that tolerance of all forms of gender violence has become a hindrance towards taking sexual harassment as a serious health issue. According to Bondestam and Lundqvist's (2020) other findings, behind the continued perpetuation of sexual harassment is lack of appropriate sexual harassment

education and training as a strategy to combating the phenomenon. Therefore, this leaves students, as well as lecturers, with a narrow understanding of sexual harassment.

Findings also indicated that passive leadership within some institutions militates against the fighting of sexual harassment. This may encompass the type of contract that some employees are given which may fuel sexual harassment. In support of the above causes of the prevalence of sexual harassment, Lee et al. (2019) claim that the perception of leadership contributes directly towards curbing or sustaining sexual harassment within the organisation. What also emerged was that power differentiation, especially male dominance within organisations, leads to sexual harassment if not properly addressed. This is consistent with the Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) perspective which assumes that cultural perceptions within patriarchy in society create male dominance, thereby suppressing the status of women to second-class citizens who can be used as toys for sexual harassment (Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020; Lee 2018; Ruzzante et al. 2021). This may be reflected in the bystander attitude where those observing or witnessing sexual harassment taking place do not intervene or stop it due to power dynamics (Dessel et al. 2017; Bala and Kang'ethe 2021). The lack of legislation, lack of knowledge, normalisation of sexual harassment, and management tolerance of sexual harassment, as well as male dominance in organisations, which emerged as some of the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment, were useful pointers to be looked out for in my study.

Bondestam and Lundqvist's (2020) study is related to my study in terms of the qualitative approach and thus provided me with some guidance on data generation. The participants were also students at a tertiary institution like in my study, however, the difference is that Bondestam and Lundqvist's (2020) study focussed on university students whereas I investigated student teachers in teacher training colleges. The culture of teacher training institutions especially in African countries and the culture of universities in Europe may differ.

Another study in an educational setting on the prevalence of sexual harassment was conducted by Shalihin et al. (2022) in Malaysia. The study was carried out on students in universities, colleges and schools, aiming at identifying factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in institutions of learning. Three electronic databases were utilised for data generation which involved the PubMed, GNAHL and Scopus. These three databases were searched from the database's inception in January 2011 to November 2021. Three independent authors took part in searching for the articles by scanning the titles and abstracts. Another independent author verified and resolved some discrepancies between the authors. The focus was on identifying the factors in Malaysian education institutions associated with causes of sexual harassment.

Findings indicate that lecturer to student sexual harassment was mainly associated with power imbalance as lecturers took advantage of the student's young age, naivety, respect, and gender disparity in the academic environment. This is supported by Mohammed (2015b) who asserts that academically weak students are prone to harassment by lecturers who enjoy an academic higher status and are respected because of their older age. In the same vein, other findings reflect that students who are lazy and academically weak are also sexually harassed by academically strong male students.

Another finding from Shalihin's (2022) Malaysian study revealed that the dominance of men in society is another factor making women easy targets for sexual harassment, as women are always taking a subordinate status. These findings concurred with the above study of Bondestam and Lindquist (2020) where male dominance in organisations contributed to the prevalence of the sexual harassment of women. Further, Shalihin's (2022) study shows that the need for women to look good and attractive has contributed to their sexual harassment as they tend to put on tight, skimpy, or transparent outfits that reveal their inner body curves. In line with this "improper" dressing, Jayaplan et al. (2018) claim that women are associated with wearing clothes to get compliments from men and from this perspective, they sometimes dress to seduce men.

Shalihin (2022) also found that sexual harassment of school girls and college students is associated with their obsession to get gifts from male staff. In this case male staff take advantage by providing the gifts to female students in return for sexual benefits. This is supported by Bertay et al. (2020) who argue that culturally women take men to be providers. This over-reliance on men for everything tends to put women in a difficult position to resist sexual abuse because they may get financial support from the men. Finally, the Malaysian study by Shalihin et al. (2022) also shows that schools girls lack knowledge and awareness of sexual harassment, therefore, male abusers take advantage of this lack of knowledge to sexually abuse these girls. This is in agreement with what Bondestam and Lundqvist's (2020) study discussed above revealed, when they claim that lack of knowledge and normalisation of sexual harassment have contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in learning institutions.

Similarly, Lewis (2022) in the United Kingdom carried out a study between March 2018 and March 2020 using data from the Office National Statistics (ONS). During the period, several reports and studies were made by academics, as well as campaign groups, against sexual harassment of students and staff in the universities in England and Wales.

This study by Lewis (2022) revealed that male dominance, especially by male students, is one of the factors contributing highly to the prevalence of sexual harassment in the universities. Lewis (2022) describes it as a misogynistic "lad-culture". This factor is described as the sexist culture of male students in having no respect for women. Phipps (2017) conceptualised 'misogynistic' as a culture of masculinity

by men and a tendency of being sexually violent against women which emanates from the structures of patriarchy. In other words, misogynistic culture is viewed as a tool of gender oppression which serves to preserve male dominance (Phipps 2017; Adegboyega et al. 2019; Rao et al. 2020). The above finding is in line with what Shalihin et al. (2022) from Malaysia and Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) in Sweden discussed earlier. They reveal from their studies that male dominance has contributed so much and is a common factor behind the prevalence of sexual harassment of female students in higher education institutions.

Further, reports revealed that only six out of 102 universities in England and Wales have policies that prevent academics from indulging in sexual relations with students that they teach. Thus, the rest of the institutions do not have any policies to help prevent sexual harassment. This is further supported by findings from Lewis's (2022) study that many universities in the UK have unclear reporting procedures due to their lack of proper laws on sexual harassment. Therefore, the lack of relevant policies may inhibit lecturers from maintaining a professional relationship with students which could fuel the perpetuation of sexual harassment by the lecturers on the students. In the absence of sexual harassment policies professional boundaries between lecturers and students become blurred (Ngubelanga 2021). Ngubelanga (2021) described boundary-blurring as unclear or indistinct professional conduct between staff and students which leads to the prevalence of sexual harassment as this scenario does not clearly demarcate the professional boundary to be maintained by both lecturers and students. In support, a study by Matsikidze (2017) reflects that lack of appropriate legislation or policies on curbing sexual harassment is a critical factor that exacerbates the prevalence of sexual harassment in institutions and workplaces.

Finally, Lewis (2022) found that power dynamics among university staff contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in these university environments. In this case increased job precarity is a major factor sustaining sexual harassment in universities. Reuter et al. (2020) describe job precarity as a form of employment which is non-standard, associated with uncertainty and insecurity and lacking in statutory rights and protection against poverty. Contract workers are usually in this kind of employment where their wages are very low and unsustainable. Gweshengwe and Hassan (2020) concur with the findings when they assert that workers, especially women who are suffering from poverty, are prone to sexual exploitation. The same view is echoed by Bertay (2020) who claims that economic dependence on men by women contributes to making women vulnerable to sexual harassment by men. Therefore, poverty remains a contributing factor in the prevalence of sexual harassment in the working environment (Giuliano (2020).

Another study at the global level was done by Galdi and Guizzo (2021) in New York, United State of America (USA), in the film industry across the country. The aim was to find out how media facilitates

the perpetuation of the sexual harassment of women in the USA. This was a longitudinal, experimental and quantitative study which was carried out nationally.

The results revealed that media was at the centre of objectifying women as women were reduced to decorative and sexual objects which made them prone to being sexually abused or harassed. According to Galdi et al. (2017), media creates cultural risk factors which promote the abuse of women and is known for reducing women into fragmented sexual body parts ready to offer sexual pleasure to men, thereby ignoring their other important life attributes, like their career or abilities. Finally, the findings from this USA study show that media normalises the abuse of women by the way they are portrayed in a patriarchal society (Gervais and Eagan 2017; Anquilar and Kumar 2021), which heightens their acceptance of sexual harassment.

The study by Galdi and Guizzo (2021) above examined sexual harassment focusing on the influence of media in perpetuating the spectacle of women in general in the country and not student teachers as in my study. However, the results from this USA study give me some insights into the factors perpetuating the prevalence of sexual harassment within the media environment and so enable comparisons with factors contributing to sexual harassment in institutions.

Three of the studies reviewed above investigated factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment of students by staff in higher education universities, and one study examined sexual harassment in the workplace to enable comparisons. All the four studies reviewed adopted both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Findings revealed lack of legislation on sexual harassment as a major factor perpetuating sexual harassment in both institutions and the workplace. Power imbalances between lecturers and students, as well as between managers and their subordinates, was another contributing factor. In addition, culture and a lack of respect for women, sexually objectifying them, also emerged as causing the high prevalence of sexual harassment of women. Further, lack of sexual harassment knowledge by the victims and improper dress by female students and women in the workplace increased the prevalence of the phenomenon. Finally, academically weak and lazy female students emerged as contributing to their sexual harassment by their male counterparts in return for assistance with assessments.

The next section critically reviews regional studies on factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in organisations. The studies reviewed are from Ethiopia, Nigeria, Benin, Uganda and South Africa

Anierobi et al. (2021) in Anambra state, Nigeria, studied the prevalence and patterns of sexual harassment and its consequences in higher education institutions, focusing on women working in the university. A descriptive survey (cross sectional survey) was adopted where questionnaires were used to generate data

from a sample of 312 women. Like in the previous study by Lewis (2020) in the United Kingdom, Anierobi et al. (2021) identified lack of legislation to protect victims of sexual harassment as one of the major factors that contributes to the prevalence of sexual harassment in the identified higher education institutions. In addition, lack of assertive training of victims to resist harassment also emerged as making the victims weak to fight sexual harassment, therefore, perpetuating it. Other findings show that some women victims admit that they regard sexual harassment as a normal phenomenon in all higher education institutions. This finding by Anierobi et al. (2021) relates to findings by Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) from a Swedish study who found that lack of education, normalisation and male dominance were some of the factors which contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in universities. Raihan (2017) adds that normalisation of sexual harassment is the act of accepting the culture of sexual harassment as a normal phenomenon, which contributes to the perpetuation of sexual harassment behaviour. Other findings show that unstable working conditions that affect lowly paid employees increase their vulnerability to sexual harassment and the prevalence of it. In support, literature by Etodike et al. (2017) found that job insecurity in institutions was another factor which made victims unable to confidently fight sexual harassment thereby contributing to its prevalence. The above finding is further supported by Idris et al. (2016) who highlight that most women in institutions are afraid of losing their jobs, therefore, can easily succumb to sexual demands by the perpetrators which promotes the prevalence of the phenomenon.

Similar to the above study by Anierobi et al. (2021), Omorogiuwa (2018) used the quantitative method and questionnaires as instruments of generating data at the University of Benin in Edo State of Nigeria where he explored the social factors contributing to sexual harassment of undergraduate students. This was a descriptive survey where 380 undergraduate students drawn from faculties of Social Sciences, Engineering, Arts and Basic Medical Sciences participated.

The results indicate that female students at the university find it hard to resist sexual harassment due to their financial insufficiency, thus, failing to fight the phenomenon and in turn contributing to its prevalence. Further to the findings, the university's weak system of redress on cases of sexual harassment is another factor that contributes to the prevalence of sexual harassment at the institution. In addition, the weak institutional response to sexual harassment gives rise to individual reluctance to report, as they lack confidence in the institutional approach to handling sexual harassment cases. This perpetuates the prevalence of the phenomenon. Taiwo et al. (2014), in support, assert that when institutions do not seriously reprimand sex offenders, it discourages reporting by victims who, therefore, make offenders take advantage and continue abusing them sexually without fear. Findings also show that moral deficit and moral weakness among the female students are factors contributing to the continued sexual harassment at the institution as these students are unable to resist the harassment. In line with the above,

some female students are identified as lustful (Aditi et al. 2016; Omorogiuwa 2018). My study would determine how the institutions explored and responded to incidences of sexual harassment, why students gave in to the scourge, the regard students gave to their institutional management in relation to such issues and how female students themselves were viewed in this regard.

The two studies by Anierobi et al. (2021) and Omorogiuwa (2018) are relevant to my study as they focus on the female students and the underlying causes of their vulnerability to sexual harassment. The findings derived from the studies of female students in universities above are generally consistent, which prompted me to look out for such factors in my study.

Mieszczanski (2018) in Uganda investigated factors leading to sexual harassment in one university and one secondary school. Focus group discussions and interviews were used as instruments for data generation, similar to my study which also used interviews. Results from the study indicate that the culture of silence around the issue of sexual harassment contributes to the prevalence of the sexual harassment phenomenon in institutions. Further, the study reveals that institutions remain tight lipped when it comes to issues of sexual harassment, which ultimately makes the vice continue without being addressed.

Peer pressure was also identified by Mieszczanski (2018) as another factor causing the vulnerability of victims to sexual harassment. In addition, it emerged that students and learners in Uganda University and school enjoy the benefits of engaging in sexual relationships with authorities or staff that can provide them with scarce resources, as well as unmerited grades in their academic work. In support of this finding, Awaah (2019) argues that female students who do not work hard in their academic work are prone to transactional sex, where they are sexually exploited in return for higher marks in assignments and examinations.

According to Mieszczanski (2018) findings of both perpetrators and victims of sexual harassment can be labelled “mentally disabled.” Accordingly, Mieszczanski (2018) views these learning institutions as creating people who are psychologically disturbed victims because they do not see what is wrong in indulging in these forms of sexual relations. Mieszczanski (2018) further found that the defective culture of the institutions promotes the kind of relations as there is no policy or any control mechanism in place to fight the behaviour of sexual harassment. All these findings created pointers for my study.

Another regional study was carried out in South Africa by Kheswa (2014). The study explored the causal factors and effects of sexual harassment of female students at one university in South Africa. The results identified substance and alcohol abuse as influencing both the behaviour of the victims, as well as that of the perpetrators. Poverty within the students was identified as another contributing issue. This is supported by Ngubelanga’s (2021) study from another South African study in rural Taung in North West

province which concluded that students between the ages of 18-23 years who lack basic resources participate in transactional sex. Perpetrators in this case take advantage of the situation of students and abuse them.

Again, a related study was conducted by Tegegne et al. (2019) in Ethiopia at the Pharma College on female students at a health institution. The study examined the factors influencing sexual harassment of these female students at the institution. A stratified random sampling technique was used to select 385 female students. Questionnaires were used as a data generating instrument and SPSS -21 version software was used to analyse data.

The results show that high sexual harassment was caused by high consumption of alcohol and other drugs. The findings indicate that being intoxicated makes the victims of sexual harassment unable to protect themselves from sexual harassment. Similar findings have been revealed by Kheswa (2014), also in South Africa, where drug and alcohol abuse influence both the perpetrator and the victim of sexual harassment thereby contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in institutions. A major contributing factor coming out relates to poverty which increases the likelihood of sexual harassment of the victims as poor victims are easily exploited sexually by different perpetrators. Students from low socio-economic status show that they experience high rates of sexual harassment. A similar finding emerges from a study by Anierobi et al. (2021) discussed above which shows that financial insufficiency of female students predisposes them to sexual exploitation by lecturers and other staff who may be economically sound. In the same vein, Sarwar (2022) concurs when he says poverty is rated among the major causes of sexual harassment because perpetrators of sexual harassment often target individuals who are vulnerable due to their poor economic status. Gweshengwe and Hassan (2020) further point out that poverty is common in African countries.

Tegegne et al.'s (2019) study relates to my study given its focus on female students in a learning institution. It was yet to be established whether participants in my study also gave in to sexual harassment due to poverty, alcohol and drug abuse thereby perpetuating the phenomenon in their institutions. Tegegne et al.'s (2019) study, however, differed from my study in terms of research design, data generation instruments and the method of analysing data.

From the above regional debates most studies were conducted in universities focusing on female students and on women in the workplace. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used. Findings identified poverty as a major contributor to women's sexual harassment both in the public and private sector. Other factors revealed contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment include lack of appropriate sexual harassment legislation, normalisation of sexual harassment as a result of a "culture"

of harassment in the institutions, laziness of students, lack of knowledge on sexual harassment, abuse of alcohol and drugs, as well as peer pressure.

From both international and regional studies on sexual harassment reviewed above, none of them investigated students in teacher training colleges. In addition, a literature search carried out on national studies in Zimbabwe did not yield much academic work. The few studies were conducted in universities and primary and secondary schools, not in the colleges. This absence of academic work on sexual harassment in Teacher Training Colleges at global, regional and national levels creates a knowledge gap to which this study will contribute. The identified studies on sexual harassment in Zimbabwe were conducted by Mapuranga et al. (2015), Mawere and Seroto (2022), Mugodzwa et al. (2013) and Muridzo and Malianga (2015).

Mugodzwa et al. (2013) investigated motivations for sexual harassment and promiscuous behaviour among students in one state university in Zimbabwe. This was a qualitative study where interviews and focus group discussions generated data from 180 female students and 30 male students who were purposively sampled.

Results from the study reveal that students' economic background is at the centre in contributing towards perpetuating sexual harassment and promiscuity. Findings show that students need money for fees, accommodation, typing of assignments and day to day requirements in the institution. Thus, poverty emerges as topping the list of factors influencing the behaviour of female students to engage in transactional sex. This is supported by Kheswa (2014) and Ngubelanga (2021) in their South African studies who claim that lack of basic resources promotes prostitution in female students. In the same vein, poverty is labelled as a major factor in promoting the prevalence of sexual harassment on female students from low-income families in Africa as a whole (Hassan and Rizzo 2022).

Other findings from Mugodzwa et al.'s (2013) study include the desire for high grades and passing examinations by female students who are lazy and irresponsible and do not devote time to their academic work. These female students tend to lure lecturers into a sexual relationship for them to enjoy high marks in their assignments and examinations. This is supported by Mieszczanski (2018) discussed above who says female students who are academically weak are prone to sexual transactions to pass their assessments. Mugodzwa et al. (2013) describe such female students as "sophisticated" and "intelligent" in the way they engage in their seduction work and lure their prey so that they win in their game. What also emerged is that lecturers, on the other hand, take advantage of the situation in order to sexually harass female students.

Lastly, Mugodzwa et al. indicate that some female students engage in sexual relations simply for sexual enjoyment. What Mugodzwa et al. (2013) found was that some of these female students create an

enabling atmosphere to ensure that sexual relations thrive within the institutions. The motivation in this scenario is to conquer some lecturers who are perceived as heroes within the organisations. Further, peer pressure to brag to about their ability to “bring down” some powerful people in the institution is one of the reasons found by Mugodzwa et al. (2013) as fuelling sexual harassment of female students by lecturers and other staff.

Similar to the study by Mugodzwa (2013) on the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment above, Mawere and Seroto (2022) explored contra-power as a factor perpetuating sexual harassment within one university in Zimbabwe. This was a qualitative research which employed a case study design which used interviews in the generation of data. Natural/biological model was used as its theoretical framework. Their findings show that female students seduce male lecturers and other staff at the institutions by putting on a revealing type of dress which is sexually suggestive. Apart from dress, Mawere and Seroto (2022) found that female students visit the lecturers alone in their offices in a way that creates a good environment for the lecturer to propose to them. On the other hand, lecturers remain silent about it due to cultural beliefs which make it inappropriate for men to report sexual harassment by women in cases where the female student teachers are responsible. According to Mawere (2019), this contributes to the prevalence of much sexual harassment in the university.

Mawere and Seroto (2020) also found a general lack of rigorous research on contra-power sexual harassment within institutions as another factor that contributes towards the prevalence of this phenomenon in the universities. Therefore, contra-power sexual harassment, due to limited research around it, may be considered as non-existent (Lampman et al. 2016).

Other findings of Mawere and Seroto (2020) show that male lecturers who experience this form of harassment may be afraid to report it since they are not sure whether authorities would believe them. In support King (2019) argues that contra-power harassment is a contemporary form of harassment whose existence has not yet been acknowledged by many authorities, let alone accepted culturally, hence, reporting it may not yield meaningful results. Dube et al.’s (2021) study concurs with the finding above when they argue that failure to report cases of sexual harassment perpetrated on the victim may be regarded as a factor in contributing to the prevalence or sustainability of sexual harassment in institutions.

In addition, Mawere and Seroto (2020) found that a lack of a culture of respect between some female students and lecturers is another factor influencing the continuation of sexual harassment between lecturers and female students within institutions. The same view is echoed by Lewis (2022) who describes this scenario as a blurred-boundary between lecturers and students implying lack of professional boundaries or distance between lecturers and students as alluded to above, which may promote the

prevalence of sexual harassment. From Mawere and Seroto's (2022) study, whether or not a lack of institutional policies and contra-power sexual harassment through its various forms also contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in my study needed to be established.

Mapuranga et al. (2015) studied sexual harassment of female employees at a state university in Zimbabwe. The aim of the study was to create an in-depth understanding of the causes of sexual harassment of female employees at that university. The study was a mixed methods research and results show that gender inequality promotes sexual harassment of female employees by male employees in higher positions of authority. Further, the findings show that the institution's lack of reliable statistics on this form of harassment makes authorities underestimate the prevalence of sexual harassment.

Findings by Mapuranga et al. (2015) further reveal that due to lack of preventative measures against sexual harassment, the institution has no punitive means of curtailing the harassment which promotes the continuation of this phenomenon at the institution. This finding is aligned to Bondestam and Lundvist's (2020) study which reveals that lack of relevant legislation in curbing sexual harassment is a key factor in promoting the prevalence of sexual harassment in institutions.

Muridzo and Malianga (2015) carried out research focusing on child sexual abuse in schools. The aim was to establish the causes and prevention of child sexual abuse in schools in Zimbabwe. The study used Meili model of prevention of child abuse. The results from the study show that cultural factors are at the centre of perpetuating sexual abuse, especially on girls. Several cultural practices emerge as creating a situation which allows abuse of girls. First, the cultural practice of pledging: this culture involves pledging a girl child at birth to a man who is economically stable so that in return the father of the young girl receives financial or material benefits. This, therefore, reduces the value of girls to mere sexual objects that can be transacted with money and material goods thereby contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment. Abusers take advantage of such practices even in schools. Second, another cultural practice revealed by Muridzo and Malianga (2015) relates to sexual orientation or socialisation where girls are taught that their sister's husband has the right to play "sexual games" with them. The "sexual games" include fondling of all body parts and sexual intimacy with the husband of the elder sister. In support of the above cultural practices, Mawodza (2019) describes this as sexual dalliance, a cultural practice which is harmful to girls in Zimbabwe as it promotes sexual harassment of young girls by older men. Some such men are also found in schools where they use these cultural practices to sexually harass the female learners without being questioned as society tolerates these forms of relationships. Third, Muridzo and Malianga (2015) reveal another cultural practice which relates to promoting child marriages and polygamy, which portray men as the sole source of economic dependence for women: therefore, girls tend to accept sexual harassment as they believe that the man will cater for them financially and materially. My study would establish whether such practices were known to or practiced by the college

students investigated. Fourth, Muridzo and Malianga (2015) found that sexual harassment of girl children is also perpetuated by religious beliefs within some church communities in Zimbabwe. In support, Magede and Mbwirire (2020) claimed that young girls are forced into sexual activities with older men as their husbands due to their parents' greediness and evil doctrines. Magede and Mbwirire (2020) argue that in churches like Johanne Marange Apostolic church, young girls are forced and threatened to get married to old men through fake prophesy, doctrines and "dreams" by older church leaders and so-called "prophets and dreamers", including prophetic healing committed on the girl child. All these contribute towards the prevalence of sexual harassment. According to Mukushi et al. (2019) these cultural and religious practices are now part and parcel of the lives of Zimbabwean people, hence, are accepted. Girl children's ability to resist sexual harassment is affected by their beliefs even in schools because the perceptions in the churches and communities tend to make women submissive to men.

The national context studies reviewed adopted qualitative approaches where interviews and focus group discussions were employed in generating data. The main focus was on female students and girls in school, however, one study looked at female employees in a state university. Poverty emerged as the major factor contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment. Lack of relevant legislation and laziness among female students who wanted high marks in assessments without working for them were other factors perpetuating sexual harassment. Other contributing factors relate to improper dress by women to seduce men and a lack of professional respect between lecturers and students contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in institutions. Cultural and religious practices also emerged as causing the perpetuation of sexual harassment of girl children in schools. Given the above findings from the same context in which I conducted my study, my research would establish whether there would be similarities and/or differences between my study and the Zimbabwean studies reviewed above.

2.8 Chapter summary

The focus of this study was on exploring sexual harassment in teacher education in Zimbabwe where the unheard voices of student teachers in teacher training colleges were investigated.

All literature reviewed from the global, regional and national contexts was related to the learning institutions and workplace organisations where sexual harassment takes place and one investigated high school learners. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were utilised in the studies discussed. A quantitative approach mostly used surveys, where questionnaires were the main research instruments employed. On the other hand, a qualitative approach used interviews and focus group discussions as the main methods of data generation. Different sampling methods were used by the studies although purposive sampling was the most preferred. Some of the studies had one or two theoretical frameworks to inform their research work but others did not base their studies on theory but, rather, literature. Regarding Research Question One on the victim's experiences of sexual harassment, in global, regional

and national studies analysed, sexual harassment was understood as pressured sexual intimacy where sexual assault, uncomfortable touching and use of threats are perpetrated on the victim. Sexual harassment is further understood as the use of sexually derogatory language, as well as misuse of authority for sexual gains by a superior person on the one who is at a lower level.

In relation to experiences, from the reviewed studies, victims experienced forced sexual engagements like rape, uncomfortable touching and threats to give in to sexual demands. In addition, other studies showed that victims also experienced sexual exploitation and sexually demeaning comments. All the negative experiences encountered by victims made them feel socially rejected, isolated and discriminated. Further, the experiences emotionally affected the victims which made them feel vulnerable, degraded and offended and, in many cases, they lost interest in their work and/or academic performance.

In reviewing literature related to Research Question Two on coping strategies employed by victims of sexual harassment, studies above demonstrated that victims differed in the way they responded to the harassment perpetrated on them, adopting different strategies. However, the most effective coping strategy adopted was problem focused coping where victims responded to the perpetrator through reporting or directly challenging him or her, but in all the contexts this was a rarely taken route by the victims. In addition to the problem focused coping, studies reviewed indicated that victims of sexual harassment also employed emotion-based coping, where psychosocial intervention and avoidance were adopted. Psychosocial intervention includes seeking counselling, as well as making use of family members and other close people in order to cope with the effects of sexual harassment perpetrated on them. On the other hand, studies indicated that many victims used avoidance coping to avoid facing their harasser who may be regarded as too difficult or frightening to challenge.

In relation to Research Question Three on factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment, global studies differed from the regional and national studies in their emphasis on legislation as one of the most critical factors influencing the prevalence of sexual harassment both in learning institutions and the workplace. However, regional and national studies revealed that poverty is the main factor contributing to sexual harassment. Other factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment include normalisation of sexual harassment, laziness of students to do their school work, indecent dress, contra-power seduction, peer pressure, abuse of drugs and alcohol, lack of knowledge of sexual harassment, submissiveness of women, lack of respect for women, imbalance of power, and cultural practices that make and view women as inferior to men.

Having critically reviewed literature, related to victim's experiences of sexual harassment including understanding of the phenomenon, effects of and coping mechanisms adopted, and factors contributing

to the prevalence of sexual harassment in institutions and workplaces, the next chapter discusses the theoretical framework informing this study.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This study sought to explore the unheard voices of pre-service teachers about sexual harassment in **some** teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. In the previous chapter I reviewed literature from global, regional, and national debates related to my three research questions. I covered literature on sexual harassment experiences of students in institutions including one or two studies of workplace experiences to get some comparison. Literature on the effects of harassment on victims and coping strategies employed by sexually harassed students was also reviewed, as well as that which focused on the factors contributing to the prevalence of this phenomenon in institutions.

The current chapter discusses the theoretical framework which guided this exploration of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. The study was grounded in two theories which provided the theoretical framework: Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and Transactional Model of Stress and Coping theory (TMSC). The SCGT was the overarching theory which provided a theoretical lens to understand and explain experiences of sexual harassment of student teachers within their teacher training colleges (Research Question One). The SCGT further helped me to generate and unpack the data, and explain findings related to the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual

harassment in the colleges (Research Question Three). However, SCGT could not help in generating, and understanding data and explaining findings related to coping strategies (Research Question Two) that the victims of sexual harassment adopted to handle the effects of this phenomenon. Consequently, I adopted a second theory, the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping theory (TMSC), to complement the SCGT. Before discussing the theories, I provide a brief definition of theoretical framework.

3.2 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework may be defined as a foundational view which serves as a roadmap for a researcher to be able to develop some arguments in the study (Kivunja 2018). In other words, a theoretical framework is a structure which helps in guiding and supporting the research as it provides existing theory which is critical in guiding researchers throughout their studies (Varpio et al. 2020; Hughes et al. 2019). A theoretical framework is, therefore, a blueprint for the entire study as it ensures that the researcher is guided from straightening the research title, stating the problem statement, research objectives and questions, data generation, analysis and presentation, thus supporting the researcher throughout the study. Further, Adom et al. (2018) view theoretical framework as the base or backbone of any research which, therefore, provides a foundation which is critical to the credibility, acceptance and generalisability of the research findings. Therefore, no meaningful study can be conducted without a theoretical framework because it helps researchers map out concepts and components which define the standpoint of the study. Chukwuere (2021), Kivunja (2018) and Ngulube (2018) claim that a theoretical framework establishes a connection between the title, problem statement, research objective, question and methodology to be used as highlighted above.

Having defined the concept of theoretical framework, the following section discusses the two theories adopted for this study, covering their historical development, principles and application in the study, as well as their shortfalls and how those weaknesses were addressed in this study to reduce their impact on the findings. The SCGT is discussed in the following section.

3.2.1 Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) Historical Development

The rise of many feminists questioning the existing characteristics of men and women in the 1960s and 1970s contributed to the development of this theory. In the 1980s and 1990s researchers developed interest in studying gender sexuality and homosexuality rights. An Indian University in the United States of America was the first University to offer a doctoral programme in gender studies. According to Holmes (2009), SCGT found common ground in both feminism and sociology. Its focus was on gender roles and norms and it was seen as a method of categorising people, that is, both women and men. Many thinkers, who include Sigmund Freud, Jacques Lacan, John Money, Robert Stoller, Gayle Rubin, Judith Butler, Julia Christeva and Judith Lorber made some contributions to the development of this theory. However,

the main proponents of the SCGT are Judith Lorber and Judith Butler (Lorber 1994 in Prasetyo et al. 2021).

Thus, SCGT originated from feminism and sociology reflecting a manifestation of cultural origins (Lorber 1994; Orfan 2021b). One of the prominent theorists of SCGT is Judith Butler who contributed greatly to the theory (Vogl and Baur 2018; Purwanto and Hariri 2020). Butler, a trained philosopher, contributed towards feminism and queer theory (Lorber 2001; Orfan et al. 2021). Butler argues that people see the world through self-made constructs or ideas about reality (Wood and Eagly 2015). The SCGT takes gender as a social construct and institution which has its origins in the development of culture which governs people, as opposed to biology or procreation (Joseph 2015). According to Lorber (2001), social construction of gender emanates from the general school of thought which is known as social constructionism (Wood 2013). This school of thought assumes that everything that people see or come to know as reality is socially constructed; hence the value of something becomes a reality because people would have ascribed value to it and because of this perspective, gender is, therefore, a social construct (Wood and Eagly 2015; Smith et al. 2019). This may be supported by the views that in institutions male staff who may be the perpetrators of sexual harassment on female students carry cultural beliefs that women depend on men economically; hence the female students are easily sexually harassed (Wood et al. 2021; Worke et al. 2021) Thus, the SCGT is a theory in feminism and sociology about the manifestation of cultural origins, mechanisms, and corollaries of gender perception, and expression in the context of interpersonal and group social interaction. I discuss its principles and application below.

3.2.1.1. Principles and Application of Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT)

The discussion of the principles and application of SCGT in understanding sexual harassment in institutions is underpinned by seven key assumptions: gender discrimination; normalisation or internalisation of sexual harassment; male dominance; sexual objectification of women; use of derogatory language; rape or sexual violence; and socio-economic inequalities.

First, gender discrimination between men and women in society is learned behaviour through socialisation (Lorber 2001; Guizzo and Cadinu 2020). According to Butler (1994), from the perspective of the SCGT, the behaviour of men and women is not natural but is constructed and reinforced by culture. Thus, in this study sexual harassment perpetrators who may be college lecturers and other staff may discriminate and look down upon female students due to the social position in communities which elevates men over women (Natchi and Mohelska 2020; The World Bank 2013). In the same vein Lorber (2001) argues that culture is a product of human interaction which one acquires from birth and it is used in society to rank a person which, therefore, creates social differences which may also be called social stratification (Lorber 2001 in Vogl and Baur 2018).

According to Schneider et al. (2005), SCGT regards gender roles as an achieved status within society which, therefore, implicitly and explicitly categorises individuals. Specifically, the SCGT stipulates that gender roles are an achieved 'status' in a social context, which, therefore, motivates social behaviours. The perception of feminists, therefore, is centred on establishing the relationship between ascribed status (assigned sex of being male and female) and the achieved status (being masculine and feminine) (Wood 2013). In other words, SCGT suggests that gender is socially constructed knowledge which is a result of socio-cultural influences. From this theory, gender begins at birth as the young child is assigned colours and toys according to his or her sex (Clawson and Gerstel 2014; Grunow and Baur 2014) and is learnt from schools, homes, peers, media, and society in general. The SCGT assumes that women's oppression or discrimination is located in the structure of society which promotes men over women where men are given critical roles and positions within the home and society at large (Bongiorno et al. 2020; Solbes-Canales et al. 2020).

In this study, the vulnerability of women student teachers in colleges is derived from the discrimination and positions they purport to occupy. This view is further explained by the SCGT proponents when they say gender identity and stereotyping that exist are influenced by socialisation that is given to people as they grow within their families, schools and society at large (Flemmen et al. 2017). From these perspectives, sexual harassment was found to be high in particular communities rather than others due to the values and norms shared (McCarthy et al. 2018). In this study, sexual harassment experiences of student teachers are likely to differ according to their institutions. Further, McCarthy et al. (2018) argue that the issue of socialisation differentiates people. Communities that continue to hold on to traditional gender perceptions have higher cases of gender violence than their more modern ones. It could be assumed that in the teacher training colleges explored, where men hold strong traditional and cultural gender perceptions, more cases of sexual harassment may be exhibited than in those sites where they do not hold such perceptions. In this case it could be surmised that sexual harassment behaviour is learnt from and exhibited in communities; on the other hand, it can also be unlearned through and within different communities. The difference in ethnicity, family values and history may also reflect differences in people's behaviour and perceptions (Flemmen et al. 2017). In short, it can be deduced that gender is learnt or constructed, internalised, and exhibited by people within that community (Flemmen et al. 2017) which, therefore, may explain why sexual harassment may be experienced more in certain communities or contexts than in others.

In Kenya gender is a structural feature within society which enables society to control its members (Ashraf 2018). Thus, in teacher training colleges the issue of gender as a structural feature within college communities may be portrayed by the way student teachers, especially female students, are pressured into sexual relationships. This, therefore, implies that any behaviour displayed by the members of any

community reflects the beliefs, norms and attitudes shared within that society (Vogl and Baur 2018). As such sexual harassment behaviour portrayed in some teacher training colleges reflects beliefs, norms and attitudes shared by members in those college communities. Thus, members within a certain community can be categorised according to cultural beliefs, norms and values about gender (Bongiorno et al. 2020). Categorisation of a person according to his or her gender gives rise to prejudice and discrimination which makes men be labelled and viewed as superior to women (Ashraf 2018).

Secondly, normalisation of sexual harassment is another assumption which makes women prone to experiencing sexual harassment according to Kellie (2019). Solbes-Canales et al. (2020) argue that sexual harassment behaviour is learnt through socialisation within one's community. They further argue that women "accept" to be sexually harassed through the process of normalisation of sexual harassment. In this case, student teachers take sexual harassment as a normal phenomenon because of the cultural practices they are "taught" or which they may pick up within the college communities. This view is supported by Karami et al. (2021) who argue that normalisation of sexual harassment involves minimising sexual harassment so that it appears acceptable in the community people live in. The view is further supported by McCarthy et al. (2018) who assert that through internalising the values and norms of the society they live in women normalise and naturalise sexual harassment and it is reinforced by the learning institutions. In teacher training institutions victims of sexual harassment may, therefore, tend to ignore reporting since they would have accepted sexual harassment as a natural and normal way of life in those colleges.

The subordination of women and lack of respect within male dominated communities have made women fail to challenge sexual harassment situations that they experience (Choo and Ping 2021). Having internalised an inferiority complex from the socialisation that they receive throughout their lives, women blame themselves for being sexually harassed and, consequently, normalise it (Kellie 2019). From the SCGT, the inferiority complex attached to women demonstrates how society creates social inequalities between men and women from birth to death (Vogl and Baur 2018). This view, therefore, implies that society due to its socialisation makes women accept that they are of inferior status to men. In relation to female student teachers in this study, it may imply that those who may have accepted sexual harassment as natural may not openly complain about the harassment for fear of being blamed, and also for fear of further discrimination. In addition, Wood and Eagly (2015) point out that the culture of silence ingrained in women and female students alike by society makes it very difficult if not impossible for them to challenge male lecturers, more so where inequalities between them exist. In teacher training colleges, sexual harassment can be experienced continuously by the student victims without them raising the alarm about the oppressive behaviour perpetrated on them. The above view could be one of the reasons why the prevalence of sexual harassment is high in some teacher training colleges.

The third principle of the SCGT relates to male dominance (Wood and Eagly 2015). From the SCGT, dominance of men in society and communities perpetuates sexual harassment (Vogl and Baur 2018). In relation to my study, such male dominance may exist in teacher training colleges which then influence how male staff and lecturers treat female students. In this case, the authority of men is given precedence over women which, therefore, creates a scenario of power dynamics within the community (Vogl and Baur 2018). Sexual harassment in institutions may occur because it is practised simply for men to exhibit their patriarchal masculinities and keep women in their subordinate positions due to possession of less power (Ashraf 2018). In support Martinez et al. (2018) assert that gender attitudes give rise to treating women negatively, reflecting a picture that they are unfavourable. In other words, gender discrimination is a form of sexism where men use bias in treating women, thus, the behaviour reflects stereotyped beliefs against women (Pennsylvania State University 2020). Discrimination of women is reflected in literature (Choo and Ping 2021) which indicates that sexual harassment is perpetrated more on female students than their male counterparts because of the issue of gender discrimination which exists in learning institutions. This is consistent with understandings that in patriarchal communities, men have little respect for women because women are regarded as occupying a lower status than men, and these women could easily be harassed (Ruzzante et al. 2021). In Zimbabwe teacher training colleges this could be one of the factors contributing to the high prevalence of sexual harassment of female student teachers.

According to Cannon and Buttell (2016), authorities in many organisations take advantage of their subordinates, especially women due to their low social positions, to sexually abuse them. Drawing on the SCGT, Kgatla (2020) claimed that patriarchy has dominated the mind of humanity from time immemorial, according unlimited powers to men while suppressing the position of women. In my study, student teachers, especially female students because of their lower level than lecturers and other staff, may bear the brunt of being the victims of sexual harassment. Further, Cannon and Buttell (2016) argue that the abuse of authority by men through sexually harassing women is just an extension of male dominance in society and is done to express power and control over women. Therefore, from this perspective, sexually harassing student teachers may be due to male dominance in these teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Hamel (2014), with reference to the SCGT, notes that male dominance in most organisations is the main culprit in making women in lower job positions vulnerable to male sexual harassment.

Another form of male dominance from the SCGT relates to the cultural belief of hegemonic masculinity. Hegemonic masculinity implies masculine identity and power that men wield which ‘must never’ be contested by the dominated and the devalued (women) (Gordon 2018). Nicholasa (2019), drawing on the SCGT, notes that hegemonic masculinity legitimises the dominant position of men while justifying women’s subordination. Further, hegemonic masculinity generates hierarchical domination which puts

women below men in society. Thus, sexual harassment in organisations and colleges might be linked to hegemonic masculinity. According to Cannon and Buttell (2016), authorities in many organisations take advantage of their subordinates, especially women due to their low social positions, to sexually abuse them. In my study, while student teachers would not be subordinates, students are always at a lower level than their lecturers and other staff. This lower position of students within learning institutions makes them prone to sexual abuse by lecturers. Further, Cannon and Buttell (2016) argue that abuse of authority by men through sexually harassing women is just an extension of male superiority in society and is done to express power and control over women. Such abuse of power may be a factor contributing to sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Further, hegemonic masculinity is supported by Mawodza (2019) who argues that cultural practices like sexual dalliance, for instance, have been accepted in society without women questioning it. Practices like polygamy and promiscuity by men have also been normalised, which may promote the prevalence of sexual harassment of female student teachers by male staff. Due to this hegemonic masculinity privilege, men enjoy undeserved rights and privileges (Nicholasa 2019).

Fourth, the SCGT suggests that men sexually objectify women (Crowley 2021). Lennon and Johnson (2018) view objectification as a situation where individuals, mostly women, are reduced to the level of objects for sexual enjoyment as opposed to being treated as human beings with human rights. Sexual objectification of women is a man's behaviour which gives rise to treatment of women as sexual objects. Men justify this attitude as emanating from the way women dress which men allege is sexually suggestive or provocative bringing about their sexual harassment (Mawere 2021). From the SCGT perspective, men take the way women dress as a form of communication that they are looking for someone to be intimate with (Lennon and Johnson 2018). Women, on the other hand, have internalised the issue of sexual objectification especially when they experience sexual harassment without objection (Szymanski et al. 2011). In some institutions, cases of students who are involved in quip pro quo where they are lured into sexual relations in return for some financial gains, could be some of the indicators that this form of abuse is sexual objectification. According to Joseph (2015), women experience high cases of sexual harassment in institutions that have a culture of treating them as objects of the male sexual prerogative. Therefore, this view clearly shows that the behaviour of being sexually abusive is a learnt aspect which differs from one community to another or from organisation to organisation in different countries (Mawere 2021).

Fifth, another SCGT perspective suggests that prejudice against women can be shaped by the use of language one is taught or one acquires through socialisation (DeFranza and Mishra 2020). From this perspective, the assumption is that derogatory language is used as a way of belittling women in society (Kellie 2019). Sexual derogatory language is the use of expressions that portray a negative image of a person because they are not given the same status as those making such derogatory remarks (Mapuranga

et al. 2015; Subasi 2020). In other words, such language may be used on female student teachers by male lecturers and other staff because they may be viewed as not occupying the same status as those male lecturers and other male staff. According to Femlee et al. (2020) the use of sexist slurs (offensive sexual language), like “bitch” “slut” or “whore”, against women is aimed at reinforcing traditional feminine norms and stereotypes. Such language may also be used on the female student teachers to exhibit the differences between perpetrators of sexual harassment and the victims. In support of the above view, the use of negative sexual terms which are meant to bully women reflects less respect attached to them in patriarchal societies (Brownmiller 2013; Burlet et al. 2018;). Femlee et al. (2020) also indicate that the use of sexual derogatory language is meant to humiliate, intimidate and discriminate the victim, who is normally a female student, so that a hostile environment is created for them. Female student teachers may be the more affected group of learners than male students because of the way society views women.

Sixth, one of the assumptions of the SCGT relates to rape or sexual violence, which this theory regards as a serious violation of human rights and a crime against women or men. Again, from the SCGT, often when victims report, they are not taken seriously, are demeaned, or blamed for that harassment. This type of sexual violence or rape is perpetrated mostly on women rather than men (Hamel 2014). SCGT attributes this to social inequalities between men and women in communities which give rise to the social construction of violence (Putri and Suyanto 2021). Further, Putri and Suyanto (2021) view the social construction of violence as a social construct rooted in the structure and culture shared by people within a society. In other words, violent sexual harassment behaviour towards women, like rape, portrays male superiority and oppression of women. According to Stabile et al. (2019) when women, in particular, report rape, many times they are not believed: instead they are treated like the accused judging by the nature of interrogation that they go through. This behaviour by law enforcement agents is also a reflection of male superiority where men try to protect their colleagues while ignoring and suppressing the abused women (Hamel 2014). The lack of support for sexual harassment victims viewed from the SCGT relates to the negative attitude of men to women (Fitzgerald 2020; Martinez et al. 2018). This lack of empathy from men due to their dominance has been blamed as another factor contributing to continued sexual harassment of students in institutions (Adusule et al. 2020; Bongiorno et al. 2020). The behaviour of men forcing themselves on women, from the SCGT demonstrates their patriarchal masculinities where they treat women with no respect. Williams and Walfield (2015) point out that rape is committed against the wish of the female or male victim.

Drawing on the SCGT, sexual violence is found in gender norms and relations whether at individual level or community level (Ogunmosunle 2012). Putri and Suyanto (2021) add that recent research has shown an increase in rape and sexual violence against women by men. Given these views, in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe, incidences of rape and sexual violence and the harassment of female

student teachers in general by male lecturers and other staff, would not be surprising. Some literature (Gukurume 2021), in support of the view above, shows that female students in the teacher training colleges have been found to be the more common victims of sexual harassment compared to their male counterparts. Therefore, this suggests that sexual violence is more of a gender-based form of abuse because it affects more women than men (Mapuranga, et al. 2015; Walfield 2016).

Lastly, another (seventh) assumption from the SCGT is that society regards men as heads of families, and community leaders with more access to resources compared to women thereby foregrounding economic disparities (Fitzgerald 2020). As a result, men of higher socio-economic status take advantage of women to sexually harass them in return for economic gains. On the other hand, women are socialised to believe and accept that they must depend on men for their survival (Moyo and Dhliwayo 2019; Chimhenga et al. 2015). Consequently, men generally enjoy more economic opportunities than women within their communities. According to Moyo and Dhliwayo (2019), the historical socio-economic inequalities between men and women create vulnerability of women to sexual exploitation by men. Female student teachers particularly from poor economic backgrounds may be offered financial benefits and other gifts in order to give in to sexual harassment by economically powerful male staff and lecturers. This is supported by McDonald and Charlesworth (2019) who point out that economic disparity between women and men negatively influences women to become prone to sexual abuse. In the same vein Chinyoka and Mutamba (2020) argue that the tense political and economic environment in Zimbabwe has worsened the situation of female student teachers as the government of Zimbabwe has halted funding for tertiary education. Such a situation may force female students to succumb to sexual demands made by those who may be economically powerful.

3.2.1.2 Critique of the theory of SCGT

The SCGT has been criticised on some of its assumptions. According to Savelyev (2016) the SCGT is criticised for failing to accommodate multiculturalism which has transformed how people construct their knowledge because of civilisation. However, to counteract this, there have been shifts from gender inequality to gender equality in some communities due to transformation which has taken place. In addition, social and cultural positions of women and men have been changing because of globalisation regardless of the lack of acceptance of multiculturalism (Aktok 2012; Gustafsson 2017). This study embraced multiculturalism as culture would not be a consideration in sampling participants given the multiple-site case study design adopted where three different contexts (colleges) in different provinces were investigated. In addition, participants would be both male and female students and staff, hence, multiculturalism was accommodated.

Another criticism levelled against SCGT relates to its failure to view the influence of biological, physical and psychological facts of human nature on social behaviour and cultural factors (Slingerland 2008). The

theory views the innate factors in human nature as playing a causal role in construction of knowledge. Basically, the SCGT downplays or totally ignores other factors in knowledge construction (Slingerland 2008). However, given the diversity in the sites investigated and participants in this study, the diversity of biological, physical and psychological aspects of human nature where lecturers (male and female) and students (male and female) would participate, such aspects would be acknowledged and accommodated. Again, drawing data from participants through drawings to enable them to reveal what could not have been verbalised is an appreciation of the influence of biological, physical and psychological factors of human nature on social and cultural behaviour.

Having discussed the historical development, principles and application, and critique of the SCGT in the next section I discuss the Transaction Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC), the complementary theory adopted for this study.

3.3 Historical Background of Transaction Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC)

TMSC is the second theory which informs this study. In this section, first I briefly discuss the historical development of the TMSC theory. This is followed by a discussion of the key assumptions of this theory starting with stress and its effects on social, emotional, and academic behaviour. There follows appraisal and its two levels: primary and secondary appraisal. I then discuss assumptions linked to coping strategies where I begin by unpacking the concept of coping followed by a discussion of the two approaches to coping: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. Before the chapter summary, I summarise in tabular form the key assumptions of the TMSC theory.

3.3.1 TMSC Historical Development

Talks about coping emerged during the 1960s as a reaction to outcomes of the unsafe effects of stress on people's health (Forkman 2008). The major objective was to come up with factors that could possibly lessen the harmful effects of stress on personal health. Initially these factors were perceived as focused on the individual (Yusoff 2010), until Lazarus presented a proposal of a coping model grounded on interactions between a person and his or her situation.

Historically, stress originated from physics rather than from psychology (Frydenberg 2014). The term stress, in engineering refers to the effect of a mechanical force which places strain on an object (Farsani 2012). In physiological theories, stress focuses on arousal which may be witnessed on the organism under stress (Goh 2010). The response of the organism under stress may be modified through either attempting to fight or flee. However, in the event of stress persisting, there is a possibility of harm (Farsani 2012). Stresses can be physical, for example, extreme heat or cold, or can be psychosocial where one experiences it in relation to dysfunctional performance or having quarrels with close friends or family members

(Frydenberg 2011). Early researchers like Holmes and Rahe in the 1960s identified major life events as sources of stress (Folkman 2010).

From the TMSC theory, coping dates back to the time of the psychoanalysis movement in the 19th century and was eventually acknowledged as such in the 1970s and 1980s through the works of theorists like Lazarus and Folkman 1984, Pearlin and Schooler 1978, Billings and Moos 1984 and Kobasa 1979 (Folkman 2010). The TMSC theory was then developed around 1966 by Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman through a book called *Psychological Stress and the Coping Process*. Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman developed the theory over a number of years (Biggs et al. 2017).

Wagner et al. 2022 view the TMSC theory as a cognitive model which regards stress and coping as a process influenced by changing cognitive appraisals or evaluation of events. Further, the assumption is that a stressful event may trigger a primary appraisal process in which one evaluates the threat in relation to one's own cognitive resources or coping ability. According to Sawang et al. (2010), the theory postulates that the primary and secondary appraisal and coping strategies mediate the relationship between the stressor and the individual outcomes. The TMSC theory proponents regard coping as a transaction between a person, their environment, and the appraisal (Folkman 2010).

In this case coping is, therefore, a way of protecting one's mental and physical health from the harmful impact (Frydenberg 2011).

As highlighted earlier, sexual harassment has undesirable effects on the victim (Thapalia et al. 2020). If one is exposed to sexual harassment, particularly student teachers, their lives may become miserable. Mishra and Lamichane (2018) point out that for female students, sexual harassment may be a real source of mental stress which might make them lose control of their lives. In other words, when one is confronted by stress one may see the situation as threatening to one's life (Vyasa 2018). Depending on the severity of the effect of stress on the individual, victims are more often than not likely to select different ways of coping so as to manage their negative scenario (Babore et al. 2020). This study wanted to establish how victims of sexual harassment handled the stress from their ordeals. The next section focuses on stress.

3.3.2. Stress

Stress from the TMSC theory is one of the effects that negatively impacts victims in organisations and other institutions (Goh 2010). Devi et al. (2019) point out that stress is a state of disharmony within an individual which is influenced by some adverse forces that may be intrinsic or extrinsic, perceived or real. In this study, it is understood as an unpleasant state of emotional and physiological condition experienced by victims of sexual harassment. Sexual harassment in teacher training colleges is regarded

as a serious source of stress for the victims of this phenomenon (Vyasa 2018). In other words, stress is a situation where a person feels oppressed and overwhelmed about their prevailing situation. Stress, therefore, reflects a sign of imbalance in the demands someone is facing in relation to their coping skills or coping ability.

Minimum stress which is called eustress is positive stress because it encourages one to work harder to achieve something positive, to overcome the stress; on the other hand, negative stress is referred to as distress (Devi et al. 2019). Distress can be viewed as an imbalance between the demands and the available resources (Rovira et al. 2016). This study is interested in negative stress which can lead to dangerous consequences and can be life threatening to the victim if not properly managed (Goh 2010). Throughout this study, negative stress is referred to as stress in the discussion. Given that the study wanted to understand how victims of sexual harassment cope with the effects of stress, the TMSC theory was appropriate. The severity of the negative effects on the victims may be determined by how they are affected by the stress (Worke et al. 2023). Proponents of TMSC theory, as alluded to above, believe that stress is a relationship (transaction) between a person and their environment which is appraised or evaluated by the person as unbearable or exceeding their coping resources (Lazarus and Folkman 1984 in Wolfers and Schneider 2021).

Therefore, victims of sexual harassment may endure a variety of stress-related effects which may be social, emotional, and psychological or academic which I discuss next.

3.4. Effects of sexual harassment on the victims

3.4.1 Social Effects

Social effects of stress imply negative consequences that victims endure when interacting with their social environment (Simpson 2018). In support, Fitzgerald and Cortina (2018) claim that people who experience stress due to sexual harassment at their organisations suffer from social effects as they feel isolated and ashamed. Further, some sexually harassed victims may endure lack of trust from their friends and family as they may be accused of inviting sexual harassment upon themselves. Literature (Milchev and Binder 2019) shows that victims of sexual harassment can be affected socially by stigmatisation and discrimination. Due to the effects of stigma and discrimination following sexual harassment, victims may also suffer from rejection by their significant others. This may make them feel very lonely and unsupported (Simpson 2018; Zoellner et al. 2020). In the case of student teachers in teacher training colleges, victims of sexual harassment may suffer certain social consequences after experiencing sexual harassment. According to MacLaughlin et al. (2016) sexual harassment creates a toxic environment for the victims in learning institutions who may find their social life hostile. Sexual harassment may also affect the victims emotionally.

3.4.2 Emotional effects

Emotions are feelings and instincts within an individual, consequently, victims of sexual harassment are bound to have emotional challenges when they experience this phenomenon (Burn (2019). The TMSC theory shows that victims of sexual harassment who are affected emotionally may feel vulnerable, degraded, and offended by the effects of the encounter. In addition, the victims may feel trapped as they struggle to come to terms with the effects of sexual harassment. Mutiso and Mutie (2018) add that when someone is sexually harassed they suffer from feelings of humiliation, fear and anger. Others may even suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) which may be life threatening if not managed appropriately (Langer 2017). Emotional experiences may haunt the victims in the short term or long-term. Burn (2019) further says that victims of sexual harassment may suffer from being susceptible to depressive symptoms which may be long term. Such emotional effects could be experienced by sexual harassment victims in teacher training colleges.

3.4.3 Academic Effects (Psychological effects)

Another assumption of the TMSC theory is that stress can affect how a sexually harassed individual in a learning institution or workplace performs (Rothman et al. 2019). In this regard, Rothman et al. (2019) explain that when sexually harassed students are affected academically, they may develop low interest or negative attitude towards the subjects taught by their abuser and may end up absconding from those lectures. Eventually their performance may take a nose dive. In the same vein Molstad et al. (2021) assert that sexual harassment may negatively affect a victim's grades in colleges or universities as victims often fail assignments, and examinations due to stress. In the work environment workers have been recorded as performing dismally or contemplating leaving their jobs (Langer 2017). In this study, it would not be surprising to find similar effects on student teachers' academic performance following sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges. The next section discusses stress appraisal as another assumption of the TMSC theory.

3.4.4 Appraisal

Ferrer et al. (2021) defines appraisal as involving evaluation of an event in order to find the significance, implications or meaning. Individuals differ in the way they judge or assess challenges that they meet daily (Lazarus and Folkman 1984). Further, from the TMSC theory, one's reaction or response to an event is determined by how one perceives it (Puigbo et al. 2018). Thus, in this study, the individual victims of sexual harassment either in the same or different teacher training college may view, react, or be affected by stress differently. Ferrer et al. (2021) suggest that appraisal comes in two forms: primary and secondary appraisal. These forms of appraisal are discussed below.

3.4.4.1 Primary Appraisal

Drawing on the TMSC theory primary appraisal is the first stage in the process of cognitive appraisal which relates to the way people react to stressors they face (Man et al. 2020). During primary appraisal of an event or stress, one may evaluate it based on how relevant the event is to one and the likely effect the event may have on one (Zheng et al. 2020). The outcome of this evaluation determines the categorisation of the event based on how one reacts to it. From TMSC theory, the primary appraisal can be divided into three forms (Ferrer et al. 2021). The first level is irrelevant as the event may not have any significance to the individual, the second is the benign-positive because the outcome may emit pleasurable emotions while the third form is stressful as it is characterised by harm and threats (Ferrer et al. 2021). Some cases of sexual harassment that student teachers face may not emit negative effects on them if they regard them as either irrelevant or harmless. However, incidents that are threatening or harmful or overwhelming to the life of students in colleges which fall under the third form of appraisal would require that they seek psychosocial support from family, friends or authorities to cope with the stress. In support of this view Silinda (2018) argues that coping strategies are engaged to help the victim in this scenario to overcome those challenges, hence the secondary appraisal is engaged to examine the resources available.

3.4.4.2 Secondary appraisal

According to Puigbo et al. (2018), Secondary appraisal deals with the resources available in order to cope with the stressor(s). TMSC theory shows that when someone evaluates an event as a threat, it means he or she would have labelled the situation as harmful to them (Ferrer et al. 2021). Secondary appraisal depends on how much the victim can control the situation they may be suffering from and whether or not they have the requisite resources. In the TMSC theory, secondary appraisal may also rely on memory of how a similar scenario was addressed earlier by the victim or by others (Babore et al. 2020). Some stresses, like positive stress or eustress as highlighted above, present an opportunity to make someone work harder to defeat the stress. In this study, cases of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges could affect both male and female students but at different levels. However, it must be noted that the moment harassment is regarded as posing danger to the life of the victim, one starts to actively seek for coping strategies. Literature (Frydenberg 2014) shows that secondary appraisal provides a person with an opportunity to decide on the appropriate coping strategy and resources to manage the immediate stress situation. Coping is discussed below.

3.4.5 Coping

According to Mahmmodbad et al. (2014) coping arises when appraisal or evaluation of an event shows that demands of that situation are beyond the ability of the victim. In other words, it depends on results of the appraisal whether the stress is important or harmful (Primary appraisal) and whether the resources

are available to tackle the stress (Secondary appraisal) (Lazarus 1991 in Frydenberg 2014). From the TMSC theory, coping occurs unconsciously and automatically in two dimensions: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping (Folkman and Moskowitz 2000). Therefore, the main roles of coping are to change the environment of the person (problem-focused coping) and/or influence the emotions of the person (emotion-focused coping) (Zheng et al. 2020). In this study, student teachers who experience stress from sexual harassment are likely to use either of the two coping strategies depending on appropriateness of the strategy. Kellie (2019) submits that students in learning institutions may choose coping strategies which they view as favourable and effective to fight stress from the sexual harassment perpetrated on them. In the next section I discuss the coping strategies.

3.4.5.1 Coping Strategies

According to Smith et al. (2017) coping strategies are the behaviours, thoughts and emotions that one adopts to cope with changes in one's life. They may be understood as a series of actions taken to respond to and alleviate stress, to ensure realisation of positive outcomes. In other words, due to overwhelming stress often affecting victims of sexual harassment, coping mechanisms are required to manage that stress. The TMSC theory proposes two main coping strategies to manage threatening environments: problem-focused coping and emotion-based coping which includes psychosocial intervention and avoidance (Gross 2015; Smith et al. 2016).

3.4.5.1.1 Problem-Focused Coping

This form of coping attempts to alter the stressful situation using various means (Stevens and Dillman 2016; Thomas et al 2022). The TMSC theory shows that problem-based coping is adopted when someone is faced with dangerous, threatening and opposing situations (Minchekar 2017). This strategy involves taking steps to change the source of stress: thus, one tries to eliminate the stressor through problem solving mechanisms (Bonanno and Burton 2013). The TMSC theory indicates that the aim of problem-focused coping is to alter the scenario on the ground and improve the mental health of the victim of stress. This method of coping enhances feelings of control and reduces the stress and its adverse consequences on the victim (Minchekar 2017). In teacher training colleges, victims may report the perpetrator to the authorities or may be assertive to boldly challenge the abuser to stop the harassment. However, it may be different in institutions considering the status of the student against that of the lecturer or any other staff who may be socially and economically higher than the student teacher (Segerstrom and Smith 2019). In this study, victims of sexual harassment may adopt a problem-focused coping strategy where they report cases to people in authority. Quick and MacFadyen (2017) concur that if the victims inform people in authority, justice can be sought regarding the sexual harassment perpetrated on them. However, in the context of this study student teachers would need to be very brave to report the sexual harassment so that it can be controlled (Siddiqui et al. 2020).

Reporting sexual harassment as a problem-focused strategy can help trap the perpetrator so that measures can be taken by the authorities. According to Gradus (2017), this method of coping or resolving the problem, allows victims to face their stressor head-on and resolve the problem permanently. Gradus (2017) further argues that it is when the victims are empowered through assertive training that they may be able to resist sexual harassment through reporting the perpetrator to authorities. In the case of student teachers, reporting the harassment could be made to the college deans, wardens or counsellors to put a stop to it. This view is supported by Lindqvist et al. (2016) who argue that reporting by students of sexual harassment to sexual harassment advocacy like college counsellors or even college nurses or deans of students, facilitates a quick resolution to the root cause of the harassment. Further, Starzynski and Ullman (2014) note that on campus support is often effective in mitigating trauma and other stress-related conditions which may result from sexual harassment perpetrated on the students. Thus, problem-focused coping is a proactive mechanism which could bring a more permanent solution to several stresses caused by sexual harassment (Kim et al. 2021). The discussion in the next section focuses on the emotion-based coping strategy.

3.4.5.1.2 Emotion–Based Coping

Stevens and Dillman (2016) define emotion-based coping as a mechanism used to manage all forms of emotional distress including feeling of depression, anxiety, frustration and anger. TMSC theory assumes that the emotion-based coping strategy is directed at the emotions which are evoked by the stressful incidents or phenomena as opposed to the real stress evoking scenario (Shneider et al. 2018; Raypole 2020). Further, Gross (2015) asserts that individuals who employ an emotion focused coping style tend to make themselves feel better without confronting the source of the stressor. The method, therefore, only reduces the symptoms of the problem without directly addressing the problem (Ganster and Rosen 2013; Ubels et al. 2022; Lazarus 1999). From the TMSC, psychological therapy and psychosocial support are some of the emotion-based coping strategies that help to alleviate stress and other health conditions which are related to emotional stress (Delhom et al. 2020). In support of the above, psychosocial support to victims of sexual harassment helps them to manage their negative emotions and assists them to cope well with the stress-induced challenges from the sexual incident (Smith et al. 2016). Psychosocial support is one approach to emotion-based coping.

Sharing with Others

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984) in Gradus (2017) emotion based-coping can enable victims to cope with stress. Emotion-based coping involves sharing sexual harassment difficulties (stresses) with their significant others who may be peers, friends, spouses or family members. According to Banovcinova and Baskoa (2016), a significant other is an individual who has great influence on the other person emotionally. Significant others are, therefore, people who have emotional interdependence with

each other hence their influence on the well-being of the victim is immense (Nguyen et al. 2018; Raypole 2020). From the TMS theory, sharing with trusted people is therapeutic; as the victims may be assisted to cope with the stress or challenge they are facing (Okunlola et al. 2020). In the case of student teachers in teacher training colleges, significant others could be their friends, peers and close family members like parents and siblings.

This kind of psychosocial support helps victims of sexual harassment to develop confidence in managing their negative emotions (Rehr and Nguyen 2022). Sharing with close family members in the case of students may not only help the victim to deal with stress, but also help them fight anxiety, depression and loss of motivation in their academic work and in social life (Cesario 2020). Another form of emotion-based coping strategy which may be adopted by victims of sexual harassment is counselling.

Counselling

According to Kabir (2017) counselling is a relatively short term, interpersonal and theory-based process which is meant to assist a person to resolve their situational problems. The TMS theory assumes that counselling may facilitate behavioural and emotional change by enhancing coping strategies of the affected person (Nguyen et al. 2018). The counsellor, therefore, helps the client to clarify certain misconceptions so that some emotions and attitudes affecting an individual are sorted out (Kabir 2018). In other words, professional counselling deals with assisting people to resolve their difficulties and formulate new ways of behaving, feeling and thinking so that they operate optimally as before.

Drawing on the TMS theory, counselling is important in changing the perception of the victim so that they look at their situation in a positive way. For example, victims who receive counselling are able to fight post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) better (Cowan et al. 2020). In the scenario of sexually harassed student teachers, counselling helps students to cope after the ordeal. Despite the benefits derived from counselling to cope with stress, some victims may choose an avoidance coping strategy.

Avoidance coping

Avoidance coping is a passive coping strategy where an individual disengages from the stressor in an active manner in coping with stress. From the TMS theory this avoidance strategy implies that an individual turns away from the stressor (Rehr and Nguyen 2022). Further, Bonnano and Burton (2013) indicate that avoidance involves avoiding direct active engagement with the source of stress in order to evade facing the real problem. The emphasis in this coping strategy is that the victim hides away from directly facing their source of stress. In other words, the sexually harassed victim pretends as if nothing has happened or as if there is no stress by simply avoiding facing the stressor. Several strategies may be adopted and used as temporary measures to take the mind off the stress. For example, the student may

abscond from lectures conducted by their harasser, may isolate themselves from the group, use denial techniques or may avoid meeting the harasser by changing their usual route to the lecture room. This is consistent with ideas of Dube et al. (2021) who point out that students in tertiary education hide away from directly facing the stress and may, therefore, not report cases of sexual harassment. This may be due to guilt, shame, embarrassment, or fear of retaliation by the perpetrators. In the case of teacher training colleges, where students may be harassed by lecturers and other staff, they may adopt this avoidance coping strategy for reasons suggested by Dube et al. (2021).

Despite the temporary usefulness or benefits (for example, relieving one from a stressful situation temporarily) derived from keeping quiet or engaging in avoidance coping, the strategy is associated with maladaptive or behavioural disengagement, denial, self-blame, self-distraction or substance abuse (Morganson and Major 2014). Silence, for example, as a strategy to avoid disclosure of incidents of sexual harassment has been reported as a source of negative outcomes (Fernando 2018 Nielsen and Shapiro 2009). Both avoidance and silence are temporary measures which have a tendency of exacerbating stress as they do not give rise to permanent solutions to the problems. Avoidance is, therefore, not an effective coping strategy to address effects of sexual harassment as it lacks the necessary ability to eradicate the problem completely.

In the next section, in Tabular form I give a summary of the key tenets of the TMCS theory: Stress, appraisal, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, coping, problem-focused (based) coping and emotion focused (based) coping.

Table 3.1 Summary of key principles of TMSC

Key Tenet	Explanation
Stress	<i>A state where one's coping resources are overwhelmed or there is an imbalance between one's coping resources and the demands of the situation.</i>
Appraisal	<i>Evaluation /assessment of an event/situation (stress).</i>
Primary Appraisal	<i>Evaluation of the significance of an event or the stress, determination and/or whether the encounter is irrelevant, benign, or stressful.</i>
Secondary Appraisal	<i>Evaluation and decision on how to deal with a stressful situation(s).</i>
Coping	<i>Strategies for dealing with a stressful event/scenario (sexual harassment).</i>
Problem-Focused (based) Coping	<i>Strategy for dealing directly with the source of the stressor.</i>
Emotion-Focused (based) Coping	<i>Strategy for handling a stressful situation by modifying or altering one's emotions.</i>

3.5 Critique of the TMSC

The TMSC theory has been criticised for lack of clarity on how to test the stress-levels due to the subjective and complex nature of stress. In addition, the theory fails to give clarity on how to identify factors that determine stress. However, in this study, the combination of interviews and drawings adopted would help to understand the extent to which different individuals were affected by stress following sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges. The use of drawing would help to extract the hidden feelings of stress which individuals would not have been able to verbalise thereby exploring both the multiplicity and the complex human experience hidden from the public. Horne et al. (2017) concur that drawing as a method of data generation has the advantage of offering an opportunity for the researcher to access data which the victim of sexual violence may suppress and repress in the conscious mind during interaction.

3.6 Chapter Summary

This theoretical framework chapter discussed the two theories adopted to guide this study: the SCGT and TMSC theory. The incorporation of the two theories was justified in the chapter introduction. Having discussed the historical development of the SCGT, its principles, and application, and its critique, as well as measures to minimise the effects of weaknesses on the findings, the second part discussed the TMSC theory. Following a discussion of the historical background of the TMSC theory, I then outlined some of the ways victims of sexual harassment are affected: socially, emotionally, and academically (psychologically). The key tenets of the TMSC theory are then discussed before they are summarised and captured in a table, followed by a critique of the theory.

In the next chapter, I describe the Research Design and Methodology that I followed in generating data to address the research questions set out in Chapter One.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This study explored the unheard voices of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges. I discussed the theoretical framework which informed this study in Chapter Three: Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC).

This study addresses the key research question: *What are the pre-service teachers' experiences of sexual harassment, their ways of coping and factors that contribute to the prevalence of the phenomenon in some teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe?*

Drawing from this key question, the following subsidiary questions were developed:

1. What are the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in some teacher training colleges?
2. How do pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?
3. What factors contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?

This chapter discusses the methodology that was adopted to find answers to the subsidiary questions. The chapter begins by discussing the philosophical orientations that frame the research. This is followed by the research design where case study and multiple-site case study are discussed followed by the qualitative research approach. Thereafter, population and sampling are outlined where purposive and convenience sampling designs are discussed. I also outline the steps that I took in accessing my participants, which is followed by piloting. Subsequently, I discuss how data were generated through face-to-face interviews and drawings. I then describe step by step the way I analysed my data. The four elements of trustworthiness – credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability – which enhanced the rigour in my study are also highlighted. Ethical considerations observed throughout the study are then discussed, as well as the major limitations of this study and the strategies I took to minimise the negative effects of these limitations. Finally, the chapter summary is presented. The next section addresses the research paradigms and the philosophical assumptions of the study.

4.2 Research Paradigms

According to Siddiqui (2019:254) “a research paradigm can be defined as a collection of logically related assumptions, concepts or propositions that orient thinking and research”. This, therefore, implies a cluster of beliefs and assumptions, and dictates which influence how the researcher conducts his or her research. In other words, a paradigm reflects what can be described as the philosophical position of the researcher about how he or she intends to carry out his or her research. Basically, a paradigm means one's

beliefs about the world around him or her, the researcher's philosophical way of thinking (Saunders et al. 2019; Macnee and MacCable 2008). Kivunja (2017) argues that the word paradigm was first used by an American philosopher, Thomas Kuhn, implying *philosophical way of thinking*, which in Greek also means *pattern*. However, in educational research, the word paradigm describes the worldview of the researcher, of their thinking, school of thought or shared beliefs that guide them towards generating and interpreting their data (Kamal 2019). A paradigm can, therefore, be interpreted as the researcher's beliefs about the world he or she wishes to be in (their research) which encompasses the principles that they hold (Saunders et al. 2019). Mukeredzi (2016) points out that a paradigm is a body of knowledge, a model or frame of reference, a set of assumptions that forms some background for understanding a given phenomenon, pointing the way to where to look for answers to the key research question. In this study, a paradigm, therefore, provides some supportive structure and/or beliefs that guided my research on student teachers' experiences of sexual harassment, their ways of coping and the factors that contribute to the prevalence of this phenomenon in teacher training colleges.

A paradigm as a framework, thus, provides some pointers to assumptions which guide the researcher through the research activities. The assumptions are related to epistemology, ontology, axiology and methodology which I discuss in the following section. These philosophical assumptions help one in coming to understand how the meaning of data can be formulated.

4.2.1 Epistemological Assumptions

The term epistemology originated from a Greek term '*episteme*' to mean knowledge (Rehman and Alharhi 2016). It explains how people acquire knowledge of something. In other words, how people come to know what they know (Mukeredzi 2016). This implies how people come to develop the truth and reality (Rahman 2017) of a phenomenon. Further to that, epistemology is concerned with the bases of knowledge in terms of the type of knowledge and the ways in which the knowledge is acquired and transmitted to other people. According to Rehman and Alharhi (2016), epistemology is a branch of philosophy which is responsible for studying knowledge, as well as how that knowledge is acquired and communicated to other people. While positivists believe that value is given on the importance of strict focus on pure data as well as fact, without considering the influence of one's interpretation (Scotland 2012), interpretivists reject people being studied like some objects of natural sciences. They argue that research must understand aspects in human beings from the contexts of the participants (Rehman and Alharhi 2016). In addition, epistemology refers to the relationship between the knower (researcher) and the knowable (researched), the relationship of researcher to that which they are inquiring into (Mukeredzi 2009). Mukeredzi (2009) further says epistemological assumptions would address such questions as, 'how do we come to know, where does the knowledge come from; what is its nature; what constitutes it; whose is it; what of it can be studied; understood and represented?'

Thus, from the location of my research in the interpretive framework, reality was a human creation based on experiences, perceptions, values and beliefs of the research participants, there was interaction with research participants in the process of knowledge/reality construction, the process of getting to know, of data generation (Mukeredzi 2009). My study on sexual harassment in some teacher training colleges, sought to elicit participants' experiences, perceptions, norms, values and beliefs related to sexual harassment. Therefore, there was no distance, there was a close relationship between the researcher and the researched, as knowing was through interaction with participants as data were generated by means of face-to-face interviews and drawings. My participants were able to provide data which reflected their subjective meanings, understanding and experiences of, as well as coping mechanisms with, sexual harassment within their colleges.

4.2.2 Ontological Assumptions

Ontology examines one's belief system about the existence of reality (Arifin 2018). It refers to the assumptions made that show us that something is real or it makes some sense (Scotland 2012). Ontological assumptions specify that which has to be studied and known about a phenomenon: they are the nature or essence of knowledge, the principle of existence, of pure being (Mukeredzi 2009). Ontology, thus, enables conceptualising the nature of reality and what the researcher believes in terms of the reality which may be known. Ontological assumptions influence the researcher's standpoint regarding reality, whether one views social reality aspects as given, external, objectively real, or one views knowledge/reality as socially constructed, subjectively experienced (subjective experiences of the external world) and then expressed through language (Mukeredzi 2009). These assumptions address questions related to whether reality is external to the researcher, given, objective and real or whether it is experienced, socially constructed and subjective (Creswell 2005; Mukeredzi 2009; Wellington et al. 2005). In other words, as Mukeredzi notes, ontological assumptions enable the researcher to define their position as it relates to knowledge development. Positivists would answer the ontological questions by alluding to the notion that reality is external, it is a 'given' and is objectively real, detached, and 'out there' in the world, awaiting observation and acquisition then accounted for and expressed objectively through statistical presentations (Mukeredzi 2016). The interpretivist ontological outlook, on the contrary, views reality or knowledge as socially constructed and subjectively experienced as it emanates from human thought and is expressed through language. In other words, ontological issues focus on the essence of knowledge or the phenomena under investigation and from the interpretive ontology reality is personal and, therefore, subjective and expressed through language, the thick descriptions. The ontological assumptions for my study, therefore, view knowledge as experientially based, a human creation which is socially constructed by actors (participants) in the research situation and is, therefore, subjective. In this study, as reality was subjective and socially constructed, it differed from person to person: the way my participants experienced, coped with and perceived sexual harassment within their

colleges differed, as did their interpretations and their thinking about contributory factors to sexual harassment. Consequently, through the use of face-to-face interviews and drawings I generated subjective data due to the different experiences and perspectives of participants, as well as diverse emotions and feelings that they went through. My view in this study is contrary to the positivists' who see reality as objectively real, external, and out there.

4.2.3 Axiological Assumptions

Axiological assumptions address the role of values in a study and ethical issues that must be considered when one is planning to carry out a study. Axiology also takes into consideration philosophical issues that may be vital for decision making (Rahman 2017). Axiology ensures that the researcher evaluates their behaviour in carrying out the study as right or wrong. Therefore, a good study must consider ethical issues, for example, giving value to human beings who are taking part in the study by respecting them and avoiding their exposure to harmful situations. According to (Rahman 2017), axiology is guided by four criteria: teleology, deontology, morality and fairness.

In addressing axiological assumptions, the researcher answers the question: what is the role of values? The qualitative researcher acknowledges that research is value laden and that there are some biases (Creswell 1998; Mukeredzi 2009). In other words, the researcher openly acknowledges and discusses values that shape the narrative, including their own interpretation in conjunction with that of the participants. Thus, the researcher admits the value-laden nature of data generated from the field and reports their own values and biases (Mukeredzi 2009; Bitsh 2005). As such, I openly declared my axiological assumptions in Chapter One. In this study, as the researcher was the major data generation instrument, their presence would be apparent in the text through the interpretation and presentation of data. My role as the researcher and the reduced distance with the researched in this study would have some implications for the axiological assumptions, the role of values, in the study. Thus, axiological assumptions work with the values of both the researcher and the researched. Values of participants are explored and analysed through their understanding of sexual harassment, their experiences of sexual harassment, their coping mechanisms, as well as factors that perpetuate sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe to determine how these influence their current position as student teachers.

In this study I ensured that several ethical considerations were adhered to: for example, I had to use pseudonyms to protect the identity of my participants. Sexual harassment being a sensitive issue, my participants required privacy hence I ensured that all the important ethical principles were provided so that there was integrity in my research study. Participants signed voluntary consent forms. Confidentiality and anonymity were maintained, beneficence non-maleficence, honesty and integrity were adhered to (Arifin 2018; Pieper and Thompson 2020).

4.2.4 Methodological Assumptions

Methodological assumptions are about how the researcher finds out whatever it is that he/she believes can be known, based upon prior epistemological assumptions. Mukeredzi (2009) points out that methodological assumptions consist of the assumptions made by the researcher regarding the methods and techniques used in the process of data generation to enable understanding of the phenomenon. Methodological assumptions broadly involve research design, methods, approaches and procedures which are employed during the research study (Cresswell 2014; Mohajan 2019). Here, this refers to the procedures that I used to understand or capture “insider” knowledge of the pre-service teachers’ experiences of sexual harassment, their ways of coping and factors that contribute to the prevalence of the phenomenon in teacher training colleges. In other words, methods, and strategies for data generation, sampling techniques, data analysis strategies including methods of enhancing rigour and ensuring ethical practice were all under methodological assumptions.

Methodology encompasses all that is required for the systematic process involved in conducting a study. Mukeredzi (2009:90) says epistemology and methodology are interdependent, “intimately related” one being the philosophy, the other the practice: epistemology is the theory of knowing while methodology is the practice of knowing. Mukeredzi further points out that methodology refers to the practice of knowing, how the researcher comes to know in a practical sense as opposed to epistemology, which deals with how we come to know in a philosophical sense. Thus, methodology in this study refers to the specific methods and techniques, i.e., interviews and drawings, employed for data generation to enable understanding the phenomenon. Methodology also includes the assumptions and choices made and limitations encountered as part of the aspects involved, as well as how the identified limitations were addressed to ensure the success of the study (Mukeredzi 2009). Therefore, methodology entails the roadmap followed by the researcher so that the answers to the research questions are obtained and the desired outcome is achieved. In this study specific methods like face-to-face interviews and drawings were employed to ensure generation of important data from the participants to address the research questions set out in Chapter One. Having discussed the methodological assumptions of this study, in the next section, I discuss the interpretive paradigm.

4.3 The Interpretive Paradigm

Generally, there are four major paradigms: positivist, critical, pragmatic and interpretive (Khatri 2020).

The positivist paradigm is the quantitative philosophical stance of a natural scientist’s viewpoint (Alharahsheh and Pius 2020; Matta 2021). Data are generated and analysed following quantitative

procedures (Kivunja and Kuyini 2017) and the paradigm assumes that reality is static, it is out there, and it is objective, and that the truth can be discovered (Saunders 2019). Given the focus of my study on pre-service teacher subjective experiences and coping mechanisms, this paradigm was not appropriate.

The critical paradigm deals with social injustices or oppression (Taylor and Medina 2013). It is also known as the transformative paradigm because it attempts to transform the social situation of the individual. The paradigm attempts to show that socio-historical knowledge may reproduce some form of structural inequality or oppression within the society which needs to be changed. However, people may wish to change their social and economic situation, but social, cultural and political domination may inhibit the changes which will lead to conflict within the modern society (Riyami 2015). Thus, the critical paradigm focuses on how people may be assisted to address such inequalities. Given that my study was concerned with sexual harassment experiences within teacher training colleges and not focused on solving social injustices within societies, the critical paradigm was unsuitable.

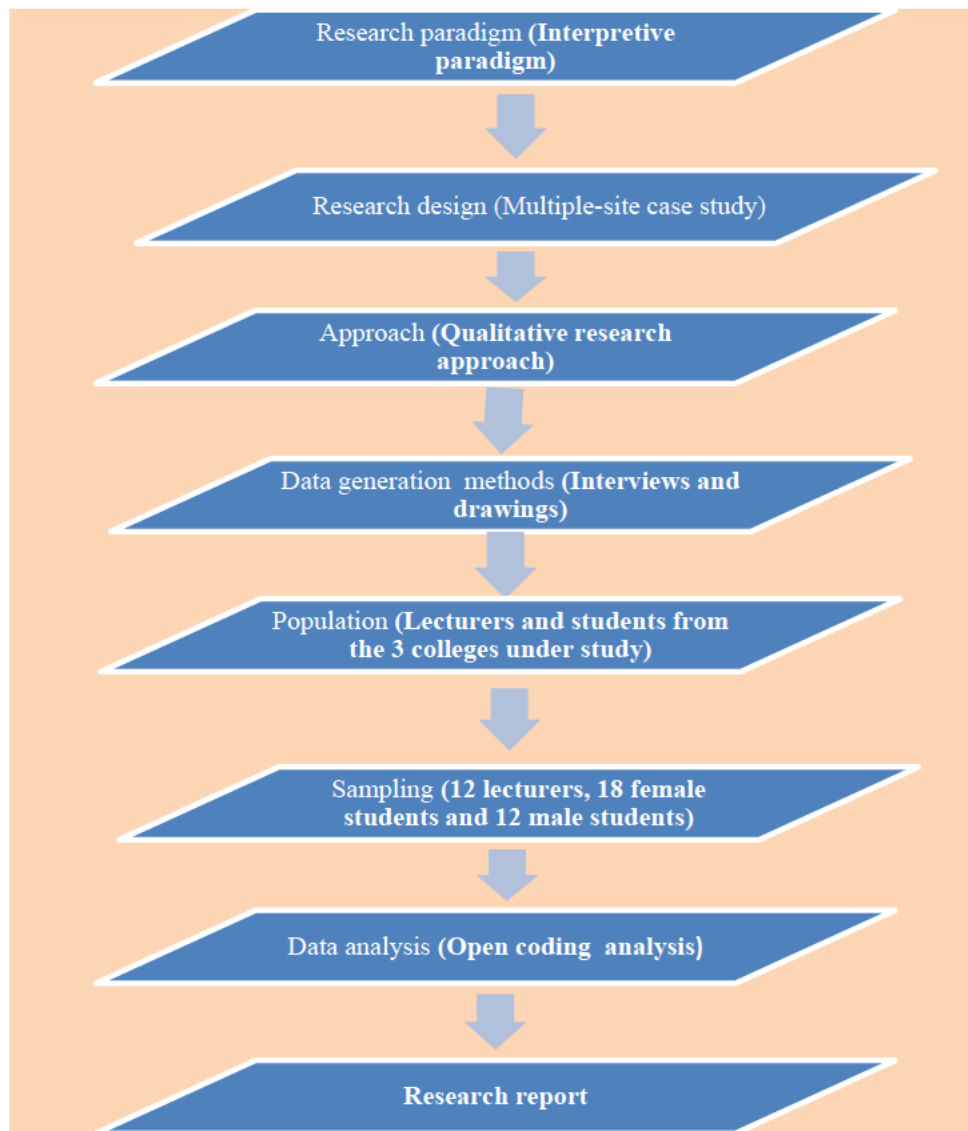
The pragmatic paradigm acknowledges that there is no one way of solving a problem, hence advocates the use of a mixed methods approach to undertake research challenging the conventional knowledge bases and methodologies (Saunders 2019). Unlike this pragmatic paradigm my ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions did not require positivist elements; therefore, this paradigm was inappropriate. I, therefore, adopted the interpretive paradigm aligned to my philosophical assumptions, to unearth the unheard voices of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges. The interpretive paradigm enables an in-depth understanding of a phenomena where sharing of experiences is enhanced within the natural and social contexts of the participants (Kivunja 2018). Alharahseh and Pius (2020) assert that the interpretive paradigm is qualitative in nature and it considers the subjective meanings, social understanding and the experiential aspects of participants in the research study. This study, based on understanding subjective meanings and experiences of sexual harassment of student teachers, their ways of coping and the contributory factors to sexual harassment, landed itself in the interpretive paradigm. Further, according to Kivunja (2017), the interpretive paradigm is interested in understanding the subjective world of human experience where effort is made to view the world from the perspective of the participants being studied. In this study, I sought to understand the subjective world of the experiences of pre-service teachers from their perspectives.

The interpretive paradigm assumes subjective epistemology where meaning of data is derived from the thinking of the researcher in relation to their interactions with the participants (Hammersey 2013; Klein and Martin 2019). Thus, to understand the sexual harassment experiences of student teachers and their coping mechanisms, I had to interact with them through interviews and drawings to pick up their thoughts and views.

From an interpretivist perspective, researchers tend to gain a deep understanding of the phenomenon and its complexity in its unique context instead of trying to generalise the base of understanding for the whole population (Creswell, 2007; Upagade and Shende 2010). In this study, the objective was to develop an in-depth understanding of the pre-service teachers' experiences of sexual harassment, their coping mechanisms and what factors perpetuated this evil in teacher training colleges. The intention was never to generalize but to understand the complexity of this phenomenon within the selected teacher training colleges. Pham (2018:4) further says the interpretive paradigm allows leveraging key methods, like interactive interviews, which "allow the researcher to investigate and prompt things that we cannot observe, researchers can probe an interviewee's thoughts, values, prejudices, perceptions, views, feelings and perspectives". This was the case in this study and valuable data were generated which provided me with good insights for making recommendations for further action later.

Pham (2018) points out that the interpretive paradigm accepts adopting diversified views to examine phenomena, and to deeply comprehend them in their social context utilising key methodologies, case study or life history, to gain an insider's insight into the research objects to provide more authentic information related to the object of research. In this study, different categories of participants were interviewed (female student teachers, male student teachers, lecturers and vice principals) to obtain diverse views about sexual harassment to deeply understand the phenomenon in the different colleges and so provide authentic data. This study adopted a case study design aligned to interpretivism. Different participants' experiences of sexual harassment were varied thus, I was able to accept the uniqueness of each participant's interpretation and views of sexual harassment within the teacher training colleges they were situated in. Below is a summary of the processes I undertook in carrying out my study.

Figure 4.1 Summary of the Design and Methodology



Source: Researcher 2022

In this study lecturers, as reflected later, encompass the vice principals, student deans, college counsellors and the wardens.

4.4 Research Design

A research design is generally defined as the plan, structure and strategy adopted by the researcher to achieve an intended goal in research. The research design specifies and anticipates the decision that will be taken when the investigation begins (Creswell 2014; Boru 2018).

Further, Wright (2016:97-98) in defining a research design argues that:

it refers to the overall strategy utilised to carry out research that defines a succinct and logical plan to tackle established research question (s) through the collection,

interpretation, analysis and discussion of data...The design of the study also defines how data is going to be collected or data collection methods.

A research design from the above definition implies a guide or plan followed by the researcher, using appropriate approaches and techniques to generate and analyse data and to interpret the data to answer research questions. Selection of a research design is influenced by the nature of data to be generated and how the researcher intends to analyse them. In this study, I adopted a case study design.

According to Yin (2014) a case study is an empirical inquiry into a contemporary phenomenon that is studied in depth and within its real social world context. In my study, sexual harassment a contemporary phenomenon, due to the recent wide spread of this scourge, needed to be investigated within the contexts in which it was occurring. Therefore, I generated data from the participants in their colleges – their social contexts. Cowell (2014) further regard case study as a research approach which can generate in-depth, multi-faceted understanding of complex issues in their natural context. Given the many definitions, the views and complexity of sexual harassment, the use of interviews and drawings that I adopted to generate data would enable in-depth understanding. A case study may include, for example, an intensive study of a person, family, organisation, community, culture or even country (Asenahabi 2019; Yin 2018). In this study, I intensively studied student teachers and lecturers. In this case study, the case that was under investigation was student teacher sexual harassment in three selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

Specifically, I adopted a multiple-site case study carried out in three sites (three colleges situated in Masvingo, Manicaland and Mashonaland provinces of Zimbabwe) to develop an in-depth understanding of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in these three selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

4.5 Multiple-site Case Study

According to Yin (2013), a multiple-site case study refers to a case study which contains more than a single case where diverse contexts and settings are studied so that relevant concepts are effectively explored. My study was conducted in three teacher training colleges: as such, a multiple-site case design was ideal to facilitate the exploration of a real-life issue through multiple sources of data (Heale and Twycroze 2018; Starman 2013). The choice of multiple sites was based on the understanding that sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in rural and urban settings, as well as sexual harassment cultures in church-run and government-run institutions may be different. In addition, it was assumed that sexual harassment in primary and secondary teacher training institutions would be different, hence the need to include multiple diverse sites of teacher training colleges. Further, the multiple-site case study design can facilitate a wider exploration of the research and theoretical evolution to understand the

differences and similarities of the research findings (Brink 2018). In other words, the wider exploration of the research question in multiple sites enables understanding of the differences and similarities in the data. Due to the fact that data are obtained from multiple sites, the researcher is able to make comparisons between and within sites (Creswell 2013). In my study, which was located in three different sites within different provinces, where cultural differences existed within the teacher training colleges, this enabled not only within the institution but also cross comparisons across colleges.

Wider exploration of research questions was due to replication of the study in three different sites, which is another advantage of this design (Brink 2018). Brink (2018) further argues that a multiple-site case study allows for the use of replication strategy which enables replication of data generation when the researcher selects similar cases for comparison of results. The inherent literal replication in the multiple-site case study increases the robustness and enhances the rigour of the research findings (Yin 2013).

The value of the multiple-site case study is also supported by Heale and Twycroze (2018) who assert that a multiple case study can examine complex issues in a holistic manner within the different contexts of the participants. In my study, given that the practice of qualitative case study research is reflexive and process driven, ultimately producing culturally situated and theory-enmeshed knowledge through an ongoing interplay between theory and methods, the researcher and researched (Mukeredzi 2013), provided a holistic understanding of the phenomenon.

In the next section, I discuss the qualitative approach.

4.6 Qualitative Research Approach

There are generally three major research approaches: quantitative, mixed methods and qualitative (Hafsa 2019). Rahman (2020) and Williams (2011) concur that the quantitative research approach is concerned with gathering large amounts of data usually through observation, experiment, or survey and analysing them statistically. Given my focus on student teacher experiences of sexual harassment and their ways of coping, a quantitative approach was unsuitable for my study. A mixed methods approach which combines quantitative and qualitative approaches within a single research (Creswell 2014; Linneberg and Korsgaard 2019; Merriam and Tisdell 2016) was also not appropriate for my study which was purely qualitative in its nature as it addressed individual perspectives and lived experiences.

My study, therefore, adopted a qualitative research approach. Rahman (2017:103) defines qualitative research as *“any type of research about persons’ lives, lived experiences, behaviours, emotions and feelings as well as about organisational functioning, social movements, cultural phenomena and interactions between nations”*. In other words, a qualitative research approach enables understanding participants’ experiences, emotions, and perceptions and so on, where the researcher can describe, understand, and explain a social phenomenon of interest. In this study it was the student teachers’ lived

experiences of sexual harassment in the three selected colleges which had different organisational cultures and functioning. In this study, personal emotions and feelings of pre-service teachers were examined using drawings which facilitated expression of their deeper and complex emotions. This approach ensures that a complex social process is explored and described clearly in a unique way because it uses real experiences of participants (Lee and Krauss (2015). Sexual harassment as a complex social phenomenon was explored through interactions with participants who clearly described their experiences and coping mechanisms.

The qualitative approach enables subjective meanings and the uniqueness of the individual participants to be explored (Cresswell and Poth 2017; Busetto et al. 2020). In this study the methods of data generation enabled students to share their unique personal experiences and conceptions. The way each student teacher perceived sexual harassment was unique due to their individual experiences.

Through the multi-modal approaches to data generation in qualitative research, the shortcomings of one method can be countered using another method in a complementary way which facilitates triangulation (Rahman 2017; Dzwigol and Kushner 2015; Stake 2006). In this study on exploring sexual harassment experiences, coping strategies, and examining factors contributing to sexual harassment, face-to-face interviews were complemented by drawings to ensure that in-depth data was generated. Qualitative researchers value multi-modal approaches (Mukeredzi 2009; Park and Park 2016; Marsal and Rossman 2016). This aspect facilitated triangulation of individual interviews and drawings adopted in this study to explore the phenomenon of sexual harassment from diverse participant perspectives. The value of the multi-method approach lies in the complementary nature of data generated through multiple methods. In this study, as noted by Mukeredzi (2009), apart from enabling data generation methods to filter one another, as shortcomings of one are complemented by strengths of the other, this reduced method boundedness. Mukeredzi further notes that, employing multi-methods minimises exclusive reliance on one and gives a more nuanced picture of the reality under exploration.

Richardson (2012) says the qualitative approach is known as the naturalistic approach. Given this naturalistic quality of the qualitative approach, in this study, I generated data from the participants within their institutions. I had to go to all the three teacher training colleges to generate data from both student teachers and lecturers at their respective colleges. This was beneficial as the participants were in their familiar environments which probably enhanced data generation as they were in the comfort of their institutions (Flick 2014; Tobin and Begley 2004).

Qualitative research allows a flexible data generation process to be constructed and reconstructed to a greater extent (Maxwell 2012; Apuke 2017). In this study, I was able to make some modifications to the structure of research questions after the first face-to-face individual interviews. Flexibility also allowed

me to make some adjustments to interview times. Cohen et al. (2018) argue that the qualitative research approach enables flexibility which is a great attraction of this method as the time and location often present some challenges.

Being ideographic research, with its focus on the individual and emphasis on the unique personal experiences of human nature, the qualitative approach assisted me in understanding the different voices, meanings and experiences of my different participants through the two data generation methods (Richardson 2012; Pervin and Mokhtar 2022). Thus, I was able to describe the procedures in carrying out this research, answering questions as stipulated by Mukeredzi (2009) like: What did I do? Where did I do it? When did I do it? How did I do it? Why did I do it? And with whom did I do it? In the next section I outline the steps that I followed in accessing research sites and participants.

4.7 Accessing Research Sites and Participants

At the time of conducting the study, teacher education and the teacher training colleges were in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation, Science and Technology Development (MHTEISTD). All the three selected teacher training colleges offered a Diploma in Education for either secondary or primary. Of the three colleges, one college trained secondary school technical teachers. The other was a secondary teacher training college. These two were in urban settings in different provinces and were government owned institutions. The third teacher training college was primary teacher training and was in a rural setting and under missionary governance. However, all the three colleges were associates of the University of Zimbabwe's Department of Teacher Education (DTE) (as alluded to in Chapter One) which was responsible for ensuring the maintenance of appropriate standards in all teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

Regarding gaining access, according to Riese (2019) access to participants means obtaining approval prior to the data generation process and it requires proper planning and hard work on the part of the researcher. This involved application for gatekeeper's clearance first from the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation, Science and Technology Development (MHTEISTD) which I needed for applying for Ethical Clearance (EC) from the DUT Institutional Research and Ethics Committee (IREC). After obtaining the gatekeeper's clearance I was able to apply for and obtain an EC from IREC. With the EC and MHTEISTD letter, I then applied for consent from the three Principals to conduct the study in their colleges. Prior to visiting each college, I phoned the Principals of the three selected colleges to make an appointment to meet with them at their respective colleges on specified dates. On the date agreed, I would start by reporting to the Principal's office where I produced documents which included Ethical clearance, Gate keeper's permission from the MHTEISTD, as well as the principal's letter. Following

this, I produced the data generation Information Letter, (Appendix F) and went through it with them, after which I then requested them to sign the consent form.

As my study was carried out during the COVID 19 period, I carried my COVID 19 vaccination card and COVID 19 test Certificate.

Following my meeting with the Principal they referred me to the Vice Principal who in turn referred me to the Head of Department (HOD) who assisted with locating third year students on a free block.

Meeting students during their free time was vital to avoid interference with their learning programmes.

I followed the same procedure for accessing participants at the three selected colleges and also participants for piloting. The next section deals with population.

4.8 Population

Shukla (2020) views population as a set of all units which have similar characteristics under study. The population must meet a well-defined set of eligibility criteria in order to ensure that a study is successfully carried out (Majid 2018). In my study my population was made up of third year student teachers and all the lecturers in the three selected institutions investigated. Each college had an estimated 500 students which may translate to approximately 1500 students making up the population of this study across the three teacher training colleges.

4.9 Sample and sampling technique

A sample is a subset of the population under investigation (Shukla 2020; Etikan et al. 2016). This, therefore, means all good samples should possess the characteristics of the population so that they become a representative of the population (Cohen et al. 2017; Shukla 2020). Participants in this study were third year student teachers in the selected colleges, and lecturers were academic staff in those institutions. Therefore, sampling involved a process of selecting a portion from the college population (Etikan and Bala 2017; Taherdost 2016). In this study, I employed two sampling designs: convenience and purposive sampling which are discussed below, starting with convenience sampling.

4.9.1 Convenience Sampling

Convenience sampling involves using respondents who are “convenient” to the researcher sometimes in a happenstance mode (Mukeredzi 2009). There is no pattern whatsoever in acquiring these respondents accept that they are easily and conveniently available and willing to participate. The sampling method is used when the target population to be selected meets certain criteria like geographical proximity, easy accessibility or willingness to participate in the study (Etikan et al. 2016; Smith 2017). This is supported by Vehovar et al. (2016) and Etikan et al (2016) who argue that data often relies on convenience sampling because it is easy to use. In my study I conveniently selected participants to complete a short questionnaire from where I would sample out the actual study participants.

At the colleges I requested to meet third year students from where I would sample study participants. On meeting students, I explained my study in detail and emphasised that the data I was going to generate was solely for my doctoral studies and had nothing to do with their studies and would not prejudice them in any way. Electing to work with third year students was based on the understanding that they would probably have had more experiences of sexual harassment due to their longer stay in the colleges. In addition, given their longer stay, they were likely to be more open to share their experiences than any other year group. Again, third year students being in their final year at the college were probably no longer afraid to talk about those people who had harassed them.

After explaining my study, I asked for volunteers: 30 female student teachers and 12 male student teachers, making a total of 42 students. I gave this group the letter of information and went through it with them line by line. According to Alvi (2016) sampling through self-selection has the advantage that the participant may have strong feelings, opinions, and interest in the study to share their experiences. In this study I requested for male and female student volunteers to participate in the study hence this assisted me in having willing participants who would confidently share their sexual harassment experiences. Convenience sampling becomes effective when dealing with sensitive and complicated issues in a study (Sharma 2017; Murairwa 2015) as was the case with my topic. Therefore, self-selection sampling ensures greater commitment, attendance and willingness to provide more insights into the phenomenon as participants would cooperate and most likely freely share their sexual harassment experiences.

Table 4.1 below shows conveniently sampled participants from the three teacher training colleges (College A, B and C)

Table 4. 1: – Participants conveniently selected for the Study

Institution (college)	Students conveniently selected for the study
College A	42
College B	42
College C	42
Total	126

Source:

Researcher 2022

The above table depicts how participants were conveniently sampled.

After going through the letter of information with the student teachers, I requested them to sign the consent forms. The next section focuses on purposive sampling.

4.9.2 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling is defined as a non-probability sampling technique, because the researcher utilises their discretion to choose participants for the study without offering all population members equal chances of being picked (Campell et al. 2020). Purposive sampling is done to ensure that the sample is matched to the aims and objectives of the research, so that it improves the rigour of the study and trustworthiness of data and results (Cohen et al. 2007).

I adopted purposive sampling to sample out the three teacher training colleges. The inclusion/exclusion criteria in sampling colleges for my study were based on geographical location (whether urban or rural), college governance in terms of responsible authority and the level of teacher being trained. I wanted at least one rural teacher training college, and at least one college under private governance and one each, training primary school teachers, and secondary school teachers, and the third training, secondary technical teachers. Consequently, there were two urban colleges which were located in different towns and both under public governance and the one rural private college. The colleges sampled are reflected in Table 4.2

Table 4.2: Below shows colleges under study on sexual harassment.

College	Geographical area	Responsible Authority	Level being trained
College A	Rural	Private	Primary
College B	Urban	Public	Secondary
College C	Urban	Public	Secondary Technical Teacher Training

Source: Researcher 2022

Adopting these inclusion/exclusion criteria was vital for enabling cross comparisons by context, teacher trained and governance, thereby promoting triangulation

According to Qureshi (2018) purposive sampling ensures that the researcher selects people that are strategically positioned and have the characteristics required. In this study, the selected participants were deemed to be strategically positioned and possessing the knowledge critical for responding to the research questions. Farrokhi and Mahmoudi-Hamidabad (2012) and Creswell (2013) point out that purposive sampling enables selecting participants who are information-rich. Lecturers (vice principal, warden, counsellor and warden) who participated in the study were strategically positioned and worked closely with students, hence they were viewed as knowledgeable of student teachers' sexual harassment experiences and issues. In the case of the selected lecturers they were regarded as information-rich due to their daily experiences in handling disciplinary cases, counselling services and any other issues pertaining to sexual harassment which affected the students. Nikolopoulou (2022) argues that purposive sampling is employed when the sample has the needed characteristics in the study by the researcher. The choice of the sample is, therefore, selected on purpose to satisfy the wish of the researcher. Therefore, this group of lecturers was considered the most appropriate in terms of generating data on the sexual harassment experiences, coping strategies and factors that perpetuate sexual harassment within the teacher training colleges.

With regard to purposive sampling of student teachers, after collecting the completed questionnaires, I requested the participants to allow me about 15 - 20 minutes to sort out the responses (purposively sample). First, I separated male and female students. There were 30 conveniently sampled female students and from this group I needed six who had experienced sexual harassment and there were 12 male students from where I needed four.

Second, I analysed the responses, selecting those who had indicated having experienced some sexual harassment and who were willing to share with me their experiences. From the groups of 30 female student teachers who indicated some form of sexual harassment experiences, the numbers ranged between

12 and 15. I needed to select six out of these. So, I went through again examining the seriousness of the sexual harassment described, and through this exercise I was able to leave out the extra students to remain with the six that I needed.

Third, I then proceeded to purposively sample the male students to identify those who had knowledge of sexual harassment, had experienced the phenomenon and were willing to share their experiences. Thus, inclusion/exclusion criteria were that they had experienced some form of sexual harassment. For staff, in addition to being employed in those colleges they had to be either Vice Principal, dean of students, college counsellors or wardens

Fourth, following this I thanked them all and explained that I would work with some but not all of them for subsequent stages but would call on them if necessary. Using the codes that I had inserted on the questionnaires, I called out the six female students for interviews and drawings and the four male students who then formed my purposive sample. We then discussed and set appointments for the interviews. I explained to the female student teachers that I would require them to engage in drawings. I chose female students to participate in the drawing after face-to-face interviews, drawing on literature which shows a high level of vulnerability of women to sexual harassment and the negative effects on them (Joseph 2015; Orfan 2022; Shumba and Matina 2002; Wood et al. 2018). Thus, drawings as another form data generation instrument would augment and assist to provide additional data which pertained to the emotional effects the students experienced when they encountered sexual harassment.

On the other hand, while male students are not immune to sexual harassment, (Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020; Bull et al. 2022) in comparison to women they are less vulnerable and affected hence the effects of sexual harassment are comparatively lower. As such male student teachers would participate in face-to-face interviews only. Below is a sample of participants selected at each institution under study.

Table 4. 3: Distribution of purposively sampled participants for data generation per college

Participants	College A	College B	College C	Total Participants per Category
Vice principal	1	1	1	3

Dean of students	1	1	1	3
College counsellors	1	1	1	3
Warden	1	1	1	3
Female students	6	6	6	18
Male students	4	4	4	12
Total number of participants	14	14	14	42

Source: Researcher 2022

Table 4.3 above shows the distribution of participants in the three teacher training colleges investigated. The lecturers under investigation as highlighted above had to be in one of the categories including Vice Principal, dean of students, college counsellors and wardens. In the three teacher training colleges investigated, there was one staff member occupying each of the above positions. A total of six males and six females constituted the staff participants in the study from the three teacher training colleges. For the student participants, from the three colleges (College A, B and C) I sampled six female participants and four male participants making ten student participants at each college and making a total of 30 student participants in the three colleges under investigation.

The next section discusses piloting.

A pilot study is a mini-version of a full-scale study or a trial run done in preparation for the fully-fledged fieldwork for the study which can alternatively be called a feasibility study as it allows generating preliminary data and rejection of irrelevant responses under investigation (Dzwigol 2020; Eldridge et al. 2016; Bugge et al. 2013). This, therefore, means a pilot study is a small version of the actual study meant to test how the main study would be conducted. In this study I carried out my pilot study at one teacher training college located in the same province where I was stationed. In my study I carried out the pilot study in order to pre-test the effectiveness of my data generation instruments (face-to-face interviews and drawings) in addressing my research questions on sexual harassment. With the help of my supervisors, I modified some of my interview questions for clarity and removed those which appeared irrelevant in addressing my research questions. Apart from this, the questions elicited relevant and adequate data. Accessing participants for the pilot, as well as for the main study, followed the same procedure of accessing participants outlined above.

I pilot tested my interview schedule with six female student teachers. I asked the same student teachers to produce drawings that depicted emotions or feelings they experienced when they were sexually harassed. I instructed the students to make their drawings alone in their rooms overnight, following which we engaged in a discussion where they were interpreting their drawings. For male student teachers, I pilot tested the face-to-face interviews. I also tested my instruments with lecturers: Vice Principal, Dean of Students, College Counsellor and the Warden (lecturers). Following piloting I then embarked on the full-scale fieldwork which I discuss below.

4.10 Data Generation

Data generation involves the use of an established, systematic process of constructing data in order to answer some specific research questions in the study. The goal here was to ensure that quality evidence is captured which, therefore, means accurate and honest means of data generation are adhered to, to maintain integrity of the research (Daniel 2016; Queros et al. 2017). In this study data generation employed mainly two techniques: interviews and drawings. The questionnaire was just used as a springboard for purposive sampling of research participants as alluded to above. In this regard, engaging my participants in drawing made me access their inner feelings or emotions. Further, through probing in the face-to-face interviews hidden individual meanings of some of their responses were made clear. These could not be obtained had I used the quantitative approach.

Table 4.4: Itinerary for data generation in the three teacher training colleges

DATE	ACTIVITIES	TIME
COLLEGE A		

06/06/21	Arrival, sampling & making appointments with Male & Female students and lecturers	0800-1700 hours
07/06/21	Interviews with six Female students	0800-1700 hours
08/06/21	Interviews with four Male students & Interpretation of drawings with six female students	0800-1700 hours
09/06/21	Interviews with four Lecturers	0800- 1400 hours
COLLEGE B		
11/07/21	Arrival, sampling & making appointments with Male & Female students and lecturers	0800-1700 hours
12/07/21	Interviews with six Female students	0800-1700 hours
13/07/21	Interviews with four Male students & interpretation of drawings with six female students	0800-1700 hours
14/07/21	Interviews with four Lecturers	0800-1400 hours
06/08/21	Member checking with two lecturers and five students	0800-1700 hours
COLLEGE C		
01/08/21	Arrival, sampling & making appointments with Male & Female students and lecturers	0800-1700 hours
02/08/21	Interviews with six Female students	0800-1700 hours
03/08/21	Interviews with four Male students & interpretation of drawings with six female students	0800-1700 hours
04/08/21	Interviews with four Lecturers	0800-1400 hours

Source: Researcher 2021

As detailed, in my itinerary, I commenced data generation on 06/ 06/2021 when I went to College A, technical subjects secondary teacher training college which was government owned and controlled 230 km away from my work place.

The data generation process as reflected on the itinerary lasted for more than two months and was wound off by member checking on 06/08/21 with participants at College B which was nearer than the other two institutions. In the following section I provide details of data generation processes starting with the questionnaire.

4.10.1 The Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions to be answered for the purpose of data generation from participants (Dubois et al. 2016; Orsmond et al. 2015). In my study, I used a short questionnaire to facilitate purposive selection of appropriate participants for individual face-to-face interviews and drawings. Thus, the questionnaire was used only as a springboard to kick-start purposive sampling of the actual student teacher participants. The questionnaire was also vital in providing biographical data of the participants.

As reflected in Table 4.5 I administered the questionnaire to a convenient sample of 30 female and 12 male student teachers to respond to a few questions about sexual harassment. Question One sought to elicit biographical information and Question Two sought to understand whether or not they had experienced any sexual harassment. Question Three asked for a brief explanation of the nature of the sexual harassment that they had experienced and Question Four asked about their willingness to share experiences in an interview (See Appendix H).

As I highlighted in the section on convenience sampling of participants, after the protocols with college authorities, I met with third-year students and explained my study. Thereafter, I conveniently sampled students (30 female and 12 male students). Then, I distributed the letter of information and consent forms to these participants. I took them through that letter explaining every detail. Next I asked them to sign consent forms. I then administered the questionnaire to these conveniently sampled participants. I had inserted some codes at the left corner of each questionnaire for easy identification of my sample, and I had a record of those codes for tracking. The codes became the student teachers' pseudonyms and I requested them to keep those codes for the subsequent activities. Participants answered the four questions as highlighted above, some with a lot more detail than I expected, particularly in terms of the kinds of sexual harassment that they had experienced, which paved the way for easy purposive sampling of actual participants. This is consistent with Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) and Plan International (2020) who point out that sexual harassment is rampant in institutions and organisations.

Completing the questionnaire took less than 15. Then I collected the completed questionnaires for analysis to sample participants for the interviews and drawings. I discuss interviews below.

4.10.2 Face-to-face Individual Interviews

While some literature dissuades researchers from using the same participants for data generation using different techniques in the same study, there is lots of academic work (see, for example, Davis et al. 2019; Flynn et al. 2018; Kumar 2020; Nyumba et al. 2018) which indicates that the same participants can be used for different methods of generating data for the same study to enable following up on the points and issues that they would have raised during an earlier technique. This is vital for confirming internal consistency of participants' views and responses (Mukeredzi 2009). Hence in this study the female students interviewed were also involved in drawings.

Hawkins (2018) views interviews as traditionally a face-to-face interaction between the researcher and the participants. In this study face-to-face interviews were the conversations between the sexually harassed participants (student teachers), and me, the researcher, as well as with the lecturers and me which enabled sharing of experiences and opinions on sexual harassment issues (Jong and Jung 2015). Face-to-face interviews enabled participants to share with me personal information about their sexual harassment experiences honestly and to express their feelings freely in a natural atmosphere (Bolderston 2012; Rajasekar et al. 2013). Dealing with highly sensitive issues like sexual harassment, the one-on-one interview was relevant and effective in promoting disclosure and free sharing without fear by the participant or the victim.

Interviews are primarily phenomenological where the researcher is interested in the individual participant's lived experiences (Bolderston 2012). Participants were able to share their personal experiences in a private and confidential environment voluntarily. For lecturers, face-to-face interviews were held in their respective offices where they were more comfortable. Interviews with both lecturers and student teachers took approximately the same length of time as one hour. The lecturers explained their experiences of handling sexually harassed student teachers, and also described some of the students' experiences, as well as how they dealt with students' cases of sexual harassment.

Student teachers also shared their experiences freely in the face-to-face interviews. As a researcher I used several mechanisms in order to encourage my participants to open up, as well as deepen their response presentations (Cohen et al. 2017; Ritchie et al. 2013). Probing, maintaining eye contact, the use of silence, nodding of the head, making some sounds like "mmm" or asking questions like "Tell me about that?" or "Will you say more about that?", repeating and following up on new information all encouraged participants to talk and offer more in-depth data.

As a way of having an accurate record of responses of the participants I audio recorded the interviews with both lecturers and student teachers. In addition to the audio recording I jotted down some notes in order to consolidate the interview recordings.

Recording enabled me to maintain the flow of the conversation rather than concentrate on note-taking. According to Tracy (2019), audio recording is regarded as a standard way in qualitative research and it helps in making the interviewer concentrate on the interview without worrying about taking notes. This implies that audio recording of an interview minimises distraction to both the interviewee and interviewer since the process keeps a permanent record for future use.

In order to ensure that student teachers freely opened up, interviews were conducted in a private counselling room away from noise and also to maintain privacy and confidentiality. In all colleges I requested a college counsellor to be on standby to offer support in the event of a situation where their services would be required.

While interviews are effective in gathering qualitative data they have their own challenges. In my study initially, some of my participants were sceptical about discussing personal information about their experiences and knowledge about sexual harassment at the college especially when I audio taped them (Brown et al. 2019; Ma et al. 2021). They displayed fear of being victimised by authorities in the event that their identities were exposed. This is in line with Munyoro's (2018) view that cultural practices and fear can influence how free participants are towards sharing sensitive information in a face-to-face interaction, especially with a person considered a stranger. In this study, as a way of making my participants feel relaxed and open up, I assured them that the data I was looking for was merely for educational purposes and would be kept confidential and private and not shared with anyone except my supervisors.

Following the individual interview, I discussed drawings with female student participants. I explained that I needed drawings that depicted their feelings after experiencing sexual harassment. We then set up appointments for interpretation interviews. I allowed my female student teachers at least a night to work on their drawings before the interpretation interviews and issued them each with a pencil, a sheet of paper and a rubber for use during drawings. I emphasised and reassured my participants that the focus was on the content being derived from the drawing and not the quality of the drawing (Horne et al. 2017).

I discuss data generation through drawings in the next section.

4.10.3 Drawings

Drawings are visual images that are made or drawn and depict life events, experiences, feelings or emotions and are how human beings express themselves. These drawings are used as an alternative to verbal communication in order to effectively extract or express the inner self (Choeng et al. 2021). In my study I used drawing as a method of data generation so that I would understand the emotions and or feelings that victims of sexual harassment went through when they encountered sexual harassment. Drawings, thus, facilitated a clear expression of the inner emotions (Brailas 2020). Students in this study were able to communicate their deeper feelings and emotions which they could not easily verbalise through the face-to-face interviews. Drawing interpretations or discussions were based on these drawings made by participants depicting their sexual harassment experiences and emotions subsequent to those encounters. Drawings, therefore, prompted students to complement what they had shared during interviews. Mukeredzi (2009) contends that visual artefacts themselves contain little meaning; full meaning is generated through the context within which they are made. Thus, only the student teachers were able to extract that data as they understood the sexual harassment context in which they produced those drawings. The meaning of the experience to the victim renders it valuable for capturing in the drawing and that meaning is only known by them (Mukeredzi 2009). Participants in this study captured those experiences and aspects that depicted and represented their life in relation to sexual harassment. In the discussions in this study, drawings provided student teachers prompts for critical and analytical dialogue, through exploring their meanings during the interpretation interview (Mukeredzi 2009). Participants explained the significance and meaning of the drawings, they articulated their feelings, emotions and opinions about their sexual harassment experiences, as those sentiments were directed at something tangible (drawings) made by themselves. They discussed life as they saw it in relation to their experiences and feelings related to sexual harassment.

Thus, drawings assisted me to access the non-verbal meanings of my participants' thoughts and experiences which are not easily communicated to other people. Data generation which includes a non-linguistic dimension in research which relies on expressive possibilities allows access to different levels of experience that may have a phylogenetic and ontogenetic base, which is the part of the brains that produces vivid information better than the verbal one (Clark 2017). In this case, the drawings allowed me to get meaningful data with deeper elements of human consciousness which could not be produced by words. Therefore, drawings allow access to material which could be suppressed and repressed by the participating subconscious mind (Horne et al. 2017; Woodhouse 2012). In other words, drawings facilitated access to and apprehensions of previously untouched experiences which victims encountered. According to (Pink and Morgan 2013), drawings may stimulate some types of speech, for example, social talk which may not necessarily be disclosed in the interview, therefore, revealing data which could

otherwise remain hidden. In my study drawings as another method of generating data complemented interview data and revealed experiences which would probably have been too difficult to verbalise but were easier to illustrate through drawings.

Going through the drawing process may also have helped the victims of sexual harassment to internally get related feelings and emotions which made it easy for them to verbalise certain experiences (Glegg 2019) which process could probably have given them some closure. The moment the victims of sexual harassment started drawing, it probably evoked certain feelings and emotions which made it easy for them to share their sexual harassment experiences verbally with me the researcher.

As sexual harassment is a highly sensitive subject, the use of drawings probably helped my participants to develop courage in sharing their painful and difficult experiences. These drawing seemingly served as an icebreaker, hence with the gained courage victims could freely share their emotions and feelings with confidence and composure verbally during drawings discussions (Ademolu 2019; Brailas 2019). In my study the interpretation interviews were also recorded. The interpretation discussion was also guided by a discussion schedule (see Appendix K). The questions they answered during the discussion related to what the drawings meant for them, why they produced particular drawings, their feelings, opinions and perceptions about their sexual harassment experiences. Next, I discuss member checking.

4.11 Member checking

Member checking is defined by Birt et al. (2016) and Morse (2015) as participant validation because it is a technique for exploring the credibility of research findings in a qualitative research so that trustworthiness of results is checked (Varpio et al. 2017). For my study I member checked with seven participants at College B. According to Candela (2019), member checking can be done by one or some of the participants in the study so that they confirm the accuracy of the captured data. In this study I asked three female and two male student teachers and two lecturers to validate my data. Drawing on Candela above and also Yin (2014), after member checking with seven participants who all confirmed that transcriptions had accurately captured their views, I felt no urge to ask more participants to member check and had the feeling that all the captured data represented what participants across all the three colleges had shared.

4.12 Challenges Encountered During the Research Journey

My study was conducted during the period of high cases of COVID 19 where free movement was inhibited and several restrictions were put in place as the country responded to the soaring deaths and infections owing to the COVID epidemic. I, therefore, experienced a number of challenges. Due to COVID 19 only 25% of the workforce in government departments was at work to minimise the spread

of the virus. This delayed getting gate keeper consent from the ministry. I anxiously waited for a long time before I could get permission. However, I continuously followed up on a daily basis and even requested my principal to assist so that I could make progress in my studies.

Time factor was another challenge for me. During data generation, I needed to spend four days at each institution to complete all data generation processes with student teachers and lecturers. Due to the curfew instituted in the country movement was prohibited within curfew hours and this made the days very short. I had to look for accommodation near the colleges where I was doing data generation to minimise movement over long distances. This was not only inconvenient but also expensive. In addition, the tense situation on the road with the Police and Army personnel manning roadblocks, and the distances I had to travel from my station to the colleges under investigation made it very “easy” to violate curfew regulations hence I was prone to heavy fines by the police. I, however, had to make sure that I operated within the confines of the COVID 19 restrictions to avoid serious trouble for myself.

Travelling between towns with public transport was also banned to limit the movement of people in large numbers. The restrictions impacted heavily on me economically as I had to use private transport where long distances were involved. I had to borrow some money in order to fund my travelling from one college to the other as the selected colleges were located very far away from each other. In the same vein, in order to be permitted by college authorities to work with their student teachers I had to travel with all the needed documents, which included vaccination cards and a COVID 19 test certificate which was cumbersome.

Finally, my study coincided with a fact-finding mission by a team from MHTEISTD from our Head Office who were in Universities and Colleges, emanating from reports of high sexual harassment in Zimbabwean institutions. Thus, initially I had serious challenges with both lecturers and students as they suspected me to be part of this mission. After production of my DUT student card and research documents and explaining that I was only a doctoral student, and that confidentiality and anonymity were key and strictly adhered to, they relaxed and started cooperating. Next, I discuss data analysis.

4.13 Data Analysis

Data analysis can be described as a system for creating order and meaning in the data collected (Gomm 2014). Maree (2007) refers to data analysis as “*searching for patterns and ideas that help to explain the existence of those patterns*” (360). In other words, the researcher has to identify patterns and explain what they mean in relation to research questions. The analysis of data enables the researcher to make sense of interpreting and theorising data (Nowell et al. 2017, Braun and Clarke 2014). Through interpretation the researcher makes meaning of statements made by the participants.

In this study, data analysis involved a dual approach: infield data analysis and post data generation analysis. Literature (Gomm 2014; Maguire and Delahunt 2017) notes that data analysis often goes on simultaneous with data collection; therefore, I adopted this dual approach to data analysis. In-field analysis started from the time I commenced generating data. This was important as I was able to identify the patterns emerging. The end-of -data generation analysis was done at the end of the field work.

In this study I used open coding manual data analysis to make meaning of my data. Despite the fact that qualitative data analysis could be done using computer software packages, I wanted deeper immersion in my data to understand it better. I, therefore, felt I could always use computer aided analysis at a later stage. Notwithstanding the fact that manual open coding was involved and time consuming, it was also a learning experience for me since it was my first time to use it. However, at the end of the process I realised that it was worth my while rather than spending money on expensive software, as the experience was fulfilling. In support of this, Zamawe (2015) argues that although software aids data analysis, the researcher must always remain in control and must know that no software can analyse qualitative data since software cannot understand nuances of the meaning of a text. Further, manual qualitative analysis allows the researcher thorough appreciation of the experiences or opinions of the interviewees. Having this in mind I, therefore, felt manual analysis of data would enable me to extract deeper and more subtle meanings from my data.

4.13.1 Open coding analysis

The process involves labelling concepts and defining them so as to develop categories based on their properties and dimensions. Open coding is viewed as opening up or uncovering ideas and meanings which are contained in the text (Williams and Moser 2019). It begins with the researcher going through various data collected or transcripts from the various methods of data gathering (Nowell et al. 2017) which uses methods that show themes which are embedded in the data (Flick 2009; Wilson 2015), as shown in in Figure 4.3. In the next section, I describe the steps that I followed in analysing my data using open coding.

Figure 4.2: Steps followed in Open Coding Data analysis



Source: Researcher

Step 1 Transcription

Post data generation analysis started with transcribing data. Transcription in data analysis involves translating between forms of data, where one converts audio recordings of interviews or any discussion into a text format (McMullin 2021; Stuckey 2014). This, therefore, means that audio recorded data generated through interviews and drawings in my study was converted into texts. I transcribed the data myself to enable immersion in my data. During the process of transcription, I observed closely the data by repeatedly listening to the audio tapes so that I could pick up the emerging themes. Transcription helped me produce written accounts of the spoken words which ensured that all the spoken words and remarks were captured verbatim. Reviewed literature (Turner et al. 2017) shows that researchers must transcribe by themselves so that it allows them to recall all that took place during interviews hence it helps them to add meaning to the content generated in the interviews. After transcribing, I printed my transcribed scripts so that I could have hard copies which would make it easy to use in the next stages in data analysis. The next step was familiarisation.

Step 2 – Familiarising with Data

Familiarisation entails a process where the researcher continuously reads and re-reads the transcribed data while keeping focused on the purpose of the study (Earlingson and Briysieewicz 2017). In this study

I spent a lot of time, playing and listening attentively to the audios several times to get the sense and meaning of the data. Reading and re-reading the transcripts assisted me in the process of gaining an overview of the substantive content and identifying topics of interest and searching for patterns being revealed by my data. Reviewed literature (Nowell et al. 2017) asserts that familiarisation with data helps researchers to orient themselves with data and make sense of it for future use. Making sense of the data for me involved bracketing my own notions and pre-conceived ideas and also making sure that I reduced bias by maintaining an open mind which allowed me to get into the world of my participants leading to having a better perspective of the meaning of data. Next, I had to sort and organise my data.

Step 3: Sorting and Organising

This phase involved reading, sorting and arranging data according to the different research questions. In this study, data generated from interviews for both lecturers and students, as well as from the drawings, was sorted and organised according to the research questions the data addressed. Therefore, the process of sorting and organising data helped me to have a better view of the responses given by both lecturers and students on sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges in relation to the questions asked. According to Cohen et al. (2018), sorting and organising of data enables the researcher to observe similar patterns and themes easily. Following sorting and organising the data, I then started generating codes.

Step 4: Generating Initial Codes

Coding of data implies attaching labels to phrases or short sentences or statements so that analysis of data is enhanced (Braun and Clarke 2012). During coding I was able to provide labels for my data so that data became meaningful. In this study I identified broad ideas or concepts and assigned them codes or names that depicted what they were talking about. Coding enabled data to meet specific meaning as it was broken down into smaller components to make it easy to group and work with. I also took notes to come up with connections between data items. Thereafter, data were labelled with certain codes so that some patterns within my data could be grouped manually. I used highlighters to show key words and phrases and make notes on the data. Coding is, therefore, important in reducing lots of data to become chunks that are well structured meaningfully (Creswell 2013; Varpio et al. 2017). Having assigned codes to chunks of data, I then started clustering them into categories.

Step 5: Categorisation of Data

Categorising of data was about clustering related codes coming up with a broad term that represented or described the cluster of codes. The exercise was active and interpretive due to the fact that for me to categorise data, I went through some processes which involved analysing, combining and making some comparisons of codes. In my study I made an inductive analysis so that coded data were classified or categorised in close relationship. Data which were categorised provided significant links with my research questions. Categorised data must positively respond to the research questions of the study (Braun

and Clarke 2006). This, therefore, means categorised data suggests answers to the research questions of the study. After clustering codes into categories, the next step involved clustering categories into themes.

Step 6: Clustering Categories into Themes

This stage is labelled as a stage involving scrutinising categories of a certain meaning as themes (Cohen et al. 2018). I examined the categories carefully combining some that were related in meaning and coming up with a broad term that embraced the categories and leaving out outliers. The broad terms were the themes that emerged which directly responded to my research questions as illustrated in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Formulation of themes

Research Question One: What are the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in teachers' colleges?

Interview Question 1	How do you understand sexual harassment?	Codes	Categories	Themes
	Sexual harassment involves sexual abuse by someone who may be taking advantage of you because of his position within a community or who is economically better than you. The perpetrator can touch you in positions that you are not comfortable to be touched. They use force.	-sexually abused -taking advantage - use community position - use economic status -uncomfortable touching -there is force	- sexual abuse - touching you - use position and economic standing -forcing	Forced sexual engagements -abuse -touching -exploitation -force

Source: Researcher 2022

Following clustering of categories into themes I had to go back and forth to check consistency of data with codes, categories, and themes.

Step 7: Hermeneutic cycle

Hermeneutics is described as a theory and practice of understanding and interpreting that is never closed but on-going with movement of understanding from whole to the part and back to the whole (Robinson et al. 2015).

Therefore, this means hermeneutics is a philosophical discipline that investigates the understanding of a phenomenon and its elements and structures through a systematic interpretation process. In my study, I continually went back to my data, and then through the codes I ensured that the codes closely represented the data. Then, I went through categories juxtaposing with codes to ensure representation. Finally, I looked at the categories comparing themes to ensure that themes reflected the categories. I checked for

overlaps and further scrutinised them so that I derived proper understanding of the themes. I also checked through codes and categories repeatedly to see whether they were all represented in the themes identified. Hermeneutic cycle helped me to have an in-depth understanding and interpretation of the lived sexual harassment experiences of my participants and the effects those experiences had on the participants (Vieira 2017). Further, Mukeredzi (2009) argues that reviewing themes may involve collapsing two or splitting a theme into two. Therefore, there is an on-going moving back and forth, checking codes and categories to ensure their relevance. Reviewed literature (Widdowson 2013) suggests that at this stage there is a need to involve an independent judge for verification of the categories of meaning relevant to the research questions. At this point, therefore, I had to engage my supervisors to help me confirm the themes and identify any errors and omissions which could be there. Subsequent to this process, I then prepared to develop a narrative.

Step 8: Development of an interpretation

My last stage in this data analysis involved the contextualisation of findings into narrative or the development of an interpretation (Mukeredzi 2009). At this point I stopped and examined my analysis of data: I looked at my themes to check for their overall contexts and whether there was a relationship from where they emerged. This process enabled me to determine whether the analysis could be put together into a narrative which reflected a clear impression of the sexual harassment of student teachers in the selected teacher training colleges. After contextualisation, I summarised data generated from interviews and drawings from both lecturers and student teachers. At this stage, I re-examined the data extracting quotes representative of each theme which would enhance description of student teachers' experiences of sexual harassment in their words which Mukeredzi (2016:6) rightfully calls "capturing in their language and letting them speak for themselves." I was, therefore, prepared to develop an interpretation of the data into a narrative.

The above section provided the step-by-step approach to open coding data analysis that I followed in trying to answer research questions set out in Chapter One investigating sexual harassment of student teachers in selected teacher training colleges. In the next section I discuss trustworthiness of the research findings.

4.14 Trustworthiness

In quantitative research, studies are evaluated according to the level of reliability and validity related to the measurement procedures, the internal validity established through the design of the study, and the external validity or the degree to which the sampling procedures allowed for generalisability (Lietz and Zayas 2010; Speyer et al. 2016). In qualitative research, trustworthiness is considered a more appropriate criterion for evaluating rigour. Trustworthiness refers to the degree of confidence in data, its

interpretation, and methods used to ensure the quality of a study and its findings. It is the level of confidence in data interpretation and methods used to ensure that the study is considered worthwhile (Amankwaa 2016; Wilson 2016). Thus, this process is a way of trying to ensure that quality of the findings of qualitative research was achieved (Anney 2014; Stahl and King 2020).

Lietz and Zayas (2010) suggest that trustworthiness can be achieved by considering four concepts that work together: credibility, transferability, confirmability and dependability. Trustworthiness, therefore, means that whatever is said during the discussion will not be used for anything other than what it is intended for (Braun and Clarke 2019). I discuss these four aspects of trustworthiness in the next section.

4.14.1 Credibility

Credibility reflects the degree to which a study's findings represent the perspectives of research participants. In other words, credibility shows that the data and findings are true and original views of the participants (Moser and Korstjens 2018). In my study member checking enabled me to confirm whether the data generated was accurately captured. Member checking provides participants with the opportunity to correct errors or add more data so as to ensure credibility of data generated (Creswell 2013). In my study I allowed my participants to have a view of the transcribed scripts from the data I audio recorded from the interviews and drawings interpretations (Braun and Clarke 2019). Using an audio-recording device also helped me to capture the correct data generated from the interviews in order to achieve credibility of my study.

In qualitative research researcher bias is a challenge to research credibility (Creswell 2014). This is where the researcher brings in beliefs, judgement and practices during the research process. Fighting researcher bias can be achieved through reflexivity (Braun and Clarke 2022). As a researcher I ensured that I maintained an open mind, bracketed my own opinions, experiences and knowledge. I did that so as to minimise the risk of bias and avoid influencing the direction and outcome of the conversation during interviews. On the other hand, it was important to obtain confirmation from participants about accuracy of transcriptions through member checking. Reviewed literature (Cresswell 2012) shows that member checking may require one or more participants to confirm the accuracy of recorded data.

Credibility in research was enhanced through triangulation (Creswell 2014). In my study triangulation involved four dimensions: methodological, theoretical, data and contextual.

Methodological triangulation entails the use of more than one method of data generation on the same research topic (Dzwigol and Dzwigol-Barosz 2020). In my study I used interviews and drawings as methods of data generation to get comprehensive data on the phenomenon of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in selected teacher training colleges.

Another form of triangulation involves the use of multiple theoretical frameworks in examining a phenomenon being investigated (Pitre and Kushner 2015). My study utilised the Social Construction of Gender Theory and Transactional Model of Stress and Coping. These theories complemented each other to ensure comprehensive unpacking, understanding and describing of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

Further, triangulation can be done through the use of a variety of data sources (Heale and Forbes 2013). I generated data in this study from lecturers who included vice principals, deans of students, college counsellors and wardens. In addition, female and male student teachers were part of my sources of data for the study.

Lastly, triangulation can be achieved through the use of multiple-site cases (Heale and Twycroze 2017). In my study data were collected from three different colleges which were in different provinces. One was a primary teacher training college, another was a generic secondary teacher training college and the third college was a secondary technical teacher training college.

Peer debriefing also enhances the credibility of a study (Murphy Odo 2016). In my study I was always engaging with other doctoral candidates and supervisors at DUT where I got feedback and assistance in different stages in my study. In the same vein I received continuous feedback and comments from my supervisors which enhanced the credibility of my study to a great extent.

4.14.2 Transferability

Transferability involves the degree to which results obtained can be transferred to other contexts with other respondents. Lietz and Zayas (2010) point out that this is the degree to which the findings are applicable or useful to theory, practice and future research. They further point out that this is the degree of “fittingness”. This suggests that transferability deals with the degree to which findings fit situations outside of the study where they are found useful or meaningful. The use of different teacher training colleges which are located in different environments where they differ in terms of governance, locations and the level of students being trained (primary teachers and secondary teachers) facilitated transferability. Having a multi-site study further enabled transferability of research findings (Merriam 2015; Ritchie et al. 2013). Purposive sampling was used to enable transferability since specific information is maximised in relation to the context where data were generated. Lecturers purposively sampled who worked closely with students who experienced sexual harassment helped me as a researcher to get relevant data on sexual harassment. Reviewed literature (Ames et al. 2019) shows that purposive sampling helps the researcher to seek an appropriate group of participants who experienced the

phenomenon being studied. Further, in this study, the thick descriptions that were provided in describing my research sites and also in presenting the findings assisted in enhancing transferability in my study. Literature (Tracy 2010) reveals that the goal of thick description in achieving transferability involves provision of detail to readers and requires the researcher to be accountable for the complexity and specificity of their data. Therefore, in this study I used thick descriptions in describing my research sites, and also in the data presentation and analysis.

4.14.3 Dependability

According to Anney (2014) dependability refers to the stability of the findings over time. Generally, dependability is also known as auditability because it refers to the degree to which research procedures are clearly documented and recorded to allow an outsider to follow the research process and critique it. Dependability is established using an audit trail, a code-recode strategy, stepwise replication triangulation and per examination or iterator comparisons (Ary et al. 2010). In my study I maintained the audit trail by recording all the steps or stages of my data generation and analysis processes. An audit trail is a written account of the researcher process that includes reporting what occurred throughout the research project along with a demonstration of reflexivity (Kleijn and Leeuwen 2018). In my study I checked, reflected on and added to my brief notes while everything was still fresh in my mind. Reviewed literature (De Kleijn et al. 2015) further shows that an audit trail provides the most specific and elaborate procedure for ensuring quality assurance in qualitative research. In this study keeping an audit trail helped me to rectify some mistakes, improve the interviewing process and time management skills throughout the process of data generation up to the development of my research report. Further, peer debriefing and cohort sessions with supervisors all helped me to get continuous guidance and feedback which gave rise to reflexivity.

4.14.4 Confirmability

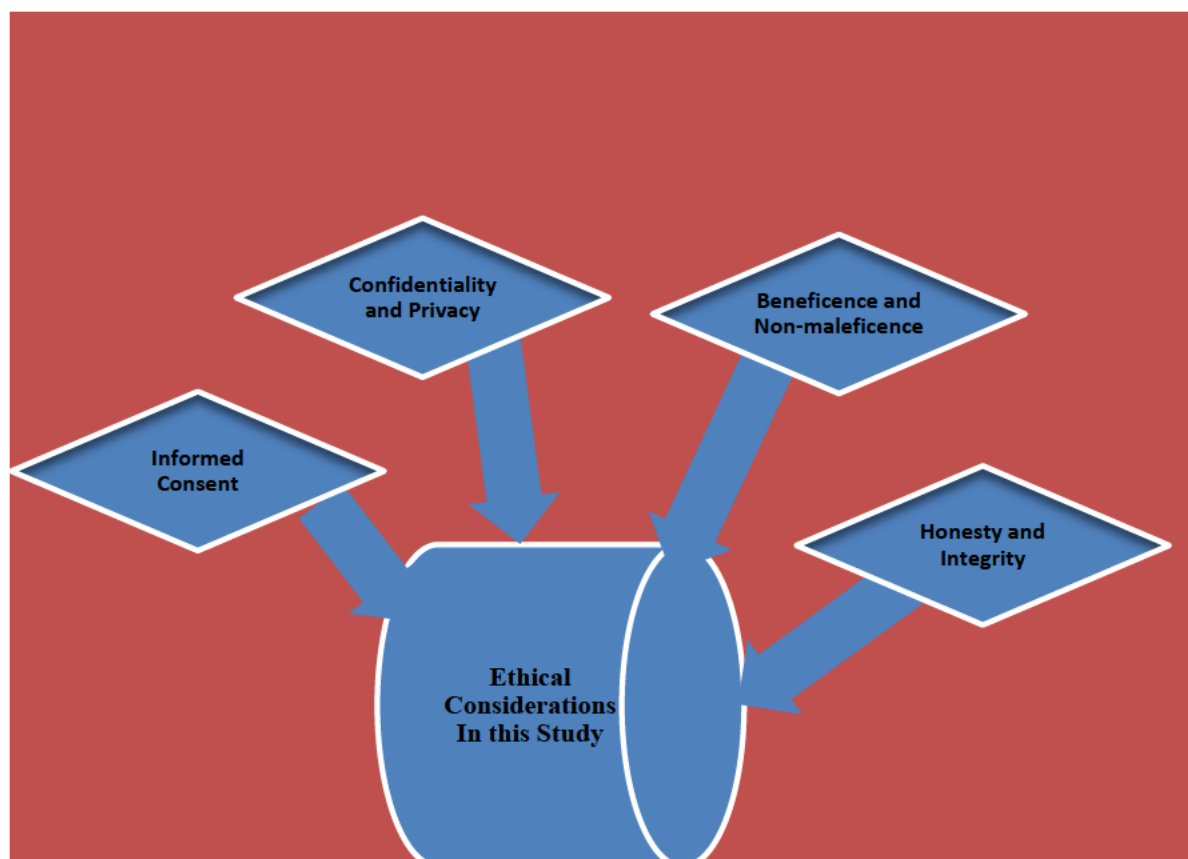
Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results of an inquiry could be confirmed or corroborated by other researchers (Anney 2014; Bowen 2009). Confirmability is concerned with establishing that data and interpretations of the findings are not just the researcher's imagination but are clearly derived from the data obtained from the study (Tobin and Begley 2004). Further confirmability shows the consistency of observing the same outcome when similar circumstances have been provided. In my study member checking, peer debriefing and audit trails all helped me to enhance confirmability of my research findings by outsiders. In other words, confirmability implies duplicability of the study which, in qualitative studies, can be achieved through an audit trail, reflexive journal and triangulation. In my study, as highlighted above, I used methodological triangulation, as well as a multiple case study design, which ensured that data obtained were confirmed by participants in other colleges being studied. Further, reflexivity also promotes confirmability (Creswell 2013). In order to enhance reflexivity, I kept and

maintained a reflexive journal so that I could record and reflect on the research process throughout my research journey. Similarly, as a researcher I benefited from my supervisors, as alluded to above, to check for bias in my presentation of this study. Having discussed ways that I adopted to enhance rigour in this research, next I discuss how ethical considerations were adhered to throughout the study.

4.15 Ethics

As a branch of philosophy, ethics regulates the conduct of people (Akaranga and Makau 2016; Kang and Hwang 2021). Simply, ethics refers to doing good and avoiding harm. Ethics are the codes of conduct that govern how research can be carried out without causing harm (Kumar 2011; Dongre and Sankaran 2015). In this study, before I embarked on my field work or data generation, I sought permission from the DUT IREC. I was only able to proceed to the colleges and generate data after receiving DUT Ethical Clearance (EC). According to the Australian Council for International Development (2017), ethical research principles are about the relationship between researchers and participants and must be strictly followed throughout the study. In this research study I made sure that the following ethical considerations were adhered to: informed consent, confidentiality and privacy, anonymity, honesty and integrity. All these ethical considerations facilitated my smooth data generation and engagement with participants in the selected teacher training colleges. The next section summarises the ethical considerations considered in this study.

Figure 4.3: Summary of ethical considerations applied in this study



Source: Researcher 2022

4.15.1 Informed consent

“Informed consent entails that the researcher must ensure that research participants join the study willingly or voluntarily with complete information on what they should expect in the study” (Hwang 2021:6). In this study I made sure that I provided the participants with adequate information pertaining to the study so that they entered into the study voluntarily. I gave my participants a consent form to sign as evidence that they willingly accepted to participate in the study. This ethical guideline (informed consent) gave participants the freedom to withdraw from the study midstream if they felt like doing so because they entered into the study with full information of what was required of them (Arifin 2018).

4.15.2 Confidentiality and privacy

Confidentiality implies that the researcher is obliged to protect the identity of the participants from the public, despite the fact that he or she may be aware of the identity of the participant (Kaiser 2009). In my study I assured participants that their privacy would be guaranteed. I protected their identity through the use of pseudonyms and codes right from sampling and throughout the study so that all that would have been shared would not reflect the real name of the participants or their teacher training college. Reviewed literature (Cohen et al. 2018) asserts that files, audio data, questionnaires or computer files must be stored safely during the research and destroyed completely after the study. In this study I also safeguarded the

confidentiality of my participants by ensuring that all the records and data generated are kept under lock and key and will be with my supervisors and be destroyed by shredding or completely deleted five years after my graduation. Further, I held interviews with students in secluded offices (Counselling rooms at each college) where the participants felt safe to share their experiences without any fear of intruders. Lecturers were interviewed in their private offices which were locked to ensure that they enjoyed privacy and freedom from interruptions during the interview sessions. The next section discusses beneficence and non-maleficence.

4.15.3 Beneficence and non-maleficence

Researchers must promote the safety and welfare of participants through several ways. In this regard, participants ought to be protected from harm and their autonomy in the study must be respected (Pieper and Thompson 2016). Provision of adequate information was made to the participants so that they might weigh the risks in taking part in the study to enable them to voluntarily take part after signing a consent form. Further, recorded data would be kept safely and handed over to my supervisor. Reviewed literature (Singh and Ivory 2015) posits that the beneficence and non-maleficence principle obligates researchers to promote the welfare of participants from negative psychosocial consequences. In this study I ensured that the rights, dignity, diversity and individual differences, as well as the preferences, of my participants were respected. Drawing from this principle of beneficence and non-maleficence, I requested the college counsellor to be on standby during the interviews just in case there would be a need, given the nature of the phenomenon under scrutiny. The ethical considerations of honesty and integrity will be dealt with in the next section.

4.15.4 Honesty and integrity

Integrity and honesty entail upholding professional standards where research values are upheld to avoid unethical conduct (Arifin 2018). In my study I ensured that as a professional I adhered to research ethics in general and the policy and guidelines of Durban University of Technology (DUT). These included following all the necessary procedures which guaranteed that my research could be conducted truthfully following the laid down standards. In my study observing integrity of the study made me seek authority (gatekeeper's clearance) first from the MHTEISTD in Zimbabwe and Principals of the selected teacher training colleges to carry out my study in the colleges. Thereafter, as highlighted above, I was issued with an EC by DUT which facilitated my commencement of the research. Further, the way I interacted with my participants throughout the study adhered to the principles of integrity and honesty. I made sure that all correct and accurate information was provided to participants before signing consent forms and ensured that audio recording was done with their permission and accurately without bias.

4.16 Limitations of the Study

There are three main limitations of this study which relate to methodology in data generation. The philosophical and methodological orientations of my study – interpretive paradigm, case study design, qualitative approach, convenience and purposive sampling coupled with data generation methods interviews and drawings adopted – rendered findings ungeneralisable. According to Smith (2018) generalisability of results is often applied only in quantitative methods where the findings can be widely applied across the country in different contexts. This is usually done where the sample is large and representative making the findings reliable. However, qualitativists challenge the relevance of generalisability in qualitative research, “arguing that an emphasis on generalising strips away the context that imbues a qualitative study with credibility” (Lietz and Zayas 2010:9). As such, generalisability was never the aim of this qualitative study. Concomitant to this, the non-probability sampling designs adopted in the study may have left out other information-rich participants. The researcher, however, tried to extract participants from colleges that were in different provinces at least 290 kilometres from each other.

Another limitation related to transferability. In this study, the philosophical and methodological designs and choices, including sampling design and the small size of the sample, limited transferability just like generalisability. However, transferability was enhanced through thick descriptions offered in data presentation and analysis chapters, as well as in describing the research sites. Transferability would, therefore, be considered on the understanding that findings may be limited only to similar specific groups, communities and/or circumstances (Cresswell and Garrett 2008). Further, in this study, the choice to transfer findings will be left to the researcher and reader to confirm findings based on their understanding and experiences, as the strength of the findings from this multiple-site case study lies in the fact that the study involved three distinct teacher training college contexts.

The third limitation in this study relates to the researcher’s attitudes and opinions, coupled with tendencies of viewing participants in own image or even to seek answers subscribing to own notions and beliefs. These may have affected the research findings. This is supported by reviewed literature (Kumar and Yale 2016) which illustrates that qualitative generation of data where the researcher is the main instrument is likely to introduce some bias in the way they interact with the participants. In this regard I, therefore, made concerted efforts to bracket my own notions and pre-conceived ideas and to be open minded, following up on questions to get accurate data and clarification. Further, my own research’s axiological assumptions and experiences were declared in Chapter One.

In the following section, I focus on chapter summary.

4.17 Summary Chapter

This research methodology chapter outlined the philosophical underpinnings of the interpretive research paradigm. The multiple case study design qualitative approach which was adopted for the study, including population and sampling as well as processes involved in data generation, was described. Convenience and purposive sampling designs used to select research sites and participants were also discussed. Data were generated through face-to-face interviews and drawings. After generation of data, open coding data analysis accomplished in eight steps was described. Efforts to ensure rigour through the four main aspects of trustworthiness – credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability – were defined. After describing the ethical considerations observed throughout the study, limitations of this study were highlighted, including attempts made to minimise their impact on research findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS: Pre-service teacher experiences of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges

5.1 Introduction

This study explored pre-service teacher experiences of sexual harassment, coping mechanisms and the factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. In the previous chapter I presented the discussed research design and methodology adopted for the study, covering the research paradigm, research design and research approach, population, and sampling,

accessing of participants, as well as the processes of data generation and data analysis. Issues of rigour under trustworthiness were discussed, as well as the ethical considerations observed throughout the study. I concluded the chapter by highlighting the limitations of the study and how I addressed them to minimise their impact on the findings.

This chapter focuses on data presentation and analysis that addresses Research Question One about student teacher experiences of sexual harassment. The main research question addressed in this study was: *What are the unheard voices of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe?* From this key question, the following three sub-questions were developed:

1. What are the pre-service teachers' experiences of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?
2. How do pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?
3. What are the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?

In this thesis each research question constitutes a chapter. Having a separate chapter for each research question was intended to ensure thick descriptions in presenting findings to enhance transferability. Also, to have one data presentation and analysis chapter would disproportionately oversize the findings chapter.

This chapter presents and analyses data that addresses Research Question One: *What are the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges?*

In discussing and presenting findings, I draw on literature from Chapter Two to illustrate how my findings are similar to or contradict existing research. Findings will also be discussed drawing on theoretical frameworks. This study employed two theories: Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC). However, in this chapter, I draw mainly on the SCGT to help me understand and explain the findings from a theoretical perspective of the sexual harassment experiences of student teachers in teacher training colleges.

Data from face-to-face interviews for all participants are pooled and discussed together as responses were generally similar. Where differences were noted, these were highlighted.

In order to ensure anonymity and confidentiality in presenting and discussing findings, I used the following codes:

Colleges are identified as A, B and C (College A, College B and College C)

Lecturers are identified as L1-L4 (Lecturer 1-Lecturer 4)

Students are identified as S1-S10 (Student 1-Student10)

Before discussing experiences of sexual harassment, I asked participants how they understood sexual harassment. Following this introduction, I discuss themes and subthemes that emerged from the data in

answer to how sexual harassment was understood by participants. I then move on to discuss experiences of this phenomenon.

5.2 Understandings of Sexual Harassment: Themes and Subthemes

In answering Research Question One on experiences of sexual harassment, before engaging the participants on their experiences, I asked them to explain their understanding of sexual harassment. Three themes of how participants understood sexual harassment emerged: pressured sexual intimacy; use of sexually derogatory language; and misuse of authority.

Understanding of sexual harassment

Table 5.1 below shows the number of responses of participants' understanding of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

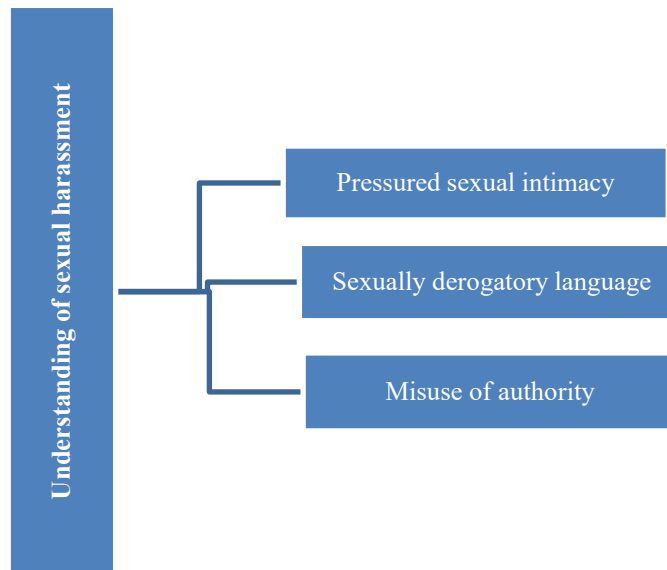
Table 5.1 Participants' Understanding of Sexual Harassment

Main Themes	Sub-themes	Number of Participants
Pressured sexual intimacy	Sexual assault	23
	Uncomfortable touching	7
	Use of threats	12
Sexually derogatory language		15
Misuse of authority		10

Source: Researcher 2022

In explaining their understanding of sexual harassment, pre-service teachers and lecturers came up with three themes as alluded to above: pressured sexual intimacy; misuse of authority; and derogatory language. These are reflected in Figure 5.1 below and then discussed thereafter.

Figure 5.1: Participants' understandings of sexual harassment



Source: Researcher 2022

5.2.1 Sexual Harassment as Pressured sexual intimacy

Both students and lecturers indicated that they understood sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy which manifested in the form of sexual assault, uncomfortable touching and use of threats. A total of 23 participants (17 students and 6 lecturers) believed that pressured sexual intimacy was actually sexual harassment as it involved the use of force in order to compel the victim to give in to the perpetrator's demands to have sexual intimacy.

5.2.1.1 Sexual Assault

AIHW (2019) defines sexual assault as a form of sexual violence as it is the use of force, intimidation or coercion which can be aggravated in nature. The victim is forced to indulge in sexual activity against their own will, hence, it is also termed non-consensual sexual activity. Responses from participants indicated that one was put under unreasonable pressure to give in to another person's sexual demands. In explaining sexual assault in an interview, student S2 at College C said: *It is forced love or unbalanced love. It's love which the other person has not consented.* Similarly, S10 at College A views sexual assault as: *involving sexual abuse where there is some force. It is actually a criminal offence because there will be no consent.* In the same vein, L3 at College C concurred when he said: *Sexual assault is the violation of sexual rights by abusing the other person sexually.* Another participant, L1 at College A had this to say: *... it is forced sexual relation between two people where the other uses their social or economic*

advantage to get what he or she wants sexually without an agreement. Forced love may be a sexual act or attempt which is directed against a person's sexuality using coercion (Walters 2016; Ullman 2010; United Nations 2011). On the other hand, unbalanced love can be an inappropriate sexual relationship which is noticed when sexual boundaries are crossed (Zarra 2013; Un Women 2020). In this research this may happen in sexual relationships that involve a lecturer or staff within teachers' colleges and the student teachers therein. It becomes sexual assault where there is no agreement between the staff and student to engage in a sexual relationship. Rights are entitlements that one must freely enjoy without prejudice (Gruskin et al. 2019 and Tonsing and Tonsing 2019). In life everyone must enjoy their human rights without being discriminated against.

Sexual assault, therefore, constitutes a form of violation of human rights (WHO 2019; Un Secretary General 2020). From SCGT viewpoint, sexual assault is regarded as a form of socially constructed violence (Tonsing and Tonsing 2019). Socially constructed violence refers to the fact that sexual violence has strong historical roots in the culture of the perpetrators. The violence would have been learnt during the period of growing up for men to exert their gender dominance over women and transmitted from generation to generation through socialisation (Gaynor 2019; Un Women 2021). Sexual assault is a widespread phenomenon which affects students' lives in colleges and universities (United Nations Children's Fund 2021; Fedina et al. 2016). The above perception is supported by House of Commons Women and Equalities Committee (2019) who, from research conducted in the United Kingdom in 2016, reveal that one in every three female students in tertiary education have been victims of sexual assault. Therefore, the findings above appear consistent with the general trend of sexual harassment in higher education globally.

From the discussion above participants understood sexual harassment as sexual assault related to forced or unbalanced love, which was a violation of another person's rights. Another aspect of pressured sexual intimacy which emerged was uncomfortable touching which I discuss next.

5.2.1.2 Uncomfortable touching

12 participants understood pressured sexual intimacy also as involving uncomfortable touching of students by lecturers. Both the staff and pre-service teachers indicated that the uncomfortable touching was done against the consent of the victims. S4 at College A said:

Uncomfortable touching involves inappropriate touching, fondling of breasts and buttocks. Some males seem to be comfortable by touching us without our consent. One may just touch you on the shoulder but we were not comfortable with it. No one seems to make it an issue since other males take it as just normal.

L2 at College C in an interview concurred when she said:

Uncomfortable touching is a behaviour which elicits sexual feelings in the other person without agreement with the victim of the harassment. It involves touching someone inappropriately in order to make someone aroused sexually.

From the findings above, victims of sexual harassment were touched without their consent by the perpetrators of sexual harassment. According to Bondestam and Lindquist (2020), uncomfortable touching is an intentional inappropriate form of touching or making body contact or rubbing your body against another person's body against their wish. Touched areas included buttocks, shoulders, waist, breasts or even the hair in a sexually provoking way which dehumanises or humiliates the person being grabbed or fondled. Touching is done to lure someone into a sexual relationship (Zarra 2013). According to Mshweshwe (2020), lecturers must maintain a professional physical distance between them and the students. This is referred to as a professional distance which is clearly laid down in the Zimbabwean statutory instrument governing the conduct of educators. The Education Act number 22 of 2001 stipulated the code of conduct for educators in relation to how they must interact with learners. Failure to abide by this, means the educator has violated the education policy which emphasises that teachers and lecturers must always act in loco parentis which means they must just take the role of parents in order to ensure that all children and students are in a safe learning environment (Zarra 2016) and comfortable enough to reach their Zone of Proximal Development in their learning. Culturally men who harass women believe that they are entitled to do so because of their socialisation which gives them a feeling that real men must dominate in sexual relations affairs (Mshweshwe, 2020). Such behaviour of abusing women has been legitimised and justified in patriarchal societies (Ehrmann 2013) which some researchers (see, for example, Moolman 2017) call hegemonic masculinity. Hegemonic masculinity refers to a culture of legitimising men's dominance over women. Moolman argues that hegemonic masculinity places women at a subordinate level where men have freedom to do whatever they wish with women because they believe they have a superior position in society.

The SCGT helps in explaining why some individuals are more inclined towards abusing others sexually. Everything exhibited by people is partially or entirely socially constructed. Both males and females construct their own roles based on their societal norms and values (Haslanger 2017). The theory further asserts that this behaviour of sexual abuse is socially constructed in males through their customs, mores, tradition and beliefs (Tonsing and Tonsing 2019). Socially constructed opinions are generally ideas that are considered as the truth because they were established long ago through experiences and interactions of people with others (Gaynor et al. 2019). Therefore, what is considered to be acceptable and normal is influenced by the culture that a particular group of people share (Zarra 2016). The idea of trivialising sexual abuse has been enforced and reinforced within communities

since males enjoy hegemonic masculinity and this aspect is discussed in detail later. Culturally, men believe that they are always ranked above women, hence, they are in control of everything within families and organisations (Moolman 2017). Such conceptions may have dominated the minds of the harassers in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

What emerges from the discussion above is that sexual harassment was understood as inappropriate or uncomfortable touching which included fondling breasts or buttocks, shoulders or hair without consent to elicit sexual feelings or arouse someone sexually. I discuss the third subtheme: pressured sexual intimacy related to use of threats, below.

5.2.1.3 Use of threats

Pressured sexual intimacy was understood by participants from interviews as the use of threats where female student teachers may be threatened with failure if they do not give in to the demands for a sexual relationship by the perpetrators. In their responses, five students and three lecturers viewed pressured sexual intimacy as exhibited through the use of threats by the perpetrators to their victims. Kipane (2018) defines a threat as a statement or indication of intention to inflict evil, injury, pain, or a hostile action on a person. The intention is to create fear in the person so that he or she complies with one's demands. Pressured sexual intimacy may come in the form of threats where the victim has great fear instilled so that they can easily be manipulated (Kipane 2018). Students may be threatened with failure in their assignments and examinations if they do not agree to the perpetrator's sexual demands. Here the idea is to make the victim get into a vulnerable position such that they will easily submit to the wishes of the perpetrator. In support of this view, L3 at College A responded in the following manner: *"Female students are threatened to agree to sexual relations with male Staff so that they are able to pass their courses."* Another similar response by S1 at College A said: *When I was at school I was forced to sleep with the school Chaplin and he said if I refuse he could chase me away from the school.* From the student and lecturers' responses, perpetrators of sexual harassment instil threats and fear in their victims (student teachers). Threats and fear are used by the perpetrators of sexual harassment so that it becomes easy for the victims to give in to the demands of the perpetrators.

Some students understood sexual harassment as use of threats where students were threatened with failure if they did not consent to sexual relations. One of the themes that emerged from participants' understanding of sexual harassment was the use of sexually derogatory language, which I discuss in the following section.

5.2.2 Sexual Harassment as Sexually derogatory language

Sexual harassment was also understood as the use of sexually derogatory language through making of inappropriate comments by lecturers to the pre-service teachers. Derogatory language is the expression

of a negative image of a person which is associated with being disrespectful, belittling and degrading the victim sexually. Sexually derogatory language pointed mostly towards the female student teachers by male lecturers or male students. Sexually derogatory statements directed towards women have their roots in cultural background (House of Commons Women and Equalities Committee 2019; Kahsay et al. 2020). When sexually derogatory language is used, women are viewed as less important, hence it makes them feel belittled and dehumanised. Men's attitudes of perceiving women as objects of sexual desire may necessitate viewing women in this way.

The language used is hostile to the victim and it undermines the dignity of women as human beings (Mapuranga et al. 2015; ILO 2017). Explaining their understanding of sexual harassment, ten students and five lecturers indicated that the phenomenon manifested through negative comments directed towards the victim in order to show criticism or a negative label in a sexual way. The affected individual would lose confidence and feel out of place because of the negative label attached to them by the perpetrators. L3 at College B had the following to say on sexual harassment: *Sexual harassment may involve offensive and demeaning sexual comments being made on someone by the more powerful people which makes them feel belittled.* In the same vein S4 at College B shows the negative comments that were passed about her and the effects that the comments had on her self-worth:

When males saw me passing by, one of them commented negatively which made me uncomfortable. He said that, aah ichi chakanyanya kupfupika kuita pint size chaiyo chinoita here pabonde ichochi. (This one is too short, size of a pint such that she is not good enough for sex).

The above statement meant that the woman in question was too short, hence was not sexually appropriate according to their own standards. A pint is generally understood as the smaller size of a beer bottle approximately 15cm high. Furthermore, the above statement suggests that participants understood sexual harassment through the use of negative sexual comments passed about them. From the participants such comments were passed by men directed to women. According to Kellie (2019), statements of this nature are inclined towards sexual objectification of women. He further elaborates that when a woman is sexually objectified it means she is seen as an object of sex, hence less human. Shepherd (2019) concurs and argues that viewing a person as an instrument towards a sexual goal is culturally ingrained into the minds of the perpetrators of sexual harassment.

The above perspective by participants dovetailed with the Government Equalities Office (2020) which views such comments which are of a sexual nature as aimed at making the victim feel belittled and demeaned. The comments may be about someone's body or clothes. The victim is likely to feel out of place because of the nature of the comments which may sound discriminatory.

From the foregoing discussion, sexual harassment was understood as the use of sexually derogatory language where lecturers used inappropriate comments about students. Misuse of authority, which I discuss below emerged as one of the ways in which participants understood sexual harassment.

5.2.3 Sexual Harassment as Misuse of Authority

Pressured sexual intimacy can emanate from misuse of authority. According to Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020), misuse of authority entails improper use of one's position of influence to one's advantage against the other person. One may use one's power to threaten the other individual holding lower position than him or her so that he or she influences their behaviour (Hersch 2015; Sutton et al. 2021; Loukaitou-Sideris and Ceccato 2021). In other words, lecturers can use their social, academic and economic status to influence students to agree to what they want. Misuse of authority can be observed when one takes advantage of one's position to demand sexual favours from students in the institutions (Robbins and Judge 2011; Stern et al. 2018).

In explaining their understanding of sexual harassment, 22 participants (13 students and 9 lecturers) defined it as taking advantage of the other person. Student S3 at College B responded in the following way:

Abuse of authority involves being made to love someone unintentionally where someone takes advantage of you because you are in a bad situation.

A similar incidence was also identified where a female student S6 at College B said the following:

My research supervisor was always condemning my research work. After a long time enduring that, I decided to go to his office for help. I asked him for help in order for me to improve the way I presented my research work. The supervisor told me that he was prepared to help me produce a better document if only I was ready to share with him something especially my "natural resources". When I further asked him, he later told me indirectly that if it was comfortable with me he could help prepare a good document for me at zero cost only if the two of us shared love.

The above findings revealed how people in positions of authority could take advantage of their status to abuse vulnerable student teachers. From what the student said the research supervisor created a problem for the female student so that he could take advantage of her situation to forcibly make the student offer sexual services to him. The research supervisor abused his position by sexually harassing the unsuspecting female student teacher.

Findings from data obtained showed that the issue of abuse of authority and office was a common phenomenon in the teacher training colleges. Victims of sexual harassment indicated clearly from

their responses that the problem was rampant in the colleges. In support of this view S2 at College B said the following:

In colleges, those who are in high offices or those who were in authority could seek sexual favours from young and venerable female student teachers. The student teachers would give in to the sexual demand from the perpetrators because they were afraid of being made to fail their teaching programme if they resist being intimate with the perpetrators.

Research findings showed that there was no consent at all between the victims of sexual harassment and perpetrators because perpetrators thrived on abuse of their offices. Some research supervisors, subject lecturers and any other staff in influential posts of authority used their positions to demand sexual favours. Student teachers had to give in to the sexual demands as they were afraid of being made to fail their programmes because of non-compliance to sexual demands by the perpetrators.

This understanding of sexual harassment responses above is consistent with what Hersch (2015) believed when he argued that abuse of authority is often perpetrated on victims who occupy lower positions in any organisation. These people are normally female and are often victims due to their lack of power within the organisation and may also lack other items, as reflected in the response above. In a patriarchal society, when men dominate both economically and socially, sexual harassment of women has always been treated as a normal phenomenon (Ogunmosule 2012). Society may not raise eyebrows in this scenario because inequalities between men and women historically have been deeply ingrained in the structure of societies (Filzgerald 2017). The responses by student teacher S3 and S6 above reflected unequal distribution of power which made sexual harassment perpetrated on them difficult to challenge. Robbins and Judge (2011) support the idea when they say that in a “macho” dominated culture sexual harassment is normally directed towards lowly ranked victims who have very little power within the organisation and may also lack critical resources that are required within those institutions thereby rendering themselves very vulnerable to sexual harassment. The discussion above reflects that sexual harassment was understood through misuse of authority where people in power took advantage of student teachers in desperate situations.

5.2.1 Summary: Participant Understanding of Sexual Harassment

From the discussion above, findings revealed that participants understood sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy which manifested in the form of sexual assault where there was forced or unbalanced love, which was a violation of another person’s rights. Pressured sexual intimacy emerged as inappropriate or uncomfortable touching, which included fondling of breasts or buttocks, touching shoulders or touching/caressing hair without consent to elicit sexual feelings or arouse someone sexually.

Another aspect of pressured sexual intimacy manifested through the use of threats where student teachers were threatened with failure if they objected to consenting to sexual demands by the perpetrators.

Findings also revealed that participants understood sexual harassment as the use of sexually derogatory language where lecturers used inappropriate comments about student teachers. In addition, student teachers and lecturers also understood sexual harassment as misuse of authority where staff in power took advantage of student teachers in desperate situations and used coercion to get into sexual relationships with them.

Having discussed participants' understanding of sexual harassment, the next section addresses Question One about pre-service teachers' experiences of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

5.3 Student Teacher Experiences of Sexual harassment in Teacher Training Colleges

Out of the 30 participants 27 confirmed having experienced sexual harassment in their teacher training colleges. What emerged was that participants experienced sexual harassment in the form of coerced sexual engagement which manifested in four subthemes: threats; rape; provocative dress; and improper contact. Participants experienced sexual harassment where perpetrators abused their positions by offering gifts and benefits and also making sexual remarks and demeaning comments. Further to that, participants experienced sexual harassment through being sexually exploited, as well as being sent nude pictures. Below is a summary of themes and subthemes that emerged which include the response counts.

Table 5.2: Themes, Sub-themes and Responses on Sexual Harassment Experiences

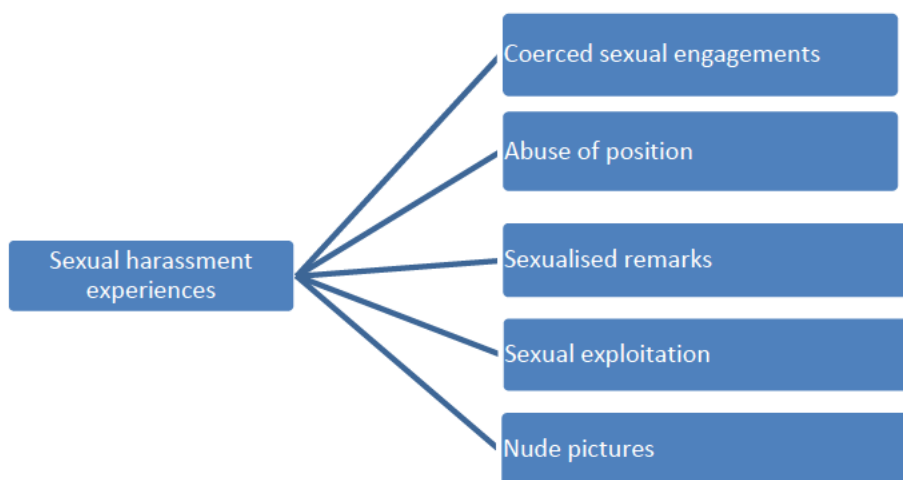
Main Themes	Subthemes	Number of Participants
Coerced sexual engagements	Threats	14
	Rape	4
	Improper contact	1
	Provocative dress	5
Abuse of position	Offering gifts and benefits	5

Sexualised remarks	Demeaning comments	4
Sexual exploitation		17
Nude pictures		2

Source: Researcher 2022

Experiences of sexual harassment summarised in Table 5.2 are also reflected as themes in Figure 5.2 below.

Figure 5.2: Participants' Sexual Harassment Experiences



Source: Researcher 2022

The five major themes are discussed in turn below starting with coerced sexual engagements.

5.3.1 Coerced sexual engagements

Sexual coercion can be defined as a persistent demand for sex with someone against their will (MacDonald 2013). It involves exerting force on the victim so as to ensure that he or she complies with what one needs (Fedina et al. 2016). Coerced sexual engagement may be viewed as a way which makes the victim feel like they owe the perpetrator sex (Kipane, 2018). In many cases coercion may be from someone like a teacher, landlord, or a boss which includes the issuing of threats in order to instil some fear in the victim so that he or she may offer sexual services against his or her wish (Holland et al. 2018). Coerced sexual engagement emerged through four themes: threats; rape; provocative dress; and improper contact.

5.3.1.1 Threats

In explaining their sexual harassment experiences, 14 participants indicated that threats were used by perpetrators so that the victims would give in to their sexual demands. According to Kipane (2018), threats are statements that inform the victim that he or she is about to face danger. In other words, they show that a nasty scenario is impending. Such a situation makes the victim emotionally unstable as they fear the impact of the coming danger (Fedina et al. 2016). S6 at College B during an interview said:

My research supervisor scolded me and threatened me that I must have to make a plan if I needed to pass my research. He told me that I must be prepared to give him something sweet so that I will pass. He showed to me that he wanted to be intimate with me for him to facilitate my passing.

From the statement of the victim, the supervisor implied being offered sexual services by the student in return for passing the project. The incidence of threatening female student teachers by lecturers was also echoed by S6 at college C. She had the following to say:

A staff member within a certain department at college would invite me for a talk after working hours. Despite my strong objection to his love proposal, he would insist that I should accommodate his request. It turned out to be more of harassment as he would threaten me that he is capable of making my stay at the college unpleasant if I continue turning down his proposal.

From the two scenarios, what is common is that the harassers were demanding sexual favours from the victims using threats in order to get what they wanted. Both perpetrators used threats of failure in order to intimidate their victims to comply with their sexual demands. The two encounters above, resemble what the Department of International Development (2019) defined as a hostile environment. They further argue that this relentless effort to put undue pressure on someone against their will makes the learning environment very intimidating and hostile to the student (Taiwo et al. 2014). According to the House of Commons and Parliamentary Digital Service (2018), a hostile environment is a severe, persistent or pervasive and unwelcome environment which makes the victim of sexual harassment uncomfortable to work in. The environment may have a threatening atmosphere which relentlessly interferes with the normal operation of the victim.

Notwithstanding the frequency of sexual threats, whether done regularly or once within an organisation, they may have a devastating effect on the wellbeing of the victim (Byers and Glenn 2011). SCGT explains the reason for sexual harassment as predominantly caused by a culture that marginalises women so that men are able to control them and the women are ready to make men happy without complaining (Soliman et al. 2021). Soliman et al. (2021) indicate that some societies teach women to believe that the work of a

woman is to make a man happy hence they have a conviction that real women must look sexy so that they please men. Pennsylvania State University (2011) concurs with the above notion arguing that gender is a structured feature of society, which is used as a device to manipulate women so that they please men.

From the above findings, victims of sexual harassment experienced threats where they were subjected to fear and undue pressure so that they would give in to the demands of the perpetrators of sexual harassment. In the next section victims of sexual harassment experienced rape as a form of sexual harassment.

5.3.1.2 Rape

Four participants reported that they experienced rape at the hands of lecturers. Williams and Walfield (2015:13) “define rape as involving penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part, object or oral penetration by the sex organ of another person without the consent of the victim”. Khan et al. (2014) further argue that rape involves the use of force and it is a non-consensual sexual relationship which is a violation of one’s human rights. S5 at College A indicated that she was a victim of rape. She had this to say:

I was caught with the security guard late at night with my boyfriend. The guard threatened to report us to the administration for being out of the hostels late in the night. My boyfriend managed to sneak away from the scene leaving me alone with the guard. The guard later demanded to have sexual intimacy with me if I wanted him not to report the case to the administration. He insisted that he only needed sex from me for the matter to be resolved between the two of us. The guard proceeded to rape me despite the fact that I was not willing to engage in sexual relations with him.

The above incident according to SCGT is termed sexual objectification of women (Holland et al. 2016). They describe objectification of women as a system of lowering a person, especially a woman, to the status of a sexual object which is designed to quench men’s sexual thirst. Kellie (2019) concurs and further elaborates that viewing a human being as a sexual instrument is a state of gross disrespect for humankind. He further asserts that a cultural perception which places women low in society is responsible for the way some men treat women. This was the case with the security guard referred to above who viewed a woman as an object from where he could just get and enjoy sex in return for non-disclosure of the incident. Such behaviour is supported by Stern et al. (2018) who say that some lecturers coerce student victims within educational institutions of higher learning in order to easily enjoy sexual benefits from them.

Another participant, S1 at College B agreed with S5 at College A on cases of rape at colleges. She made the following statement:

During interviews for a vacancy in teacher training a certain staff who interviewed me called me for a private discussion after the interview. He strongly assured me that if we engage in a sexual affair, I would definitely get a vacancy. I suffered from a dilemma. I badly needed a training vacancy but was totally against having a sexual affair with a stranger. I felt powerless and confused. I had to give in since I badly needed to enroll as a student teacher.

Both incidents reflect what is going on within teacher training colleges. Basically, findings point to the fact that females are the most vulnerable victims within teachers training colleges compared to their male counterparts. This is consistent with responses from student teachers. Further to that, from the findings, college lecturers have consistently been identified as the main culprits perpetrating sexual harassment on student teachers in teacher training colleges. According to Lombardi and Jones's (2015) longitudinal research carried out in America, sexual assault and rape within college campuses are widespread. However, accurate statistics may be difficult to gather due to gross under-reporting of cases. Majoni (2017) agrees with the above findings when she says that sexual harassment is prevalent among female students in Zimbabwe teacher training colleges, mostly perpetrated by lecturers within those institutions. The responses above illustrate how student teachers were held to ransom by staff and sexually harassed in teacher training colleges.

The above discussion revealed how student teachers experienced rape as a form of sexual harassment where they were forced into sexual intimacy against their will by the perpetrators. The next section discusses improper contact of a sexual nature experienced by student teachers.

5.3.1.3 Improper contact

According to Nelson (2014), improper contact is defined as inappropriate physical intrusion into one's personal space, which encompasses pinching, patting, rubbing and purposefully brushing up against another person.

S6 at College A explained how she was a victim of inappropriate touching, when she said:

My mentor would squeeze or touch me on the shoulder as if he was talking to his lover. I was always feeling uneasy and afraid inside his office because sometimes he would stand on the door when I was inside as if he wanted to lock me inside with him or block my way out.

From the explanation given by S6 at College A in the interview, she was uncomfortable with the way her lecturer touched her. The physical closeness between the student teacher and the lecturer from what the victim said was not appropriate. According to the student teacher the touching was tantamount to physical

sexual harassment. Lecturers as professionals are aware of the expected behaviour required of them. The above student teacher experiences are also supported by the House of Commons and Parliamentary Digital Service (2018) when they argue that sexual harassment in many forms is rampant in learning institutions like universities. They postulate that sexual harassment pervades the life of any woman within tertiary education because the culture of harassment is common in this sector. Onoyase (2019) demonstrates explicitly through the research that she carried out on the prevalence of sexual harassment of female student teachers in teacher training colleges that many students complained of being sexually harassed by their male lecturers. She further noted that female student teachers have complained that their buttocks, waists, and backs would be tapped and they would also be fondled on the breasts or any other sexually sensitive body part.

The previous section indicated that victims of sexual harassment experienced improper sexual contact where they were inappropriately touched on their buttocks, waists or even breasts. The next section focuses on provocative dressing as experienced by the victims of sexual harassment.

5.3.1.4 Provocative dress

Five male student teachers who were sexual harassment victims suggested that putting on sexually provocative dress was sexual harassment as the intention was to lure or coerce men into a sexual relationship. These male pre-service teachers explained that men could easily be seduced by some type of dress women put on. Goodin et al. (2011) define provocative dress as body revealing dress which men believe may 'turn them on' sexually if they are worn by women. Despite the fact that it is most unusual for men to openly complain about their harassment by women, the following response was given by S8, a male student teacher at College C:

The lady was putting on sexually provocative dressing. This was non-verbal sexual harassment which disturbed me. I had a difficult time with this lady because her dressing was affecting me. She was doing this on purpose to make me suffer sexually so that I comply with her intentions that of becoming intimate with her.

The above finding about sexual harassment through type of dress showed that provocative dress was noted as a form of sexual harassment. According to Onoyase (2019), a research carried out on why women put on revealing clothes indicated different intentions from what men perceived. According to the research findings, women associate this type of dress as more beautiful without having the intention of seducing men. The research indicated that there is a misconception in men to believe that when women are in these clothes they are searching for sexual advances. This may have been the case with S8 at College C above. Research has shown that men tend to treat women as sexual object because of their dress (Onoyase, 2019; Noori and Orfan 2021; Odo 2016). On the contrary, culturally women have

internalised the perception that women and girls are objects of gaze; therefore, they may use their clothes to communicate something to men (Goodin et al. 2011; Ojo et al 2013). This perception dovetails with the earlier proposition by S8 at College C who assumed that the revealing or provocative dress by the woman in question was meant to attract his attraction for sexual reasons which may not have been the case. However, this could be in contravening of the Public Service Commission dress code circular number 10 of 2006 which reads: “*despite the complexity of women’s fashions, women should put on a correspondingly high standard of dress to uphold the dignity and formality expected of them*” (Manannavire 2017:1). Therefore, civil servants are required to adhere to the stipulated dress regulations so that their dress, especially that of women, does not sexually offend others. Student teachers are supposed to follow the laid down code of dress so that their dress remains professional.

The preceding section indicated that victims of sexual harassment experienced provocative dress from their perpetrators of sexual harassment. This view is, however, contradicted in literature. Having discussed sexual harassment related to coerced sexual engagements through its sub-themes – threats, rape, improper contact and provocative dress – in the next section I discuss another major theme: taking advantage of position.

5.3.2 Taking advantage of position

Taking advantage of position is similar to misuse of position discussed under understanding sexual harassment above, which can be viewed as failure by a person in authority to act ideally, professionally and ethically as expected of a person holding such responsibility (Anene and Osayamwen 2019). It is associated with misuse of the position and authority vested in the person (Tinkler 2013; Ojong 2018). In institutions of higher learning, perpetrators of sexual harassment misuse their position in order to get sexual benefits from the weaker individuals who may not be able to resist because of their weaker positions and social statuses (Gill and Orgad 2018).

Victims of sexual harassment in the previous section experienced harassment where the perpetrators took advantage or misused their positions in order to sexually harass the victims. From the responses victims experienced harassment through being offered gifts and benefits so that they could offer sexual services in return.

5.3.2.1 Offering Gifts and Benefits

Five participants reported experiencing sexual harassment related to taking advantage of position by people in authority in teacher training colleges who promised them gifts and benefits. Taking advantage of position where perpetrators have offered gifts and benefits has accounted for a number of sexual abuses within teacher training colleges. Participant S2 from College A responded in the following way:

My main subject lecturer requested love from me and promised me that if I just agreed, I will have many benefits including financial and passing all the exams and assignments in the subject area.

Dube et al. (2019) argue that sexual harassment has become common due to a number of benefits that victims are likely to get from perpetrators. Material, monetary and academic benefits were all used as bait to ensure that the student teachers give in to sexual harassment. SCGT indicates that because men have positions of influence it is easy for them to sexually harass women (Burn 2019). In cases like this, legally “quid pro quo” is the method used in harassing the individual. Quid pro quo according to Palemo et al. (2021) is a sexual harassment term which is often used to describe an exchange of sex and benefits which could be economic, monetary or academic marks. Furthermore, the term is often applied in institutions of higher learning where the one in authority sets conditions that make the victim agree to offer sexual services to the perpetrator. Such conditions would for instance be like making someone pass their exams or getting a distinction. Quid pro quo is loosely described in academic situations as a ‘*thigh for a pass*’ (Anene and Osayamwen 2019). It can also be called ‘something for something’. This means one must offer something in order to be given something in return. In the teacher training colleges, a student teacher may offer sexual services so that they are awarded distinctions in their studies. Dube, et al. (2019) point out that academic dishonesty has become rampant with both modern student teachers and lecturers. Student teachers want to benefit academically without working and lecturers want sexual favours in return which may produce teachers that are not properly trained thereby compromising the whole education system.

What emerged from above indicated that perpetrators of sexual harassment promised their victims gifts and benefits, financial or academic, in return for sexual services. Another main theme that emerged in relation to experiences of sexual harassment related to sexualised comments discussed next.

5.3.3 Sexualised Comments

From the data four student teachers indicated that they were verbally harassed through some sexualised comments. Sexualised comments refer to passing remarks about a person’s physical appearance or even hostile criticism of someone’s sexual preference (Ward 2016). Such comments can be conveyed verbally, through social media, emails or through display materials or objects (Burn 2019). The student teachers pointed out that some lecturers and their peers always passed some sexual comments which were demeaning to them as female student teachers. S3 at College C said the following:

A certain male student I turned down his love proposal was always following me and making very humiliating sexual comments about my physical body structure in a

dehumanising way. He would also make these sexual comments at public gatherings especially when students were assembled together like in the dining hall or in lecture rooms.

From the response above, the harasser used public platforms to ensure that the victim was demeaned and dressed down to make them worthless among the other students, probably hoping that they would give in so that the harassment would stop. The harasser humiliated the victim making sexual comments meant to make the victim feel out of place and belittled. Buchanan et al. (2018) concur with the experiences of the victim when they argue that sexual comments dehumanise and disempower the victim. A culture that permits sexual discrimination may make some men view women negatively and always think that men are above women (Holland et al. 2016).

Sexualised comments as discussed above where victims experienced humiliating and dehumanising comments from perpetrators within the teacher training colleges, was another form of sexual harassment. Sexual exploitation also emerged as another form of sexual harassment which student teachers experienced in teacher training colleges.

5.3.4 Sexual exploitation

12 of the 30 students admitted that they experienced sexual harassment in the form of sexual exploitation by their lecturers in the teacher training colleges studied. Sexual exploitation may be viewed as a situation when a position of power is abused for sexual purposes on the vulnerable or a person within the community who must benefit from that power the perpetrator holds. It constitutes a serious form of sexual harassment (United Nations Papua New Guinea 2021).

S3 at College B explained how sexual exploitation was perpetrated on her by saying:

The lecturer requested a sexual relationship with me when I went to submit my late assignment. He demanded me to consent to offering love to him in order for the assignment to be accepted and be marked.

A similar scenario was also revealed by S1 at College B when she said the following:

Male lecturers demanded the students who were looking for vacancies to train as teachers to be intimate with them in order to be able to secure places. Those who refused to comply were told that they would be denied access to the scarce vacancies to train as pre-service teachers. I also experienced a similar scenario.

Another scenario was given by S4 at College C who said:

Perpetrators of sexual harassment may offer food and other gifts as well as other benefits to the vulnerable students so that they are able to demand for sexual relations from the victims.

The above responses showed that lecturers used the late assignment submission, benefits (including food) as well as vacancies to train as teachers as bait to sexually exploit the student teacher. The high rate of

student teachers who reported these forms of sexual harassment suggest that these were common methods in which sexual harassment was perpetrated by lecturers in the teacher training colleges. This assertion was also supported by literature where Dranzoa (2018) argues that perpetrators of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges are usually lecturers who may be running examinations or course coordinators. While lecturers exploited student teachers through late submission of assignments, depending on the reasons for the late submission, they were not entirely to blame as it was incumbent upon students themselves to put a stop to such a form of harassment through timeous submission of assessments or adequate preparation for examinations. One could say in some instances, student teachers put themselves up for such kinds of exploitation by their lackadaisical academic behaviour. Dube et al. (2019) laments that modern students are dishonest and lack urgency in their approach to school work. This was apparently the case with some of the student teachers investigated.

Sexual exploitation discussed above as a form of sexual harassment was experienced by student teachers in instances where assignments were late. However, in some cases this could be avoided. Student teachers also experienced sexual harassment through nude pictures sent by perpetrators.

5.3.5 Use of Nude Pictures

Other sexual harassment experiences student teachers went through related to receiving nude pictures. This was probably intended to arouse sexual interest in the student teachers and so persuade them into a sexual relationship. Two student teachers reported receiving pornographic material from some lecturers. This is exemplified by S2 at College A who said:

I was being sent naked pictures and proposal for sexual relations against my wish. The person wanted to arouse me sexually, so that I may agree to have an affair with him even against my conscience. Naked pictures are like pornographic material, they make one uncomfortable sexually.

Findings also showed that a similar scenario was experienced by S3 at College C when she said:

Pornographic material was sent to me on my phone by a certain lecturer who was not even ashamed of his behaviour despite the fact that I warned him against it. The lecturer continued doing that without stopping. I was very much affected by those nude pictures he was sending.

From the above responses the victims experienced sexual harassment through pornographic material which was apparently intended to make it easy for lecturers to lure victims into a sexual relationship. Thurman and Obster (2021) from reviewed literature define pornographic material as any sexually

explicit material designed to produce sexual arousal in viewers. The student here interpreted this as a strategy to request a sexual relationship. According to Mshweshwe (2020) from the SCGT, men have been socialised to exert different forms of authority over women and must demonstrate that power using sex or other artefacts.

From the discussion above victims experienced sexual harassment through nude pictures sent by perpetrators. Such pictures were meant to arouse sexual interest in the victims.

5.4 Summary of Student Teacher Experiences of Sexual Harassment

From the findings above, results showed that victims of sexual harassment experienced harassment through a variety of ways. Coerced sexual engagements were indicated as one of the experiences victims of sexual harassment went through. Coerced sexual engagements involved the use of threats, rape, improper contact and provocative dress. Further to that, victims of sexual harassment experienced harassment when perpetrators took advantage or misused their positions in order to get sexual services from the victims. Victims of sexual harassment were offered gifts and benefits so that they could in return give in to sexual intimacy demands from the perpetrators. The previous section indicated that victims experienced sexualised comments where they received comments which were sexual and dehumanising. Further to the above experiences, victims of sexual harassment also experienced sexual exploitation and being sent nude pictures. The next section focuses on the effects of sexual harassment on the victims.

The above section revealed findings on experiences sexually harassed victims in the teacher training colleges went through. The experiences involved coerced sexual engagements where the victims received threats, being raped, improper sexual contact and provocative dress. The victims experienced a scenario where perpetrators abused their positions through offering them gifts and benefits in return for sexual favours. Further to that, sexualised remarks were experienced by victims through receiving dehumanising and humiliating sexual comments. Victims of sexual harassment were sexually exploited by the perpetrators of sexual harassment. Finally, some victims of sexual harassment experienced being sent nude and pornographic material by the perpetrators.

Having discussed student teacher experiences of their encounters of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges, in the next section I discuss how they experienced the effects of those ordeals.

5.5 Effects of sexual harassment on victims

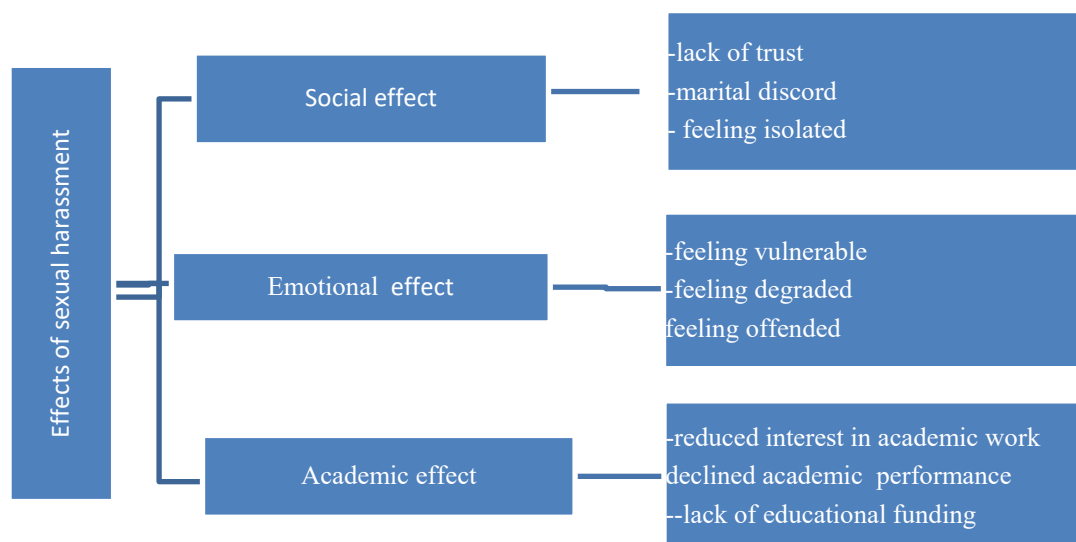
Sexual harassment impacts negatively on the livelihoods of the victims. Its effects may have short to long term consequences on the wellbeing of those who experienced it. Findings from this study showed that the effects of sexual harassment which manifested in three main categories, social, emotional or psychological and academic effects as reflected in Figure 5.3, are discussed here below.

5.5.1 Social effects

From the data, 13 student teachers highlighted that sexual harassment had caused a rift in their relationship with relatives, friends and spouses who did not understand how the sexual harassment happened. S1 at College A said:

I had serious challenges with my husband when I told him about my experiences of being sexually harassed but he could not believe me. Eventually we divorced with him because of the complications of lack of trust emanating from the issues to do with sexual harassment that I had experienced.

Figure 5.3 Effects of Sexual Harassment on Victims
Source: Researcher 2022



S1 at College C also said:

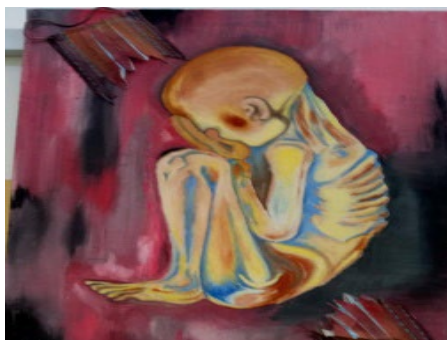
I became afraid of men and was even afraid of dating. I also struggled to associate with people for some time. I isolated myself from any groups. I was feeling the pressure of shame and fear on me. I thought that everyone was aware that this happened to me.

Both responses show the negative effects of sexual harassment on the social life of the victims: causing divorce; instilling fear of dating; feeling isolated and ashamed. Literature (Fitzgerald and Cortina 2018; Milchev 2019) shows that lack of trust between spouses damages relationships permanently. Social effects of sexual harassment are tangible and intangible consequences of sexual harassment on the victims' relationship with their community (Gould 2021; Weiss and Deary 2019). What emerged from the findings is that a sexually harassed person suffered from a number of social effects, which included lack of confidence, isolation or withdrawal from groups and fear of healthy relationships. The responses show that encounters of sexual harassment made the victims suffer socially and they struggled to build relationships.

Using the lens of SCGT, culturally in a patriarchal society men tend to blame women for being victims of sexual harassment (Raihani 2017; Raj et al 2019). This was typical of the case with S1 at College A

above who ended up in a divorce. Women are accused of provoking the harassment, therefore, they are always to blame (Fitzgerald and Cortina 2018). Australian Human Rights Commission (2017) from sourced literature concurs with the above perspectives about the effects of sexual harassment when it states that sexually harassed women, especially the married ones, are stigmatised and sometimes punished if they disclose this to their communities and families (Gould 2021). This was the case with student S1 at College A whose marriage ended up breaking. What this says is that this particular student teacher suffered double pain: the pain of being raped and the pain of losing her marriage, coupled with stigma and blame. Therefore, due to stigma and other consequences, some victims may conceal the sexual harassment that they have experienced to protect their marriages and other relationships. Furthermore, in a patriarchal society, a fallacious view exists where the harassed is blamed for the attack (Raihani 2017) as highlighted above. However, that women provoke or bring the sexual harassment upon themselves is not the case, as revealed in the findings discussed above where college male lecturers adopted various approaches and forms of sexual harassment of the female student teachers. Therefore, blaming women for generally bringing the sexual abuse upon themselves is a fallacy contradicted by the findings from this study: male lecturers emerged as the primary perpetrators of sexual harassment of female student teachers in the teacher training colleges studied. Qayyum et al. (2021) purport that when a victim of sexual harassment is blamed, they feel demeaned and end up blaming themselves, avoiding the public or even friends. As alluded to earlier on, relationships get damaged because of sexual harassment perpetrated on the victims.

From the above, the social effects of sexual harassment affected trust, marriage and relations. Regarding trust, some victims developed fear of men or dating and family relations were grossly affected as some victims ended up experiencing family or marital discord and even divorce. Sexual harassment also affected community relations as victims ended up isolating themselves, withdrawing from public and friends, and being ashamed of themselves. Such social effects of sexual harassment experiences were also illustrated by S6 at College C in her drawing and subsequent explanation:



Sexual harassment made me to cry every time and feeling lonely. I could not face anybody, I would hide away and did not find someone to assist me immediately. I felt as if all my friends and the college system had forsaken me.

From the response, subsequent to the sexual harassment, the victim cried continuously and experienced loneliness and dejection after the ordeal of sexual harassment. Socially the victim developed a sense of being rejected by friends, the college and colleagues. Similarly, S1 at College B, also in a drawing, illustrated how she experienced the effects of sexual harassment:



Sexual harassment made me devastated socially. Felt as if I have been rejected by everyone around me. I vented out my anger through crying alone inside my room. My social world was empty with no one to offer support.

Both participants revealed how they experienced the effects of sexual harassment in their social lives. Explanations in both scenarios reflected lack of trust, feeling rejected and withdrawal from social groups. Literature (Gould 2021) shows that socially the experiences of sexual harassment may cause the victims to have a feeling of betrayal and wanting to stay on their own as they develop lack of trust in people. Further to that, the victims experienced feelings of rejection and ostracism by society. Spector (2020) points out those experiences of the effects of sexual harassment can wreak havoc on its victims, and can cause inter alia lasting social and psychological after-effects among its victims. Next, I discuss how participants experienced emotional effects.

5.5.2 Emotional effects

Bondestam and Lundquist (2020) define emotions as instincts, feelings and sentiments which are different from reasoning. In other words, emotions are a complex mixture of hormones and the unconscious mind which influence people to behave in certain ways. Emotional effects of sexual harassment involved feeling vulnerable, degraded and offended.

5.5.2.1 Feeling Vulnerable

Ten students indicated that they felt vulnerable following sexual harassment. Vulnerability is a state of being unable to protect oneself against harm or significant exploitation (Mutiso and Mutie 2018). In other words, when one is vulnerable one is at risk, one feels exposed, threatened, and 'at the mercy' of the attacker. Victims lack something critical which makes them feel threatened. Vulnerable people may

require other people's help in order to manage their crisis (Fernandes-Alcantara 2018; Mental Health America 2019). The definition above implies that a vulnerable person is an individual who must be assisted in order to live a normal life like other people because they may be lacking something. For example, student teachers who are harassed may have a feeling of being isolated, rejected and feeling unwanted. This theme of vulnerability emerged through such feelings as feeling helpless, worthless, hopeless, insecure, unsure and confused. S1 at College A said: *I felt vulnerable, insecure and out of place and I cried a lot. I felt sorry for myself. When you are unable to help yourself come out of a difficult situation you feel hopeless.* Similarly, L2 at College C had the following explanation: *Other cases ended in "love" as victims ended up complying when help took a long time to be given.*

The response by S1 at College A above clearly showed signs of vulnerability, feeling helpless, hopeless and unable to protect herself from further attacks because of her status in the institution. Furthermore, the fact that the victim cried a lot was another sign of hopelessness and helplessness. Drawing on the SCGT (UN Women 2020) male domination and cultural assumptions in all societies sustain the sexual exploitation of women and make them more vulnerable. Consequently, women are left with no choice but to cry silently as they become confused as to how they can get protection against the continuous abuse by men (USAID 2020). That some of the victims ended up giving in to the demands of perpetrators showed that victims had become helpless and unable to protect themselves. Such situations occurred when assistance was not immediately available. In this regard UNICEF (2021) points out that victims of sexual harassment are easily exploited due their vulnerabilities.

Due to the vulnerability to sexual harassment of student teachers in teacher training colleges, some tended to allow the harassment to continue without making any effort to stop it. S8 at College A explained her feelings after the sexual harassment encounter saying: *I felt helpless to resist because the temptation was too strong for me.* In cases like these, victims are likely to blame themselves and not the abuser which will make them more confused about how to handle sexual harassment perpetrated on them. Being helpless implied that the student was unable to get help or to help herself and ended up just giving in to the temptation. What this also implied is that this would go on and occur as and when the perpetrator felt the need.

The discussion above shows that victims of sexual harassment felt vulnerable after experiencing the ordeal as they did not see help in sight. They felt insecure, misplaced, felt sorry for themselves and cried a lot. Being so vulnerable, some ended up giving in as they could not stand the temptation. The next section discusses how victims of sexual harassment felt degraded after being harassed.

5.5.2.2 Feeling Degraded

Nine students reported that they felt degraded after they were subjected to sexual harassment. Degrading is defined (Ali et al. 2015; Etinson 2020) from surveyed literature as the experience of feeling humiliated. The victim's dignity and self-worth are severely dented leading to low self-esteem. The diverse feelings the students experienced were a result of degradation from the harassment that they had experienced. Such feelings also included humiliation, isolation, embarrassment, inferiority or self-condemnation. All these feelings reflected the emotional effects of sexual harassment. S1 at College B had the following response: *"I felt very humiliated and used. It took me quite a long time struggling to come to terms with the realities of life that I was just used for nothing."* The response by S1 is consistent with research findings of the American Association of University Women (AAUW) (2016) who found that 68% of female students felt upset by sexual harassment; 57% reported feeling self-conscious or embarrassed. The Equal Rights Advocates (2013) drawing on the SCGT concur with student S1 when they argue that people who are sexually harassed may be affected emotionally and psychologically. They go on to point out that victims of sexual harassment suffer psychologically and may fail to operate to their maximum potential.

The preceding section indicated that sexual harassment victims felt degraded, humiliated and worthless after having encountered harassment. The next section shows how the victims of sexual harassment experienced being offended.

5.5.2.3 Feeling Offended

Nine of the students reported experiencing anger after being sexually harassed. They explained that they were very angry and at the same time scared. One of the respondents, S10 at College C, said: *I felt angry and disappointed at the same time.* In line with fear one respondent, S2 at College A, said: *"I felt extremely terrified by the way I experienced sexual harassment in form of rape. Fear and anger gripped me after the incident; I did not know what to do."* Mukeredzi (2017) points out that the purpose of Teacher Education is to shape the minds, dispositions and attitudes of teacher trainees, and equip them with inter alia knowledge and skills. Teacher educators should assume a parental role (*in loco parentis*) in response to the educational, emotional and other needs of their student teachers. However, it is the lecturers, the teacher educators and other staff in the teacher training colleges that caused the student teachers pain. Smit and du Plessis (2011) concur with AAUW (2016) that student teachers who have experienced sexual harassment in the very environment that should protect and nurture them into the teaching profession suffer greatly from social, emotional, and academic strain. From the responses, while the students experienced anger, they were also gripped with fear probably because they felt that their perpetrators would repeat the attacks. The anger which the student teachers expressed showed that they did not enter into relationships but were coerced. Drawing on the SCGT, perpetrators of sexual harassment unleash intimidation and pressure on the victim so that their demands are accepted without being challenged

which creates fear in their victims (Dahl and Knepper 2021). Student teachers indicated that they experienced trauma, confusion, self-blame and other emotions because of sexual harassment that they had encountered. S5 at College A had the following response on how she experienced the effects of the harassment:

This was a very traumatic experience I went through. I was really affected as I was left confused and afraid of a second attack. I boycotted a number of lectures as I thought that everyone knew what happened to me.

SAMHSA'S Trauma and Justice Strategic Initiative (2014) defines trauma as individual experiences of an event or series of events or even a set of circumstances that are physically or emotionally harmful or life threatening and that have lasting adverse effects on the individual's functioning and mental, physical, social, emotional or spiritual well-being. The above view from literature reflects how student teachers experienced the traumatic effects of sexual harassment. From the response of S5 at College A above, it was clear that the harassment she experienced seriously affected her life as she was confused and traumatised which implied that she was affected mentally, physically, spiritually and so on to come to terms with her ordeal. This is supported by Langer (2017) from surveyed literature who argues that sexual harassment can cause a lot of emotional pain. Victims can be offended, upset, humiliated, embarrassed, stressed and frightened, as was the case with S5 at College A. Further, literature showed that one can feel dehumanised. Buchanan et al. (2018) concur with the above assertion when they say post-traumatic stress disorder may be experienced by victims of sexual harassment. All this shows the devastating effects of trauma on sexually harassment victims.

Emotional experiences of sexual harassment can have long term effects on the health of the victim (Langer 2017; Ullah 2020). The emotional effects on the sexual harassment victims, in this case student teachers, are likely to affect them in both the short and long term. Burn (2019) in support indicates that harassment can cause long term emotional health challenges and victims tend to be susceptible to depressive symptoms, recurrent emotional distress, anxiety and a pervasive sense of loneliness. This is consistent with what S5 of College A explained when she talked of being traumatised, feeling afraid and confused after the attack. However, emotional effects on the harassed individual may depend on the nature of the harassment perpetrated on them.

S2 at College A illustrated her emotional experiences following the sexual harassment ordeal through a drawing of a cracked heart.



S2 at College A describing her feelings and experiences using her drawing of the cracked heart said:

The harassment incident left me heartbroken. I became a severely wounded person. I thought that I could not recover at all from the effects of the harassment. I felt like my heart had a crack on the centre and being pierced with sharp objects and blood was oozing out. There was no life in me as I experienced an untold pain.

From her description of a cracked heart with thorns piecing through it and causing blood to ooze out, the ordeal had apparently inflicted untold pain from which she thought she would never recover. Being heartbroken is defined as being sad, mournful or distressed (UN Women 2020). Literature (Choo and Ping 2021; ILO 2017) supports the above, highlighting that sexual harassment has a devastating effect on the wellbeing of the victims as some of the victims go through stress and are heartbroken after the ordeal of sexual harassment.

Another student teacher, S2 at College B, in relation to her experiences of the effects of sexual harassment through a drawing below explained that:



After the incident of sexual harassment, I was seriously affected emotionally. At one time I thought if only I could just take my life, all the worries and bad feelings would be gone. I also felt as if the whole world had rejected me. I felt dirty and unattractive.

From the description of the drawing, the victim was seriously affected by the encounter of sexual harassment. This can be drawn from the revelation of suicidal thoughts and feeling unattractive as if rejected by the whole world. Literature (Khan et al. 2020; UN Women 2020) supports the view that sexual harassment may have very serious emotional effects on the victims where they feel worthless and condemned. In extreme cases victims of sexual harassment may contemplate taking their own life or actually commit suicide. Similar feelings of the effects of sexual harassment were echoed by S6 at College B. Her drawing showing tears flowing is explained below:



Victims of sexual harassment go through a traumatic period which many people may not understand. Sexual harassment caused trauma in me. I sometimes suffered from some hallucinations during the night. I felt trapped and unable to move myself out of the difficult scenario of harassment. I would cry silently all night on my bed.

Sexual harassment from the responses shows that it may have damaging emotional effects on victims. The experiences revealed by the victims are supported by literature where victims suffer from a plethora of emotions (UN Women 2020; Zafarzai and Amiri 2021). Further literature from Anwar et al. (2022) shows that victims of sexual harassment suffer from symptoms like crying, memory problems, despondence, tremors and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). From the description and the drawing by S2 at College B above, such emotions are likely to have played up. The above drawings depicted the experiences of the painful effects which victims endure after their ordeal of sexual harassment (Choo and Ping 2021; Etinson 2020).

The discussion above shows that victims experienced sexual harassment emotional effects as they became confused, afraid and traumatised, to the extent of boycotting lectures due to feelings that everyone knew about their ordeal. Further, emotional feelings may include having feelings of being vulnerable, degraded and offended. The findings below dwelt on the academic effects of sexual harassment on the victims.

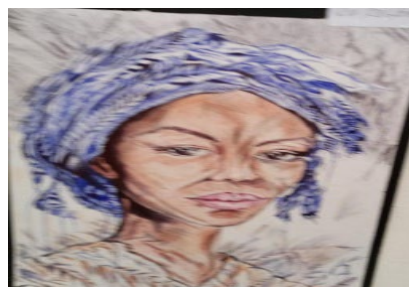
5.5.3 Academic effects of sexual harassment

According to Ampofo and Owuse (2015) academic impact relates to the effect on college, school or even education. Academic performance generally measures how well a student meets the standards set out by their educational institutions. In this study the impact on academic performance related to how sexual harassment affected the victims' performance in their college work. From the findings, ten student teachers highlighted that sexual harassment negatively affected their academic life. The response from S3 of College B shows how she was affected by the harassment:

I lived in fear for quite some time thinking that the lecturer could attack me anytime or make me to fail the subject he taught, I was always uneasy. My school attendance was affected as I absconded some of his lectures fearing the lecturer.

The above response indicates how the damage which emanated from sexual harassment affected the victim's academic performance. This was because the perpetrator was part of the academic staff which affected the academic life of the student teacher particularly regarding teaching/learning and assessment. In cases like this the victim may become very vulnerable. This scenario is supported by literature from Jacobson and Eaton (2018) who postulate that sexual harassment can interfere with one's educational operations by creating an intimidating, abusive or offensive environment. This was the case with S3 at College B above who lived in fear of further attacks or being treated unfairly in assessments by the perpetrator. In addition, given the irregular attendance of his lectures, the victim's academic performance was likely to be negatively affected.

S3 was able to show how she experienced the effects of sexual harassment on her academically through drawing. Using a drawing depicting a sad woman S3 at College B made the following statement about how sexual harassment affected her academic work:



After a series of sexual harassments at the college, I felt that I had lost my confidence about my abilities academically. My interest in my college work declined. I looked around but felt I was just alone in my predicament. I wished I could just drop out of college life at that moment. I could not concentrate on my work at all.

Similarly another participant, S4 at College B, describing her experiences of the effects of sexual harassment on her academic work through the drawing below, said the following:



Sexual harassment made me to feel out of place. I felt angry and lost the zeal to learn. The harasser was my lecturer; I could not have the courage to face him. I avoided some of his lectures which therefore made my performance go down. The anger in me made me to hate everything about the subject hence my work drastically went down. I become confused about my future. I was totally damaged from inside. I lost hope in my college work.

Findings from the two participants show that sexual harassment interfered with their college work in such a way that they lost interest in the learning process. At one time the two participants contemplated dropping out of college. Further to that, participants showed that their performance took a nose dive after they had experienced sexual harassment due to the fact that they had lost interest in the learning process thereby compromising their grades. Literature (Molstad et al. 2021) argues that people who experience sexual harassment in tertiary education, especially in universities, tend to fail more courses, assignments and exams than those who do not experience sexual harassment. Further to that, victims of sexual harassment at colleges have a high likelihood of absconding from lectures, leading to dropping out of the college or university (Dworking 2020; Rothman et al. 2019)

The discussion above shows that victims' experiences of the effects of sexual harassment on academic work nearly pushed them out of the college. Victims of sexual harassment performed poorly academically because of the effects of sexual harassment. The following section is a summary of the chapter.

5.6 Chapter Summary

The chapter discussed participants' understanding of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Participants understood sexual harassment as constituting pressured sexual intimacy which manifested through sexual assault, uncomfortable touching and the use of threats. Sexual harassment was also understood as use of sexually derogatory language through the making of inappropriate comments. Misuse of authority by those in power, who took advantage of their power to sexually abuse their victims, was also viewed as sexual harassment

Participants experienced sexual harassment in five main areas. There were coerced sexual engagements, where participants were threatened by perpetrators and fear instilled in them in order to make them comply with the sexual harassment demands. Student teachers also experienced rape and were forced into sexual engagements against their wish. In addition, victims experienced sexual harassment related to provocative dress, where female students were reported to wear dresses to lure their male victims into sexual relations. Sexual harassment was also experienced in the form of improper contact like touching on the buttocks, patting and rubbing against their victims to sexually stimulate them. Other sexual harassment experiences emerged through offering of gifts and benefits to female student teachers in return for sexual favours.

In addition, some student teachers experienced sexual harassment in the form of sexualised remarks where perpetrators used demeaning comments about the victims to make them feel belittled after turning down requests for sexual relationships. Other experiences of sexual harassment that student teachers encountered were in the form of sexual exploitation where late assignments were only marked in return for sex. Victims were also sent nude pictures or pornographic material by the perpetrators of sexual harassment as a way of arousing sexual feelings in them. Perpetrators hoped that such acts would make it easy for victims to fall for them.

The chapter further discussed experiences of student teachers of the effects of sexual harassment. What emerged was that victims of sexual harassment were affected in one or three areas of their lives: socially, emotionally and academically following sexual harassment. Some participants used drawings to further accentuate their experiences of the effects of sexual harassment.

First, social effects experienced by the victims of sexual harassment involved how they experienced a sense of being rejected, isolated, withdrawn, being ashamed, lacking trust in people, leading to their failure to establish healthy relationships, marital discord and divorce in some cases.

Secondly, it emerged that victims of sexual harassment were affected emotionally. In this case, the affected student teachers were affected in three ways. First, they felt vulnerable, helpless, traumatised, worthless, hopeless, insecure, unsure, confused and blamed themselves. Secondly, victims of sexual harassment felt degraded by the effect of sexual harassment. The victims felt humiliated, embarrassed, condemned and developed low self-esteem. Lastly, the victims felt offended by the sexual harassment experience thereby developing feelings of anger, confusion and being afraid.

Finally, the victimised students also were affected academically after they experienced sexual harassment. The findings showed that victims ended up losing interest in their learning, especially if the

perpetrator was their lecturer. Some would abscond from lectures leading to a decline in their academic performance in terms of their assignment and exam marks. Others, in extreme cases, would contemplate dropping out of college.

In the next chapter I analyse data that addresses Research Question Two on coping mechanisms that student teachers adopt to deal with the effects of sexual harassment.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS: How pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore pre-service teacher experiences of and coping mechanisms adopted in sexual harassment in three selected teacher training colleges, as well as the factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in these institutions in Zimbabwe. The previous chapter discussed student teachers' understandings of sexual harassment and their experiences of this phenomenon. Findings revealed that they understood sexual harassment as encapsulated in three areas: pressured sexual intimacy; sexually derogatory language; and misuse of authority. Regarding experiences of sexual harassment, it emerged that student teachers experienced sexual harassment in the form of coerced sexual engagements, abuse of positions, use of sexualised remarks, sexual exploitation and use of nude pictures. Student teachers experienced negative effects of sexual harassment socially, emotionally, and academically.

This chapter presents and analyses data that addresses Research Question Two: *How do pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?*

In discussing and presenting findings, like in the previous chapter, I draw on literature from Chapter Two to illustrate how my findings relate to existing research. Findings are explained by drawing on the theoretical frameworks of Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC).

SCGT is essentially about the assumptions with which people view the world through self-made ideas or reality. However, I draw primarily on the TMSC given that its assumptions are predominantly about interaction (transaction) between a person and their environment, explaining that when an individual is faced with a stressor, primary appraisal of own coping abilities to overcome the stressor takes place (Sgoifo et al. 2017).

Data to address this question were drawn from face-to-face interviews with all participants which were pooled and discussed together as the responses were generally similar. In order to subvert anonymity and confidentiality in presenting and discussing findings, as highlighted in Chapter Five, codes are employed. Codes A, B and C identify Colleges, codes L1-L4 identify Lecturers, while Student teachers are identified by codes S1-S10. In the next section I define coping with sexual harassment. Following this, I discuss themes and subthemes that emerged from the data focusing on the mechanisms that victims employed to cope with sexual harassment. A chapter summary at the end ties up the key issues discussed.

6.2 Coping with sexual harassment

According to Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) coping is defined as the cognitive and behavioural efforts made to master, tolerate or reduce external and internal demands and conflicts among them. Coping mechanisms are the actual strategies that an individual employs to mitigate the effects of a perceived stressor, regardless of the perceived success or failure of the action to alleviate the stressor (Silinda 2018). Therefore, coping involves people detecting, appraising, responding and appreciating the onset of a stressful event (Worke et al. 2021; Twycross 2007). The TMSC theory is used in this discussion to explain how victims of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges cope with the harassment which causes stress in their lives.

Biggs et al. (2017) define stress as a chronic psychological and somatic distress which happens as a result of series of transactions between the person, the environment and a situation where one's coping resources are overwhelmed by the stressors. This may come in the form of post-traumatic stress symptoms (PTSD) which are a result of one's exposure to potentially traumatising scenarios. The outcome of the transaction may generate chronic psychological somatic distress in the sexually harassed person. An individual's coping abilities are related to cognitive appraisal (Obbarius et al. 2021). Coping affects the immediate stress response, as well as the long-term health, psychological well-being and social functioning of an individual (Lokhmatkina 2015).

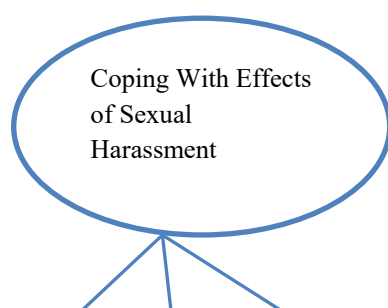
6.3 Themes and Subthemes

In responding to Research Question Two on how pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges, data revealed three main mechanisms of coping with harassment: psychosocial intervention (emotion-based coping); avoidance; and problem-based coping reflected in Figure 6.1. Figure 6.1 reflects the themes and their subthemes that emerged from the data as the mechanisms that victims adopt in dealing with the effects of sexual harassment. These are discussed below.

6.4 Psychosocial intervention

The subthemes that emerged from psychosocial intervention included sharing with friends, peers, spouses and other family members, as well as counselling. Psychosocial support is a range of interventions which involve care and support offered by people around or close to the victim of sexual harassment (Lomax and Meyrick 2020).

Figure 6.1 Coping with Effects of Sexual Harassment



Source: Researcher 2022

According to the Ministry of Health (2016) psycho refers to the inner world of the individual thoughts, feelings and emotions while the social aspect focuses on the external world and environment of the person and the relationships they have. Psychosocial intervention, therefore, implies that helping people to cope with sexual harassment must combine working in improving their negative emotions or feelings so that they are able to cope emotionally, as well as improve their social relations with others in their environment or communities. In this research, the focus was to find out how victims of sexual harassment coped in terms of their mental, emotional, spiritual and social well-being and also how they were able to improve their relationships and interactions after their sexual harassment experiences. Psychosocial intervention is also called the emotion-based coping strategy because its main focus is on regulating the negative emotions generated from the perceived stress (Smith and Keefer 2016). In other words, these sexual harassment strategies are called emotion-based because the strategy is intended to address the victim's emotions. Lomax and Meyrick (2020) further argue that people around the victims include friends, peers, family members, teachers, lecturers, health workers and other community members. Therefore, from this perspective, psychosocial intervention includes all sexual harassment interventions, services and any other relevant initiatives that may be offered to individuals, families and communities in order to help the victims to cope with the challenges emanating from sexual harassment. Psychosocial support interventions are focused on addressing issues affecting the victims of sexual harassment from an emotional point of view so as to improve the psychological, social and emotional well-being of the victim (Dworkin et al. 2017).

Lecturers and students interviewed viewed psychosocial intervention as the main strategy which helped victims of sexual harassment to cope with the effects of the abuse. Sharing with others as a form of psychosocial coping intervention is discussed in the following section.

6.4.1 Sharing with significant others

Findings indicated that 17 of the 42 participants reported that victims of sexual harassment shared their ordeal with their significant others. Significant others are those people who include one's close friends,

spouse, peers and other close family members (Ferguson 2022). Further, significant others may be those people who have an impact in a person's life because they are socially and emotionally close to the victim of sexual harassment (Banovcinova and Baskoa 2016). Such people are associated with a pattern of emotional interdependence, where the victims of sexual harassment may enjoy a therapeutic relationship. Members who share emotional interdependence are usually noticed by their level of emotional stability (Sels et al. 2016). This may involve being assertive about sexual harassment and having a high level of self-esteem which enables them to resist being sexually harassed, have confidence, and not passively admit to a relationship they are not comfortable with.

In explaining ways of coping after her sexual harassment ordeal, participant S2 at College A said:

I shared with my friend on what can be done. This made me to get some insights on the matter and how others are also handling similar incidences perpetrated on them. Your friend gives you confidence to handle difficult issues.

The response above shows that the victim of sexual harassment was willing to share their experiences with the people close to them whom they trusted, to get help on what to do and insights into how other victims coped with sexual harassment from where they would draw some confidence. From these comments, it appears cases of sexual harassment were rampant and a common phenomenon within teacher training colleges. The interaction between the victim and her friend helped the victim to develop skills in dealing with sexual harassment. The response above showed that dealing with sexual harassment is difficult as some victims could not have confidence to resist or even cope with its effects; however, sharing assisted in confidence development in handling sexual harassment effects. It would appear as if the victim had lost confidence from the sexual harassment encounter. Okunlola et al. (2020) define confidence as the belief one has in one's ability and the competence one possesses to perform certain tasks like resisting sexual harassment. Victims who are confident are able to openly tell the perpetrator what they are against, as well as to defend their rights about not complying with sexual harassment passively. In this case, being assertive is a skill that requires confidence to clearly tell the perpetrator that one is not interested in the relationship they may be initiating. Confidence is strongly related with self-esteem, which is an overall value one attaches to oneself (Cesario 2020). Usually high self-esteem resembles a high confidence level. On the contrary, loss of confidence entails uncertainty about one's abilities in performing required duties, such as giving in to sexual harassment simply because the victim lacks skills to clearly and strongly say 'no' with confidence, without feeling bad about it. Low confidence is one of the negative effects of sexual harassment which is usually expressed in the form of severe decrements in the victim's mental health (Cesario 2020). Anxiety, stress, depression and loss of motivation to perform all work may diminish one's confidence level in performing different tasks. For

example, in academic work one may perform in a severely compromised manner because of lowered confidence due to the effects of sexual harassment (Okunlola et al. 2020).

Another response came from S3 at College A, who said: *I shared with one of my friends but I told her that she should not tell anyone*. What comes through from this response, like in the response by S2 above, is that victims of sexual harassment try to resolve their sexual harassment problems secretly without telling authorities but rather telling friends. This was echoed by Vijayasiri (2008) who argued that in certain organisations where the environment is segregatory and gendered, victims of sexual harassment fear to disclose their cases of sexual harassment to those in authority.

From the response by S3 at College A, while the victim shared with a friend, she warned her not to disclose to anyone which shows that she wanted it kept a secret. It appears many victims did not want to share with many people, especially those in authority, about their harassment experience. Both responses indicated that victims either had no trust in the authorities or let their sexual harassment encounters be known only by their trusted close allies. It could be that the victims were afraid of the consequences especially from the perpetrators if the cases were made public. Literature from University World News in Zimbabwe (2021) reveals that victims of sexual harassment are not prepared to report because they are aware that those handling cases of sexual harassment lack confidentiality, therefore, victims avoid them (Kellie 2019). In addition to the reason cited above, victims may have feared that if cases were divulged to the perpetrators, worse problems could happen given that many decided to keep the harassment a secret. Supporting this view, SCGT indicates that a male dominated society can create women who are socialised to become docile and submissive to men where they are unable to challenge anything done to them by men (Holland et al. 2016). Based on this assertion from SCGT, it could mean that women in some gendered institutions do not enjoy their human rights and may be treated as unequal to men.

From the responses, victims of sexual harassment showed that they used telling or sharing with a friend as a coping strategy after sexual harassment. According to Fedina et al. (2016), victims of sexual harassment are affected psychologically or emotionally if they are unable to resolve their challenges on their own, consequently some tell allies. The student teachers in this study shared with friends. Fedina et al. (2016) further termed it an imbalance between the challenges faced by victims and their ability to resolve those challenges. This means that if the effects of stress as a result of sexual harassment outweigh their coping mechanism, they may suffer from distress. In this study, victims of sexual harassment were probably unable to cope with the effects of harassment because they did not possess stress management skills which were above the level of pressure they were suffering from. The psychological or emotional effects or imbalance manifests in the victim as stress, which is a situation where one's coping resources are overwhelmed by the challenges being faced (Bodenmann et al. 2017). Students who suffer from this scenario may end up having emotional challenges like developing a low level of self-esteem or even

withdrawal by deliberately isolating themselves from their peers as they suffer from a feeling of loneliness. From the TMS theory, Lazarus and Folkman 1984 in Gradus (2017) argue that for an event to be labelled as stressful it means that the individual would have interacted with their environment where they felt the demands of the problem were above the available resources, hence negative stress is witnessed (physiological and psychological distress). In this study negative stress would be a real problem for the affected student teachers because they would then fail to move on with their studies or with life due to the stressful scenario from sexual harassment effects.

The sentiments above concurred with lecturers' views as illustrated below. L4 at College B explained how psychosocial intervention worked:

Most of the cases are discussed between students themselves or among groups of students who trust each other. Some cases are shared between students and the warden but they seem not to strongly trust me.

The response from the lecturer shows students' unwillingness to divulge their sexual harassment encounters to college authorities or anyone they did not trust. The response reflects that students trusted other students and the warden as they could freely share their experiences and assist each other in coping with the sexual harassment. The responses identified peer sharing as an effective way of gaining support and coping ideas from trusted peers. While students trusted each other, apparently they did not trust lecturers as they were reluctant to share their sexual harassment encounters with them. The views of L4 above were supported by another lecturer, L2 at College A, who said: *On their own, students share information. Others inform their spouses and guardians.*

Responses from students and lecturers clearly showed that students shared their sexual harassment experiences with their close relatives and friends. Apart from sharing among themselves, it was noted that students were also free to share their sexual harassment encounters or experiences with their spouses and guardians. Literature (Vijayasiri 2008) shows that victims of sexual harassment are not prepared to report probably due to fear of being ostracised within the institution. Sharing of sexual harassment information was, thus, considered a very private affair which sharing could only happen with close friends or relatives. Holland et al. (2016) in relation to the SCGT lens assert that institutions that are highly patriarchal tend to make victims of sexual harassment, especially women, unwilling to openly complain about cases of sexual harassment for fear of ostracism.

Some students indicated that they were helped to cope with sexual harassment by their trained fellow students known as peer educators who offered them psychosocial support following the harassment. This was expressed by S9 at College C when he said:

Peer educators helped me together with my friends. However, as a man it is always difficult because some may view you as a weak person who can report harassment by women. Some people may hardly believe you if you tell them that you were harassed by women.

Psychosocial help offered by peer educators was also mentioned by L3 at College B when he said:

Groups like peer educators may also give other students some form of help so that they cope with the effects of sexual harassment.

From the response given by S9 and L3 at College 3, victims of sexual harassment also relied on the availability and effectiveness of peer educators who acted as support groups within each teacher training college. Literature (Mazambara et al. 2022) applauds support groups in tertiary institutions which are voluntary groups within communities designed to fulfil a common mandate or purpose. These support groups' main function is to provide psychosocial help, particularly to people suffering from particular problems. Their goal is to enable victims to live a normal life by overcoming psychosocial challenges and improving their coping skills (Cesario 2020). Here the issue of living a normal life was about the ability of the victims to cope with sexual harassment challenges and be able to overcome them. Normal life implies the ability to work well with others and perform as expected within their environment. Mazambara et al. (2020) suggest that in teacher training colleges, support groups come in the form of peer educators and, according to Keller (2020), peer education in tertiary education is a strategy where a selected small group of students are trained to assist others to cope with some psychosocial challenges, including the sexual and reproductive health rights of the students. Peer educators in teacher training colleges were understood as a group of volunteers who were trained in basic skills on managing students, especially on issues to do with psychosocial problems and sexual reproductive health that normally affected students within institutions. They were empowered to be able to identify fellow students in need of social or psychological help and would offer assistance if problems affecting the student were within their ability. However, often peer educators would refer students to the relevant office if the problem was beyond their capacity. Therefore, peer educators were trained in many aspects to be able to attend to other students' psychosocial challenges.

Findings from the preceding section showed that psychosocial coping through sharing with significant others was employed by the sexual harassment victims. In this strategy, the sexual harassment victims shared their experiences with trusted friends, spouses, peers and any other close family members. Counselling was identified as another form of psychosocial coping mechanism.

6.4.2 Counselling

Psychosocial support was also offered through the provision of counselling services by trained personnel within teacher training colleges. The colleges had professional counsellors who were working within these teacher training colleges to assist students with different psychosocial challenges. Kabir (2018) views counselling as an interpersonal interaction between a professional person (counsellor) and another

person who has a problem (client), with the intention of empowering the one with the problem so that they are able to resolve their problems. In other words, counselling is aimed at behaviour change on the part of the client or victim of sexual harassment. Therefore, counselling in this study was a confidential relationship between two people where the individual with a problem was assisted to overcome his or her difficulties.

Counselling emerged as a coping strategy that was resorted to by some victims of sexual harassment. Eight out of the 42 participants admitted to have used counselling as a coping mechanism to deal with their cases of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges. The following was a response from one of the participants, S4 at College B:

I went to our college counsellor and told her the problem I was facing. However, I told her that I did not want her to confront the lecturer because I feared his reaction if he knew that I have reported him to our college counsellor.

From the response of the student, she consulted the counsellor to obtain counselling services following sexual harassment, to help her cope. As highlighted above, the counselling was done in a private and confidential environment that the perpetrator was not aware of. Victims believed it was useful to be equipped with coping skills in order to deal with sexual harassment emotions. The effectiveness of counselling was supported by lecturers as shown below.

L3 at College B made the following comment about counselling:

Counselling is vital for the sexual harassment victims. Most of the cases that came to us as counsellors were dealt with from the perspectives of counsellors to help them cope. We do not share our issues with anyone except other counsellors if we are unable to help on our own.

Counselling was intended to help victims to cope with their emotions following sexual harassment. Both lecturers and victims in this study valued and acknowledged counselling as a psychosocial intervention in dealing with sexual harassment. That this was a private process, as highlighted by L3 above, seemingly gave victims some comfort. Literature (Cowan et al. 2020; Mazambara 2017) supports the value of counselling in assisting victims of sexual harassment to cope with the post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) as the provision of this psychotherapeutic treatment is offered at an individual level. The TMSC theory proponents acknowledge counselling as both an emotion-focused and a problem-focused psychosocial treatment because it addresses both the emotional side of the stressor and the source of the problem, in order to have a lasting solution to the victim's psychosocial challenges (Lokhmatkina 2015).

S4 at College A also indicated that she got emotional help from the college counsellor. She made this response: *Yes I was assisted by our college counsellor who taught me what I should say. She also assured me that there was nothing he (lecturer) could do to make me fail.* From the response, the issue of being failed was a threat that was made by the perpetrator. Perpetrators apparently used empty threats, taking advantage of ignorant students to keep on sexually harassing them. Counselling by the college counsellor or anyone within the environment of the victim offers immediate support in terms of the recovery or healing of the victim of sexual harassment (Dworkin and Schumacher 2016). This was the case with student participants S4 at College A and S4 at College B where counsellors were in their environments. TMS theory shows that victims of stress as a result of sexual harassment must be helped to identify the source of their stressors, as well as be equipped with the necessary skills in order to eliminate those stressors (Seegerstrom and Smith 2019). Being equipped with what to say and getting an assurance that the lecturer would not fail them must have encouraged the victim and given her some confidence to move on.

From the responses above, counselling offered a psychosocial intervention that helped victims of sexual harassment to cope. The counsellor demystified some myths about the role of lecturers in making students pass or fail their course. Counselling proved to be effective as shown by the support most victims of sexual harassment had. Based on the responses given, victims of sexual harassment accepted counselling as a strategy of coping with the effects of sexual harassment because it offered them psychosocial support and the services were provided privately and confidentially.

The above findings showed that counselling was a critical psychosocial coping mechanism which helped many student teachers to cope with the effects of sexual harassment. Avoidance is the next coping strategy to be presented.

6.5 Avoidance (Maladaptive coping)

Victims may not be prepared to face their stressor, hence would opt to completely avoid or use avoidance or disengagement as a coping mechanism. According to Balmore-Paulino (2018), avoidance or avoidant coping involves avoiding or escaping facing stressors in dealing with the problem. This coping mechanism involves cognitive or behavioural efforts aimed at quelling the immediate distress by minimising or denying facing the real challenge head on (Vohlidalova 2015). For example, one may stop thinking or feeling or doing certain activities which are difficult so as to avoid facing the problem. In this study failure to report or speak openly against or about their ordeal of sexual harassment was one way of avoidance coping mechanism that was adopted by victims of sexual harassment in this study.

Findings on how victims used avoidance as a way of coping with sexual harassment were revealed by S3 at College A when she said the following:

No, I avoided telling anyone about the issue of my sexual harassment experience. I feared the fact that if the perpetrator heard about it from anyone, I could get into a serious trouble. I also never bothered to confront him due to my extreme fear of his reaction. The issue just died a natural death.

Similarly, another victim, S3 at college C, had the following to say about avoidance:

My sexual harassment experience was not at all disclosed to anyone, not even my close friends or family members. I felt if I revealed it some of my peers would laugh at me for being a weak person in resisting sexual abuse. I, therefore, deliberately avoided sharing the experience with anyone around.

From the above responses it is clear that victims of sexual harassment avoided facing their stressors due to a number of reasons. Fear of further victimisation and stigmatisation from peers made the victims deliberately choose to be reluctant to face perpetrators of sexual harassment. Literature (Pickens 2019) in support of the issue of avoidance argues that the strategy is similar to denial by the victim to accept and face the stressor. The mechanism enables the victim to move away from the stressor in an attempt to or with the intention of reducing the negative effects of the stressor. Further to that, avoidance is viewed as a method of preventing anxiety and stress, especially when the stressor is interpreted by the victim as unmanageable.

This section analysed avoidance as a coping mechanism where the victims do not face the perpetrator directly as a strategy to manage sexual harassment negative effects. One subtheme that emerged under avoidance was keeping quiet which is discussed below.

6.5.1 Keeping Quiet

Based on the responses obtained, 13 lecturers and students indicated that many victims of sexual harassment were silent: they avoided talking about the harassment to anyone. The victims apparently dealt with their emotional issues quietly without involving anyone. In the eyes of others, it appeared as if they were not affected by the effects of sexual harassment. Lecturer L2 at College A said the following in relation to the issue of avoidance: *Some just hide their feelings. They just struggle quietly until they recover on their own.* This response concurred with what S2 at College B said: *No one helped me since I did not share with anyone*

S2 at College C indicated that a high level of stigmatisation may make victims prefer to be quiet about the abuse perpetrated on them: *I kept quiet since I could not get the courage to tell someone. Most students keep problems to themselves because they are afraid of further victimisation by other students if they report.* The two students and the lecturer concur that victims of sexual harassment do not involve anyone

or tell anyone about the harassment. The victims did not even try to seek help to resolve the emotional challenges emanating from the sexual harassment. Avoidance or the escape coping mechanism is described by Shen and Slater (2021) as a maladaptive form of coping where the victim avoids dealing with the stressors directly. In this study the victims preferred to pretend that they were not affected by the harassment: they struggled with their emotions alone without any help from anyone. It is generally assumed that victims who preferred silence or avoidance were afraid of confronting their perpetrators notwithstanding that they were unable to fight the scourge of sexual harassment on their own. Cowan et al. (2020) support the use of TMSC as a form of coping style which uses avoidance where the victim deliberately avoids confronting the harasser for fear of further victimisation. The avoidance coping style, according to Stanislawski (2019), relies on the victim avoiding facing the stressor and working alone through their own stressful emotions until they recover from the bad feelings and emotions associated with sexual harassment effects. While sexual harassment seemed to be a widespread phenomenon within organisations of higher learning, the cases were left unreported as victims opted to be silent about it. Silence according to Garret and Hassan (2019) is failure by the sexual harassment victim to disclose to anyone or to allow any person to take up the case of harassment perpetrated on them. Failure to report or speak out about sexual harassment was common to female student teachers though some male student teachers, as will be seen later, also indicated that they kept quiet about their sexual harassment experiences.

Similar sentiments of failure to report were echoed by another student, S2 at College C below:

Nothing, but I suffered privately. Was afraid and not sure what I could do about the issue. As a student one may suffer from indecision and confusion because you may not know the repercussions of reporting a lecturer to the authorities or any staff. You may not be sure how the authorities will handle your case whether they will support you or make you suffer more because you are fighting people in authority.

The failure by victims to face their perpetrator or reveal the name was caused by the fact that the perpetrator was of a higher status and as such could not be challenged or exposed. The victim indicated that she was afraid that she would be victimised more by other people in authority for exposing harassment perpetrated by their colleague who was also in authority. S2 at College C felt that reporting him would make the people in authority feel threatened which could lead to her being punished. Literature (Fernando 2018) shows that silence is always associated with negative outcomes. Negative results, such as poor life satisfaction, greater depressive and anxiety symptoms, as well as neuroticism, may develop (Folkman et al. 1986a in Cowan et al. 2020). In the case of these student teachers, this was likely to affect their studies and their health. Neuroticism refers to a trait disposition where one may experience anxiety,

irritability, emotional instability, fear and depression (Widiger and Oltmanns 2017). Neurotic people are usually prone to struggling to cope with any form of stress.

Another victim, S1 at College B, explaining her silence about a sexual harassment encounter indicated fear of being laughed at. She said:

I did not talk about it at all to anyone because I felt people would laugh at me that I was dull and morally loose. I consoled myself until the pain reduced slowly till I healed. When I heard other stories by my colleagues, I realised that there are people who take advantage of others because of lack of knowledge.

The two victims above reflected lack of knowledge, confusion and indecision and fear of the unknown repercussions of reporting or fighting authority in dealing with sexual harassment. They did not know what to do when they were sexually harassed by lecturers as student teachers. Further, the general fear of reporting their lecturers inhibited them from proceeding to speak out about the abuse to anyone. Literature extracted from the work of Heise (2016) supports the idea that victims of sexual harassment prefer to keep quiet about the harassment perpetrated on them. Women may not speak out about their sexual harassment because they are not sure about the reaction of their lecturers and peers in institutions (Garret and Hassan 2019). This was the case with S1 at College B who was afraid of being laughed at, stigmatised and labelled as a person of loose morals. The fear of being stigmatised because one is presumed to be of a loose character may have made S1 of College B be silent about the harassment perpetrated on her. Heise (2016) describes the backlash of sexual harassment as strong negative reactions from the people around the victim. This is probably what S1 was afraid of and in this study, “people” here referred to the college community. Consequently, for these reasons the victims chose to nurse their pain silently until they recovered on their own without informing anyone or involving other people.

The SCGT indicates that blame shifting of violence from the perpetrator to the victim (where they were labelled as loose) is a social construct which reflects the dominance of men over women in all societies (Alexander et al. 2016). This appeared to have been the fear that S1 had that authorities at the college were not likely to believe her story. Raihai (2017) argues that women are constantly being blamed for the sexual harassment that they go through as perpetrators often accuse them of provoking and attracting perpetrators to harass them. Another reason for blaming women may be that some women exaggerate or fabricate sexual harassment encounters because they harbour ulterior motives for their reporting (Solnit 2018). Brownmiller (2013), using the lens of SCGT, believes that in male dominated societies there are stereotypes which make women blame themselves for sexual harassment perpetrated on them.

Other female student teachers did not report cases of sexual harassment because they were not ready for the consequences of reporting: all they wanted was just to pass the course and leave the college. S4 at College A exemplified such a scenario saying:

Firstly, I kept quiet because I wanted to pass my exam so I was afraid to make him angry since I thought that he would make me fail. Was also not sure whether to tell my friends because I did not know their reaction if I tell them.

Another victim of sexual harassment, S6 at College B, concurred with the above response, saying:

I suffered in silence and did not bother to disclose this to anyone. I felt if I tell anyone I would jeopardise my research and end up failing it.

Victims of sexual harassment from the responses above did not speak out but wanted to maintain peace and complete their studies. Literature (Keplinger et al. 2019) says that sexual harassment victims may choose to be quiet about their harassment as a way of ensuring that their programme results are not involved in controversy. In other words, they may fear losing out on their studies in the event of an altercation with lecturers. Dube et al. (2019) agree when they say that women may remain quiet about sexual harassment to avoid being at the centre of conflicts which may have a devastating outcome on their side. Dube et al. (2019) further argue that women would rather endure the pain of sexual harassment on their own than “ruffle feathers” which may have undesirable consequences on their side. This was the case with S5 of College C who feared the outcome of reporting. She had this to say: *I did not tell even my friends. I was extremely afraid of failing.* The student did not have the guts to report for fear of the negative outcomes to do with her course. She wanted to maintain peace and quietly pass her programme, therefore, she had to be silent about the sexual harassment which was perpetrated on her.

Based on the perspective of SCGT, social norms and some cultural beliefs within some learning institutions reinforce the objectification and inferior status of women (Hardies 2019). This stance reduces the value of women against men, hence they may not complain openly for fear of losing out. Women in such situations would rather be silent and maintain a peaceful environment so that they protect their status. Heilman and Barker (2018) in agreement argue that some social norms create inequalities which make women culturally weak against men, hence they seldom succeed when there is tension between them and their male lecturers. From the above responses, victims of sexual harassment remained quiet in order to ensure “harmony and tranquillity” which would guarantee their academic success.

Trivialisation of sexual harassment contributed in making women student teachers feel that reporting was not necessary. Herlihy et al. (2017) define trivialisation of sexual harassment as the minimisation or

downplaying of the serious effects of sexual harassment. Trivialisation of sexual harassment is embedded in our culture where responsibility to halt harassment rests with the victim and not the perpetrator. In this case, it was the responsibility of the victims to report, but for reasons highlighted above they decided to keep quiet. Schriber (2020) concurs with Son (2017) that trivialisation of sexual harassment involves viewing men as intrinsically violent, hence if they perpetuate sexual violence, it is regarded as acceptable for men to behave in that manner. Therefore, it may not be talked about and the behaviour of the sexual harassment perpetrator is taken as natural and as an acceptable phenomenon. Violence by men in communities is naturalised and minimised and reinforced in institutions. Apart from the above aspects, trivialisation of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges as suggested by Herlihy et al. (2017) is encouraged by the way the institutions are run and by their cultural practices which are patriarchal in nature and tend to favour men over women. In this case, a scenario is portrayed by the way in which cases of sexual harassment are handled in teacher training colleges, as there often is a lack of seriousness when perpetrators are men harassing women. Some institutions may take it as natural behaviour of men without seriously reprimanding perpetrators against committing offences of a sexual nature.

S2 at College B with regard to trivialisation of the impact of sexual harassment said:

I did not tell anyone since I thought that it was not serious, though I could see that the lecturer was demanding something from me.

S2 at College C supported the above response saying:

*Most of the cases are not reported as sometimes we think that they are normal.
No help was given in this case.*

Students' responses show that victims apparently took sexual harassment as a normal kind of a relationship that existed in all teachers' training colleges despite the fact that they were not comfortable with such relationships. When victims take harassment as common behaviour associated with college life, they end up feeling that it is the culture of all colleges, hence they do not challenge or make noise about it. Hardies (2019) from the literature reviewed supports that trivialisation of sexual harassment is sustained by power imbalances between male perpetrators of sexual harassment and their female victims within teacher training colleges. Therefore, in this research silence to report sexual harassment was probably caused by the victims' acceptance of the behaviour of harassers as a norm that is commonly acceptable at teacher training colleges.

Apart from the above notions, responses given by the two participants show that there was a shared or internalised perception held by the people within the selected institutions. The belief held about men and the issue of sexual harassment discouraged reporting because cases were not taken seriously, not

considered as crimes worth pursuing. Thus, making the perpetrators account for their abuses was likely to be ignored. Literature (Son 2017) supports the above views that trivialisation of sexual harassment involves non-penalisation of perpetrators of sexual violence, hence indirectly encouraging them to go on as if it was a lawful act. Trivialisation of sexual harassment may also give rise to gender inferiority as men are given some preferential treatment to do whatever they want with women who may not be listened to even if they strongly complain about being sexually harassed (Hardies 2019).

Non-reporting is a coping strategy which is related to avoidance, drawing on TMSC theory as it reduces direct confrontation with a problem which the victim is unable to solve (Ben-Zur 2020). One may just work alone to regulate one's emotions so that one copes with the problem. Such a coping mechanism, according to Ben-Zur (2020), falls under emotion-based coping strategies. According to Son (2017), this emotion-based coping strategy is when the victim avoids facing their problem directly, trying to reduce some negative impact of the stress by temporarily ignoring the stressor, for example, reducing anxiety, fear or frustration by becoming less reactive to the impact of stress. Scott (2020) concurs with Son (2017) that this coping mechanism, which occurs when the victim has no capacity to change the stressor, has temporary benefits and is regarded as maladaptive.

The avoidance coping mechanism where victims of sexual harassment opt to keep quiet was also necessitated by perpetrators who introduced some benefits to buy the silence of the victims. For example, S2 at College A explained:

Due to the fact that the relationship could have been strengthened by availability of some favours and benefits to the students, the victim (student) may not resist or complain about it directly. When the harassment is associated with benefits like being assisted in the assignments and tests in terms of marks, the perpetrator may not complain or report sexual harassment.

In the same vein L1 at College B had the following response:

Our students are going through a tough time financially. The demands of the college are many but students do not have money. Our students want to pass at all cost hence are prepared to do whatever for them to go through.

From the responses above, where sexual harassment was perpetrated, reporting was unlikely because of the incentives given to the victims. In such cases victims were probably given assistance in cash or kind to pass their courses in return for sexual services to the perpetrators. In such cases victims would not report the perpetrators as victims would be in a dilemma given their desperate need for financial or other resource support. Literature (Diradtsile 2018) relates to this as the “norm of reciprocity exchanges”. This

is where people who are offered some rewards or favour or any benefit would always return the favour without making noise about it. In cases where victims of sexual harassment were given some rewards their silence was bought, hence they would not speak out about sexual harassment perpetrated on them by someone who had offered them something.

Avoidance coping strategy was also used by some male victims who had been harassed by female perpetrators. S 10 at College B said the following:

I felt ashamed to tell people. I kept it to myself. Sometimes as men people may laugh at you for reporting sexual harassment by women. You need to learn on your own how you can fight harassment by women so that your dignity is not affected if you tell people about the harassment.

The above response showed how the man felt about the idea of reporting sexual harassment due to embarrassment to disclose it to other people. Culturally it brings shame for a man to openly share with someone about their sexual harassment by a woman. The response is consistent with the SCGT which says that men who are sexually harassed or violated suffer from shame, embarrassment and stigma if they open up about their experience (Ordway 2018). Men, like women, are also afraid of being ridiculed in society if they report harassment perpetrated on them by women because they would be accused of lacking in masculinity. In a patriarchal society it is a shame for men to openly show pain as this reflects a sign of being weak (Chynoweth 2017). Therefore, from this perspective men would rather suffer quietly than openly report cases of sexual harassment perpetrated on them. The idea of being laughed at made the above victim suffer in silence as he wanted to maintain his dignity as a man.

Findings from lecturers also showed that failure by the teacher training colleges to set up sexual harassment reporting procedures or rules and penalties that regulate the conduct of both lecturers and students, gave rise to failure by victims to report cases of sexual harassment experienced. It appears the environment was not conducive and receptive to the victims' complaints. L4 at College B explained:

Lack of seriousness on the part of Ministry of higher and tertiary education on the issue in terms of gathering information and expediting the crafting of the sexual harassment penalties as well as making sexual harassment part of the syllabus in contemporary subjects that students are taught about it contributes to many of these cases.

The response above suggested that lack of sexual harassment penalties in teacher training colleges was a contributing factor to victims' keeping quiet about their ordeals of harassment by staff. Participants' failure to report or defend themselves could also be attributed to lack of procedures to follow and knowledge. Literature (Htun and Jensenius 2020) in agreement argues that sloppy handling of sexual

harassment cases discourages reporting by the victims. Mukeredzi (2017) supports the idea by saying that harassment information gaps and poor reporting procedures have inhibited reporting of sexual harassment cases within the teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. From the response it was noted that reporting was difficult because of the setup of people in leadership. In the three sampled colleges one college had a female principal while all three of the colleges had male vice-principals which could also contribute towards non-reporting by female students for fear of reporting to men who may be the same as their perpetrators. This view was supported from literature (Dahl and Knepper 2021) where reporting sexual harassment may be problematic for female students if supervisory positions in the organisation are occupied by men.

Further, findings showed that a number of victims were not prepared to report sexual harassment cases to authorities. It was assumed that reporting procedures were not known or friendly, hence the victims were not comfortable to do it (University World News in Zimbabwe 2021).

From the discussion above, the avoidance coping mechanism was resorted to by several victims of sexual harassment in this study. Participants resorted to silence due to fear of further victimisation by perpetrators, fear of stigmatisation by the college community, embarrassment and shame associated with sexual harassment, trivialisation, and naturalisation of the harassment. Limited knowledge about harassment and lack of relevant procedures to follow, together with unclear rules and ignorance about reporting, all contributed towards avoidance coping by victims of sexual harassment in this study. Avoidance coping strategy as discussed above is a method of evading stress or escaping from stress so that one does not face it directly. In this case victims avoided confronting the stressor, opting to be quiet about it. TMSC theory acknowledges the temporary relief which can be enjoyed through this form of coping strategy. However, again from the TMSC theory, avoidant coping strategy is a form of maladaptive strategy which cannot be sustained for a long time since its relief is short term. Another coping strategy that emerged from the data is problem-based coping discussed in the following section.

6.6 Problem-based coping

Problem-based coping involves task oriented or active behavioural strategies which are designed to find solutions to the stressors. Smith and Keefer (2016) view such strategies as adaptive in nature. Approaches to problem-based coping include reporting the sexual harassment.

6.6.1 Reporting

Nine of the 42 participants indicated that they reported the sexual harassment to the authorities. Reporting involves alerting or informing people in authority or those of influence about the harassment perpetrated on someone or yourself in a bid to seek justice and solve the problem (Quick and MacFadyen 2017). Findings from the study revealed that some victims reported the sexual harassment cases to the relevant

authorities to expose perpetrators and halt the continuous harassment which was going on within the teacher training colleges. Reporting was a form of revenge to make perpetrators of sexual violence pay for their harassment by embarrassing them. Some lecturers believed that revenge was a way of coping with anger and bitterness by the victims of sexual harassment. L3 at College A said:

Others may wish to set a trap for the perpetrator to be also trapped. We have seen some perpetrators being reported and exposed by their victims. Some victims realise that perpetrators may not go through reprimands so they just take the law into their own hands and make sure the perpetrators are thoroughly humiliated.

From the response above victims who are empowered were able to report the harassment perpetrated on them as a way of fighting harassment. The courage some victims had was influenced by their knowledge of their rights and appreciation that perpetrators could be punished for harassing them.

This method of coping with stress (reporting) is generally recommended for its ability to permanently solve the problem because it uses adaptive mechanism in facing the stressor. A case in point is that of S5 at College A below where reporting saved the victim from further harassment and completely resolved the problem as the perpetrator ran away in order to avoid being embarrassed and severely punished by being thrown in jail for a rape case. From the stand point of the TMSC, this coping strategy is regarded as a problem-focused approach where the victim faces the stressor head-on. While it needs courage and often support, it may be difficult to implement, notwithstanding its ability to make a real change in ensuring that the victim adjusts well to the problem (Gradus 2017; Sgoifo et al. 2017).

S5 at College A said the following in relation to reporting:

I told my roommate and she advised me to report to our dean of students. After the report was made, it was treated as rape case. The police were informed. The accused person disappeared from work before court date.

A similar view was shared by participant, L1 at College C below: *I believe they discuss among themselves and then report to the dean of students.*

From the above responses, the participants reported some cases to the relevant authorities to get the problem addressed. This showed that some empowered students had the courage and support to report. However, in the selected teacher training colleges, the Deans of Students were women at the time of this study, which probably made it easier for some victims to report sexual harassment cases. This attitude of reporting by female students to a female in office is also supported by literature where Silinda (2018) believes that females are comfortable to report sexual harassment to other females in authority. Males in

offices of authority are regarded as the same as perpetrators, therefore, most females do not trust reporting to them.

University World News in Zimbabwe (2021) in support of the issue of reporting cases of sexual harassment emphasises that formulation of relevant legislation in Zimbabwe teacher training colleges may enhance reporting as the bill could help criminalise sexual harassment. Responses above showed that reporting was still low as evidenced by the few cases formally reported (9 out of 42). Drawing on the TMSC, Bondenmann et al. (2017) emphasise this approach as an active problem-focused coping strategy which is effective in dealing with sexual harassment as it works directly to change a stressful situation. The theory shows that an active coping strategy is an adaptive coping mechanism which has long lasting solutions as it tackles the problem directly (Biggs et al. 2017).

Problem-focused coping mechanism through reporting perpetrators of sexual harassment within teacher training institutions yielded positive results because it produced a permanent solution especially the victim of sexual harassment. S6 at College C in line with reporting said the following:

I reported to the dean's office after noticing that the issue was getting worse. The report I made helped so much because I got a lot of information on what I could do in future if I encounter the same level of harassment again. The lecturer was also called and asked about the issue.

Problem-focused coping strategy through reporting had the potential to address all the stresses which came as a result of sexual harassment. From what the victim said, reporting paid off by completely stopping the harassment as the perpetrator was confronted by the dean. In addition, reporting to the dean provided an opportunity for the victim to get more guidance on how to prevent or handle harassment in future. This perspective of the value of problem-focused coping mechanism through reporting was supported by the TMSC. Problem-focused coping approach according to TMSC is a proactive mechanism meant to bring out a more permanent solution to a prevailing challenge (Kim et al. 2021).

From the foregoing discussion, reporting sexual harassment as a problem-focused coping strategy was undertaken by a few courageous and extroverted victims in the selected teacher training colleges. However, it emerged that the reports were made to Deans' offices. Sexual harassment victims found it easier to report to the deans as these were women. One can conclude that sexual harassment female student teachers are likely to report the harassment if dean's offices are occupied by women. Findings also indicated that the perpetrators of the sexual harassment who were reported suffered the consequences. In addition, reporting was effective as it brought permanent relief to the victims of sexual harassment. This problem-focused coping mechanism enabled the sexual harassment problems to be directly addressed in order to achieve the required solution, which was the case with S5 and S6 as highlighted

above. What also emerged was that student teachers needed encouragement to report so that sexual harassment maybe brought under control. The previous section presented on the problem-focused coping mechanism where victims of sexual harassment used strategies of confronting the harasser through reporting to ensure the behaviour was stopped. The next section provides a summary of the chapter.

6.7 Chapter Summary

Victims of sexual harassment adopted different coping mechanisms. Findings indicated that victims of sexual harassment adopted three major coping strategies to deal with the effects of sexual harassment: psychosocial intervention; avoidance; and reporting.

Psychosocial intervention emerged in two forms: sharing with significant others and counselling. Victims of sexual harassment shared with their peers, friends or colleagues in order to find solutions to the problems. Some victims shared with their spouses and other family members, as well as peer educators, as a way of coping with the stresses caused by sexual harassment. Psychosocial support was also offered through counselling as a coping mechanism by professional counsellors at teacher training colleges. The trained counsellors helped a lot of victims of sexual harassment to cope with the effects of sexual harassment.

Secondly, avoidance was used by victims of sexual harassment as another coping strategy in dealing with the effects of sexual harassment. Victims used that method by simply avoiding or keeping quiet about their experience of harassment without divulging their encounter. The method was opted for because the victims were afraid of the outcome of reporting, hence they chose to avoid confronting the perpetrator of sexual harassment.

Finally, some victims of sexual harassment reported their cases to the relevant authorities, such as the Dean of Students or College Counsellor, in order to seek a permanent solution to their problem. It was also noted that sexual harassment in teacher training colleges was apparently rampant on female students as compared to their male counterparts.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS: Factors Contributing to the Prevalence of Sexual Harassment in Teacher Training Colleges in Zimbabwe

7.1 Introduction

This study examined student teachers' experiences of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe, the coping strategies adopted and factors contributing to student harassment in selected colleges. The previous chapter analysed and presented data on how pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. The sexually harassed student teachers responded to the effects of sexual harassment in a variety of ways. Psychosocial intervention, avoidance, and problem-focused coping strategies emerged as the primary coping mechanisms employed by student teachers to deal with sexual harassment. Data presentation and analysis in this chapter attempts to answer the question about the factors that contribute to sexual harassment in selected teachers' colleges. The question addressed is: *What are the factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in Teacher Training Colleges?*

Like in the previous chapters, in discussing and presenting findings, I draw on literature and my theoretical framework to show how the findings could be viewed from a theoretical lens. As alluded to earlier, this study is grounded in two theories: Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC) as the theoretical framework. Data to address Research Question Three were generated through face-to-face interviews.

Codes are employed to identify research sites and participants to ensure anonymity: Colleges are identified as A, B and C (College A, B and C)

Lecturers are identified as L1-L4 (Lecturer 1-Lecturer 4)

Students are identified as S1-S10 (Student 1-Student10)

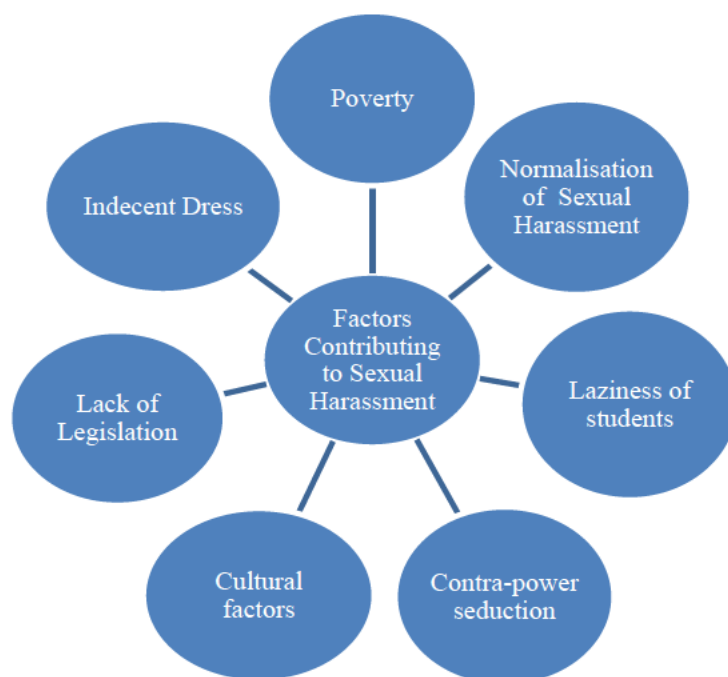
Following this introduction, I discuss themes and subthemes that emerged.

7.2 Themes and Subthemes

In responding to Research Question Three on the factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training college seven major themes emerged: poverty; normalisation of sexual harassment; laziness of students; lack of legislation; indecent dress; contra-power seduction; and culture.

These are reflected in Figure 8.1 and discussed thereafter.

Figure 7.1 Factors Contributing to the Prevalence of Sexual Harassment in Teacher Training Colleges



Source: Researcher 2022

7.2.1 Poverty

19 participants from both staff and student teachers pointed out that poverty and/or lack of relevant resources triggered sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Sub-themes of poverty that emerged related to material benefits and financial resources. What emerged was that student teachers needed these resources in order to have smooth training. Gweshengwe and Hassan (2020) define poverty as a severe lack of basic resources needed by an individual in order to have standard living conditions, and the presence of such lack prohibits one from leading a normal life. In this study poverty referred to the lack of critical resources that the affected student teachers required for their training and day-to-day upkeep in college. The ‘lack’ situations were often prevalent among those student teachers coming from economically poor families.

Responses from lecturers indicated lack of resources as one of the factors that contributed to students’ poverty and consequent vulnerability to sexual harassment. Lecturer L1 at College C explained: *Other students lack basic requirements for the programme. Some men offer these things in return for sexual favours. Even male students are also a target.*

The above response shows that lack of resources located both female and male student teachers as targets of sexual harassment because both needed money and other resources in order to progress and complete their studies. L1 at College B concurred with the above assertion saying:

Our students are going through a tough time financially. The demands of the college are many but students do not have money. Our students want to pass at all cost hence, are prepared to do whatever it takes for them to go through the course.

From the response above, poverty gave rise to student teachers giving in to sexual harassment in order to survive, proceed with teacher training and get a qualification. Lack of adequate financial resources compromises the dignity and morality of the student teacher (Gukurume 2021). The responses given by the participants reflect that student teachers were determined to obtain a teaching qualification regardless of the challenges. It would appear that student teachers saw a teaching qualification as the only way out of poverty. In many communities a student teacher who failed to complete their teaching qualification for whatever reason was stigmatised and ostracised (UNAIDS 2018). This was probably the reason why some student teachers were vulnerable, hence the attitude to want to complete the programme despite setbacks. In addition, student teachers from low income families often dream of turning around family poverty by attaining a teaching qualification and getting employed. Chinyoka and Mutamba (2020) in support of this view argue that the tense political and economic conditions prevailing in the country made the government of Zimbabwe unable to subsidise tertiary education, leaving everything to the individual students and their families. This situation made it difficult for some student teachers to achieve their desired goal of improving their family's economic situation. Participant S2 at College C in support of lack of financial support said:

Some students want favours from lecturers and any other person in the position of authority or from someone with the resources that they want. Poor students who also lack financial support are always vulnerable to being harassed. Tertiary institutions need to do more to support its student teachers. In fact, this is the role of the government to cushion its student teachers against economic hardships; it is these hardships that make students more prone to being sexually harassed.

The responses given by the lecturers pointed to the dilemma which some students from poor families suffered from. Based on what the participants said, tertiary education student teachers no longer got financial support from the government of Zimbabwe through loans and grants which were previously offered. Such loans would sustain the poor students in college and probably minimise their vulnerability to sexual harassment.

Similar sentiments were echoed by student S3 at College A when she made the following comment:

Lack of the required needs by students especially females, therefore, making them wanting to be assisted in return for sexual favours. The cost of training is continually going up to such an extent that some people may want to be assisted financially especially by those

who are economically stable. Ladies are easily taken advantage of because of their economic desperation.

The findings above imply that the cost of education continued to skyrocket putting the student teachers at risk of being sexually harassed as the perpetrators capitalised on their need for funding during teacher training. This implied that tertiary education had become expensive as every cost was borne solely by the student's guardian, parent or family (Shizha and Kariwo 2016). This then left some students with limited financial resources for college upkeep and other programme requirements.

The above assertions about student teachers giving in to sexual harassment because of poverty in return for sexual favours were alluded to by Gukurume (2021) who argues that transactional sexual relationships are a common phenomenon in Zimbabwean institutions. Transactional sex is generally viewed as a non-commercial relationship but is motivated by an implicit assumption that sex would be exchanged for material support and other needed benefits where participants often describe themselves as boyfriend and girlfriend or lovers rather than clients and sex workers, which is common with commercial sex work. The exchange embedded in these relationships is not formally negotiated and is often linked to sexual acts (UNAIDS 2018). Scarce financial resources in the midst of growing student enrolments in teacher training colleges compel students, especially females, to venture into what Gukurume (2021) calls the *campus sexual economy*. The protracted economic crisis in Zimbabwe generally and in institutions of higher learning in particular, made female student teachers vulnerable to transactional sex (Gukurume 2021). Participant S7 at College C said the following:

Poverty causes sexual abuse because you will be given things that you do not have for both male and female students. Students need financial assistance from government so that there is smooth sailing. Therefore, lack of financial support naturally put women at a bad position to resist sexual harassment from men who have the scarce financial resources.

Responses which came from students emphasised that education at tertiary level continued to go up, making it very difficult for student teachers to afford it. Therefore, student teachers required much funding in order to meet the costs. Based on the arguments put forward by student teachers, as long as there was no assistance from the government students would always be prone to sexual abuse as they tried to find financial and material support. Sexual harassment perpetrators being aware of the financial predicament student teachers found themselves in always capitalised on that, thereby contributing to sexual harassment.

Literature (Mugodzwa et al. 2013) in support of the above indicates that due to higher education costs, institutions of higher learning in Zimbabwe have given rise to student teacher prostitution for them to

manage the financial demands of their learning. Using the lens of SCGT, the issue of financial inequality gave rise to transactional sexual relationships and sexual harassment of women and girls. This is clearly what was happening in the selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. The theory further shows that, in a patriarchal society, women have been marginalised such that their choice for a better life has been limited. The exchange of sex and material support and other benefits extends from gendered expectations. Men are expected to provide material goods while women offer sex. UNAIDS (2018) using the assumptions of social construction of gender theory, argues that, apart from the said views, in a patriarchal society women are economically marginalised. Therefore, transactional sex may become similar to prostitution where some student teachers do it to supplement fees and other financial requirements in colleges. Highly gendered labour markets put women at an economic disadvantage compared to men (Gichane et al. 2022).

Research findings above revealed that poverty or lack of resources is one of the major factors which contributes to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. The impact of the high cost of teacher education on student teachers generally from poor financial backgrounds made them vulnerable to sexual harassment. Due to poverty, the student teachers gave in to sexual harassment to access resources – financial and/or material – that they desperately needed to sustain themselves during teacher training. Normalisation of sexual harassment was another factor that contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teachers' colleges.

7.2.2 Normalisation of sexual harassment

11 of the 42 participants stated that normalisation of sexual harassment was another factor which could be attributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Normalisation involves trivialisation and minimising sexual harassment within teacher training colleges in order to make it appear like a normal activity so that everyone accepts or views it as a normal phenomenon. According to Karami et al. (2021) normalisation of sexual harassment is a tactic used to desensitise an individual to abusive or inappropriate behaviour. It involves manipulation of another human being to accept sexual harassment committed on them as lawful or acceptable. Normalisation of sexual harassment is further perceived as an act of accepting a culture of sexual harassment which violates and takes the other person's rights as trivial (Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020). For example, in a patriarchal system violence on women is acceptable as it is a woman's responsibility to stop that violence, therefore, the blame is leveled against women for behaving in a way that makes men sexually harass them (Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020). In other words, when a student is sexually harassed, it is the student teacher's fault and they should accept the blame. Raihani (2017) weighs in, when he says that the blame game for men is a defense mechanism used in order that men socially protect themselves against being criticised for abusing women but instead criticise women for bringing about sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

The following is what one participant, S4 at College B, said about normalisation of sexual harassment at teacher training colleges:

Lecturers normally take advantage of the situation of the student teachers to get what they want. Most of these people have become habitual sexual harassers and have done this over years without facing any penalties for harassing students. Some are aware that students have no knowledge of sexual harassment. In some colleges the culture of harassment has become rampant. For example, when going on sports people may be selected because they are girlfriends of certain staff members.

The response above points to a culture of sexual harassment which has been entrenched in the institutions where the phenomenon has been taken as normal or acceptable behaviour. Plan International (2020) argues that the high prevalence of many forms of sexually abusive behaviour shows how sexual harassment has been normalised in society. The behaviour is not only tolerated but is now excused. From the responses, student teachers and lecturers view sexual harassment as a behaviour which is socially acceptable: there is nothing wrong with it. From the perspective of SCGT, sexual harassment, especially on females, is an expression of power and gender inequality. It reproduces and reinforces the idea that females' bodies are subject to men's desires and ownership (Jura and Bukaliya 2015). From what S4 at College B above said, it could be surmised that some of the victims of sexual harassment had no idea of what constituted sexual harassment, hence were not able to detect when they encountered it as they thought that it was just a normal behaviour at college and did not know their own rights to challenge the harassment. This contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

The idea of blindly accepting the fact that men are allowed to sexually harass women at will was echoed by S2 at College A, who said:

Definitely culture has a role to play in making men real "bulls". Culture rewards men who are seen to have sexual prowess hence this can be seen by those who may have many sexual relations...

For S2, victims of sexual harassment came to accept men as people allowed to sexually harass women, equating them to bulls. Perpetrators in such cases took advantage of this ignorance of the victims. Such lack of knowledge about sexual harassment perpetrated on them led to them not speaking out against it (Plan international 2020). Literature (Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020) supports the above view when it says that authorities in organisations have made gender-based violence acceptable and have perpetuated the culture of harassment. Such issues of unprofessional behaviour by lecturers and other staff contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. From the responses, sexual harassment had become a culture where the behaviour of some professionals was questionable because of the sexual

harassment culture they perpetuated in the colleges. The SCGT, according to Mawere (2021), shows that many organisations in Zimbabwe are based on a sexist ideology where there is male dominance and superiority. Therefore, sexual harassment is regarded as a weapon to sustain the status quo, hence men (male lecturers and male staff), the beneficiaries of sexual harassment, are not prepared to see change taking place. The unequal power relations and patriarchal system have been responsible for sustaining sexual harassment where little is done to ensure that the behaviour is stopped (Mawere 2021).

The following is what S9 at College C said on why sexual harassment was prevalent in the teacher training colleges:

Some people are just abusers and they believe no one can stop them from doing that behaviour of sexual abuse is now rampant in the college; therefore, everyone sees it as a normal thing.

The above statement reflects a lack of professionalism which emanates from a culture of impunity. The culture could have been deep rooted due to the failure of the system or organisations to speak out critically about this behaviour. In some situations, students ended up taking sexual harassment as a norm as no one was brought to task after committing a sexual harassment crime. SCGT through Lim et al. (2018) shows that a strong patriarchal tradition, aggravated by sheer misogynistic behavior, systematically influences the harassment of female students. Kukla (2020) defines misogynistic as a tendency to have hatred for or prejudice against women especially in a patriarchal system. The SCGT views this structural system that reinforces patriarchy as playing a part in influencing the sexual harassment of women (Kukla 2020). In the context of this study, this culture of harassment of female student teachers was localised within teacher training colleges probably because of the type of administration of those particular institutions. Literature (Jura and Bakaliya 2015) concurs with the above notion pointing out that people in posts of responsibility may be notorious for sexually harassing students, thereby setting the culture of harassment within the institutions. Sexual harassment can be influenced by a tendency by some institutions to accept harassment within those institutions as a non-event. The staff within such teacher training colleges would take sexual harassment as just a natural phenomenon, hence this facilitated the perpetuation of that behavior. Whether or not this localisation of sexual harassment was happening in the institutions explored could not clearly be established.

Tolerance of sexual harassment is a common practice which contributes to the prevalence of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges. Shi and Zheng (2020) define tolerance as the capacity for someone to endure or accept something despite the painful consequences it brings. Patriarchal societies tolerate sexual harassment of women by men. In this case male lecturers seemed to accept and tolerate sexual harassment because they take it to be normal because they give less value to women, especially

female student teachers. S2 at College B explained the following showing how society tolerated sexual harassment of female students by male lecturers and other staff:

Yes colleges have some practices which may not be favourable especially to female students because they have little value they give to women. For example, they may suppress the feelings of us female student teachers and favouring male lecturers and male staff members. Male staff members are given room to abuse female students without being cautioned.

A similar view where male staff is “allowed” to be abusive was echoed by L3 at College C when he said: *Some take harassment to be normal and they said aaah varume ndizvo zvavanoita vanonyenga kunyangwe vane mhuri (men are like that they continue looking for more sexual relations even if they are married).*

Both quotations from the student and lecturer participants above revealed that culture tolerated the sexual harassment behaviour of men, hence there was nothing which could be done about it. Shi and Zheng (2020) assert that attitudes in many patriarchal societies have accepted men as sexual beasts and women have endured the painful effects of being sexually harassed as normal experience that all women pass through in life. In the teacher training colleges, sexual harassment was widely accepted as a way of life by staff and female student teachers. The attitude of tolerance has helped contribute to and sustain sexual harassment in many organisations (Herovic et al. 2019). However, sexual harassment tolerance does not only exist at the macro level: it also exists at a micro level in the teacher training colleges, as the people therein are sub-societies of the wider society which portray societal behaviours where sexual harassment is also tolerated. In some teacher training colleges which have tolerated sexual harassment, authorities in those colleges tended to ignore intervening to stop it or even showed signs that they had noticed it (Herovic et al. 2019). Based on what the participants said, sexual harassment was taken as a norm, particularly when it was perpetuated by male lecturers on female student teachers.

From the SCGT standpoint Swan (2017) notes that some complex structures of gender inequality are responsible for perpetuating sexual harassment, especially in institutes of higher learning. This is done to protect and preserve the culture of sexual harassment within the institution

The findings above show that other factors that contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges related to normalisation of the harassment by both lecturers and student teachers, as both the perpetrators and victims regarded it as nothing unusual hence no one challenged it. Other aspects that contributed to the scourge of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges related to tolerance of sexual harassment and laziness of some female student teachers. The next section discusses how the lack of sexual harassment policy or legislation contributed to the perpetuation of sexual harassment in teacher

training colleges.

7.2.3 Laziness of Students

Laziness or negative attitude towards work also contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges as some female student teachers wanted to go through the course without working for it but instead through favouritism. Explaining some students' behaviour of laziness that made them vulnerable to sexual harassment, S4 at College B, said the following:

Yes one on one interaction between female students and lecturers where some students tend to want the lecturer to provide an already finished research. Laziness of students makes them more prone to harassment.

Another participant, S1 at College B, had a similar observation on the issue of laziness:

The issue of failure to submit work in time and wanting it accepted and marked or to just get marks without working for them. In short, laziness of some female students places them up to sexual harassment.

From the responses, the two scenarios point to the bad behaviour of female student teachers which predisposed them to sexual harassment. Failure by some of the female students to work hard gave rise to transactional sex between them and male lecturers as such student teachers wanted to pass without effort. Late assignment submission opened an avenue for some unprofessional lecturers to demand sex in exchange for accepting the assignment for marking. All this, as also alluded to by Awaah (2019), contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Another factor that contributed to this phenomenon in teacher training colleges related to lack of legislation to control sexual harassment in institutions. This is discussed in the following section.

7.2.4 Lack of legislation

Eight participants identified lack of relevant policy by the Zimbabwean Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Innovation Science and Technology Development (MHTEISTD) to control sexual harassment in teacher training colleges as a contributing factor. According to Kosti et al. (2020) legislation is defined as a set of laws enacted by a legislative body or parliament in order to regulate or control human behaviour pertaining to committing offences, in this case to do with sexual violence or harassment. The law is passed so that citizens' rights are protected.

Sexual harassment may be sustained in teacher training colleges due to lack of effective and relevant legislation. Lecturer L2 at College B said the following in her reaction to what made sexual harassment prevalent in teacher training colleges:

Lack of policies on sexual harassment may make harassment easy to commit without perpetrator afraid of the repercussions.

Concomitant to the above assertion by a lecturer, student S10 at College C said:

Lack of policy to punish offenders of sexual harassment. There is no policy to punish sex offenders, therefore, this makes it difficult to stop abusers from continually abusing the victims.

Both responses emphasise lack of effective legislation to control and regulate sexual harassment as a contributing factor to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. The MHTEISTD was apparently not ready to fight sexual harassment through policy provision known to both students and staff. The policy could spell out the crimes associated with the *quid pro quo*, where there is something for something, for example, “a thigh for a pass.” This means offering someone sexual intimacy in order to get a distinction (Newman et al. 2021). Further to this, Matsikidze (2017) argues that the constitution of Zimbabwe does not expressly provide for the right to be protected against sexual harassment though there are provisions which can be relied upon to protect women against sexual harassment. Perpetrators of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges may be aware of this constitutional loophole which may contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in these teacher training colleges. Matsikidze (2017) further argues that, despite having some specific statutes dealing directly with sexual harassment, there is lack of alignment of those statutes to the Constitution of Zimbabwe. This, therefore, contributed to the perpetuation of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges. In support of the above, literature (University World News 2021) shows that a sexual harassment bill to criminalise abuse has taken a long time to be passed, hence, sexual harassment continues unabated.

Findings here indicate that the failure by the MHTEISTD in Zimbabwe to have a policy or policies on sexual harassment in teacher training colleges has contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in these teacher training institutions. The next section focuses on how dress was viewed as one of the factors which contributed towards the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

7.2.5 Indecent dress

21 participants revealed that indecent dress contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Erhunse (2019) defines indecent dress as deliberate exposure of one’s body to the public in a way that may not be suitable in a specific context. When one wears clothes which are not appropriate for the occasion that is often known as indecent dress. Participants accused some female students of initiating sexual harassment through the type of clothing they put on. S1 at College B had the following to say:

Certain dressing attracts the male staff members because the female student teachers may be putting on very short dresses which expose parts of the body which are supposed to be covered by clothes.

Another participant, S10 at College B, in support of dress said:

Female student teachers attract the male lecturers through frequent visits in their offices while putting on short dresses to make them (male lecturers) initiates a sexual relationship with them.

The responses above point fingers at female student teachers for enticing male staff through their way of dressing. These revelations are very unusual as most of the cases discussed laid the blame on male lecturers and male staff for sexually harassing female students. The findings got support from Dube et al. (2019) who assert that female students have been observed to seduce male lecturers in order to get some benefits. From the response above, frequenting a lecturer's office in inappropriate attire is often meant to seduce the man. Literature (Dube et al. 2019) further shows that the modern trends are being observed from a survey conducted in Zimbabwean universities. Female students frequently visit research supervisors while wearing skimpy dresses in order to draw the lecturer's sexual attention (Crowley 2021). Mawere (2021) weighs in saying these types of female students are labeled as the "marauding team" because their persistent attitude is to draw attention so that they get what they want from men. The goal of these women is to get "sexually transmitted marks" for their dissertations and/or assignments from the supervisors. Male participants from the responses indicated that the indecent dresses directly communicated to them that they were ready for a sexual relationship. Lennon et al. (2017) in agreement with the above notion indicates that women's sexy dresses are a sign of self-objectification. Women use dresses to communicate their intent. However, some women interviewed revealed that they dressed to look attractive, not to lure anyone for sex (Elliot et al. 2013).

Literature (Anku et al. 2018) says that men misinterpret the sexual interest of women based on their clothing. In this view, Juliet et al. (2020) admit that dress, especially for women, has become a real problem. The issue apparently sweeps across all nations in developed and developing countries as forms of dress like the wearing of miniskirts, shorts, tight clothes and trousers for women, were said to be against certain traditions. This is supported by the fact that some countries such as Sudan, Saudi Arabia, Gambia, Thailand, Dubai, Qatar and Cambodia have banned the wearing of those above mentioned clothes which they considered to be seductive and against their traditions, where one deliberately exposes his or her body to the public to attract attention (Craig and Gray 2020). Using the lens of SCGT, Craig and Gray (2020) refuted that putting on certain dress is meant to sexually harass men but rather this is done for women to look attractive. Craig and Gray (2020) further attribute accusations by men of

women's dressing as a mere blame game because men do not want to take responsibility for their behaviour. According to Wolfendale (2016), social interpretation of women's dressing as suggestive and revealing, is a sign of a deeply entrenched problem of men who sexually objectify women. No matter how men's dressing is revealing, their dressing was never described as sexually suggestive or provoking. The above views also reveal a misnomer in the way the issue of dress is often understood and viewed in society, even in teacher training colleges. Koval et al. (2019) assert that the use of terms like provocative and sexually suggestive have been going unchallenged, however, their use made women vulnerable to sexual assault and harassment and was also meant to influence the manner in which the law treated sexual assault and harassment. Therefore, female students may continuously be sexually harassed without anyone paying any attention. From the SCGT the use of the above terms (sexually suggestive or provoking) are indicators of power imbalances where men display their flawed attitude towards women's responsibility for the men's sexual behaviour (Wolfendale 2016).

From the above discussion, findings suggest that dress is a contributing factor to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Indecent or seductive dress emerged as having a sexually provocative effect on some people which gives rise to sexual harassment being perpetrated on the victims. Culture also emerged as a factor that contributes to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. In the next section I discuss how contra-power seduction contributes to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

7.2.6 Contra-power seduction

Contra-power sexual harassment is understood as harassment of those with greater power by those with less power. DeSouza (2011) views this phenomenon as harassment of a superior by a subordinate which occurs notwithstanding the unbalanced power relationship between those involved. In other words, this form of harassment occurs in situations where the perpetrator occupies a lower status than the victim. While blame has continuously and relentlessly been laid on men, especially lecturers, for initiating sexual harassment, female students were also accused of contributing towards sexual harassment within the teacher training colleges. The behaviour where female students initiate sexual harassment is related to contra-power harassment or seduction. Contra-power sexual harassment as defined above is when a junior or subordinate directs sexual attention to a superior individual within an organisation like a student to a lecturer or to someone senior as defined above. The following is what S4 at College B said in relation to contra-power seduction:

A situation where female students frequently visit lecturers' office alone. Some female students take advantage of male lecturers working in their offices alone. They frequently visit these lecturer's offices. The female students pretend to be asking for

genuine issues or during one on one discussion on research consultation. Some even sit or talk to the lecturer in a seductive way. This is a common but not a talked about scenario here at the college.

In agreement with the above view, L1 at College C revealed the following:

An unceremonious visit by some female students into private offices of lecturers in a way which is sexually inviting also contributes. These ladies are really good at inviting proposal to the lecturer by the way they present themselves inside those offices as they become extraordinarily friendly to the lecturers.

The responses above reveal that one of the contributors to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges was contra-power seduction of male lecturers by female student teachers. From the responses some female student teachers were “good” at drawing the lecturers’ attention by the way in which they presented and made themselves readily available to the lecturers and frequented the lecturers’ offices. Their manner of sitting and talking to the lecturers during such visits were seductive, sexually luring and provoking. Responses further suggest that such female students made themselves readily available in lecturers’ private places in a sexually luring fashion at times when the lecturers were busy doing their work.

Literature (Mawere and Seroto 2022) views the above form of enticement as contra-power enticement which most researchers have not explored and are silent about despite its existence and massive impact in contributing towards the perpetuation of sexual harassment in institutions. Lampman et al. (2019) argue that female students are mostly protected against being labeled as initiating sexual harassment but the reality on the ground points to the contrary. King (2019) in support asserts that contra-power enticement is a modern behaviour of female student teachers. Their motive would be to transact sexual intimacy with the male lecturer for some benefits.

The SCGT, however, seemed not to agree with the above perception, since the theory holds to the view that harassment is a result of women’s subordination, where men have more power. The theory views harassment as emanating from a historic background where there is unequal power between men and women (Ruzzante et al. 2021)

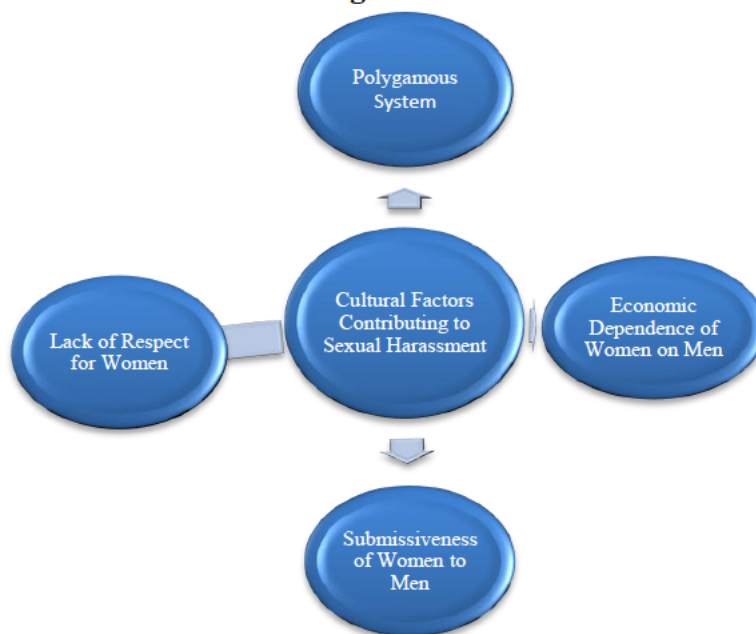
7.2.7 Culture

Data from both lecturers and student teachers also indicated that cultural factors contributed to the perpetuation of sexual harassment within teacher training colleges. Four factors associated with culture

were identified: the polygamous system; women's economic dependence on men; women's submissiveness to men; and lack of respect for women. These are reflected in Figure 8.2.

Natchi and Mohelska (2020) argue that culture involves a shared set of values, beliefs norms and behaviours of a certain society which are learned from one generation to the other through a process of socialisation. Culture is, therefore, a collective programming of the mind which makes people unique from others of a different cultural background (Pappas and MacKelvin 2021). In other words, the behaviour of staff and students within teacher training colleges reflects the cultural beliefs of their societies. Below is a summary of the cultural factors which emerged as contributing to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

Figure 7.2: Cultural Factors Contributing to the Prevalence of Sexual Harassment



Source: Researcher 2022

7.2.7.1 Polygamous system

20 participants indicated that polygamy and promiscuity were cultural behaviours which contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. This cultural tradition where one man can have several wives promoted men's promiscuity, which made sexual harassment rife as men enjoy having sexual relationships with more than one woman. According to Bahari et al. (2021) polygamy is defined as a marital relationship involving several spouses. This kind of a marriage contract commonly made up of one husband and a multiplicity of wives, gives freedom to men to enjoy several sexual relations with no control (Bahari et al. 2021). From the responses given by lecturers, polygamy had a cultural bearing on the behaviour of men having several sexual relationships. S3 at College C had this to say on the issue of polygamy:

Culture gives male staff members the thinking that they should dominate and also have as many sexual girlfriends as possible from the college students. This makes these lecturers propose love to many female student teachers here at college. Even some churches encourage this behaviour

In support of the view of promiscuity L2 at College B said the following:

In our culture, men can propose to anyone whether young or old despite the fact that they are married. Here staff members, especially lecturers, may enjoy several relationships. In our culture varume havachemberi vanoramba vachida kunyenga (men do not get old sexually as they continue to propose to women for sexual relations) our culture gives men room to continue proposing love to young ladies even if they are old themselves. Such behaviour also exists in colleges.

From the above responses, culture also contributes to sexual harassment perpetrated by male lecturers and other male staff because they are used to being promiscuous. This cultural belief emerged as a contributory factor to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges, drawing on polygamy which encourages them to want to have sexual relations with many different women especially female student teachers. Nwadiobi et al. (2019) view promiscuity as involving indiscriminately having casual sexual relationships frequently with several sexual partners. There is a strong relationship between men who practice polygamy and those with promiscuous behaviour (Nwadiobi et al. 2019). This appeared to have been the case with some of the sexual harassment perpetrators defined in this study.

Literature (Gautier 2020) shows that polygamy is still a normative system of marriage in African societies. The idea is further supported by Marcoux and Antoine (2014) when they argue that polygamy is usually practised by rich people who are able to take care of a large family. Therefore, it is considered prestigious to be in a polygamous marriage as a man as it reflects one's economic status, as well as political power. Thus, due to these views, male lecturers and other male staff in the teacher training colleges may view multiple sexual relationships when they have a wife at home and a girlfriend in college as prestigious. Against the views above, drawing on SCGT, polygamy as acceptable practice contributes to the prevalence of sexual harassment.

Promiscuity which may also be linked to polygamous beliefs may be promoted by culture where male staff members or lecturers are allowed to treat all women, especially student teachers who share the same totem with their wife, as available to offer them sexual benefits. Some men take this issue of totems seriously to such an extent that they end up developing an intimate relationship with those female students. S1 at College B in relation to this said:

Yes culture can contribute as some men just want to have sexual affairs with ladies who share the same totem with their wives. This is bad because this is the beginning of sexual harassment. Student teachers particularly females are easily proposed simply because they share a totem with the male lecturer's wife.

From the above perspective, culture emerged as a strong contributor to male lecturers' promiscuity and, consequently, sexual harassment as some of them ended up using that scapegoat of totem to demand casual sexual relationship with multiple female student teachers. Others ended up impregnating these women, hence becoming polygamists. A similar perception was shared by student S2 at College B when she said:

Yes culture has some practices which are not being favourable especially to us female student teachers. For example culture suppresses the feelings of women and favouring men. Male staff members are given room to abuse women particularly female student teachers in the name of Chiramu (Sexual dalliance) without being cautioned. Culture condones abuse by men on women as it is universally accepted that sexual dalliance exists in our culture.

Both responses emphasise cultural practice which promotes promiscuity by male staff members. The male lecturers claim that it is their right to "play" with their wife's sisters which later develops into sexual abuse. *Chiramu* (sexual dalliance) is defined as a casual romantic or sexual relationship between a man (brother-in-law) with his wife's younger or older sister or niece. Culturally the man is said to have the "rights" and or "privileges" to enjoy the sexual relationship (Mawodza 2019) in such circumstances. The idea of playing with the younger sister of their wives involves the use of sexualised language, which provokes the younger sister into giving in to sexual harassment by her brother-in-law. Literature (Mawodza 2019) supports the issue of *chiramu* (sexual dalliance). Recent research in Zimbabwe indicated that sexual dalliance has serious violations of the female students' sexual rights while on the other hand providing lecturers with unlawful "rights" to have multiple sexual partners without being cautioned, as culture accepts it. From the responses above, male staff and lecturers in teacher training colleges were promiscuous as they used the same technique to sexually harass female student teachers without being reprimanded, hiding behind cultural practices of sexual dalliance, thereby contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in the colleges.

Drawing on literature (Hebert 2021), the rights and privileges of men to enjoy sexual relations without explicit agreement by the concerned victims has made female student teachers sexual objects, as their consent to sexual intimacy with staff members is deemed immaterial (Bertay 2020). From participants' responses above, the behaviour of male lecturers towards female student teachers made the students

accept men's promiscuity as cultural, acceptable behaviour. This kind of acceptance led to situations where sexual harassment tended to go on unabated as the behaviour is understood as supported by culture. In support of the above arguments, theoretical perspectives of SCGT (Dlamin 2020) suggest that patriarchal societies employ toxic masculinity perspectives to suppress the rights of women and allow men to engage in promiscuity because they place women at a lower status than men. Sexual violence is even condoned within the family setting, giving men unquestionable powers to do whatever they want sexually with women (The World Bank 2019). All these pointed to how male staff in colleges tended to replicate what they do in their communities in the teacher training colleges, as these institutions of higher learning are units of the larger society.

The above section examined the contribution of culture to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges by promoting polygamous relationships which lead to promiscuity. This in turn contributed to male lecturers sexually harassing female student teachers. The next section focuses on economic dependence of women on men as another factor which contributes to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

7.2.7.2 Women's economic dependence on men

Ten participants indicated women's economic dependence on men as another cultural factor which contributed to sexual harassment of female student teachers in teacher training colleges. Bertay et al. (2020) defined economic dependence as the reliance of an individual on the other financially. For example, women may depend on their husbands for financial support because the men would be bread winners while the women may not be gainfully employed. Economic dependence of women on men is exemplified by participant L3 at College B who said:

Male staff members tend to provide for everything to the female student teachers in order to win their love. Culturally men must provide everything needed by women to show their love for them. The same belief is used by some male lecturers to seek for sexual favours from female student teachers and in return they offer them financial benefits.

Similar sentiments were expressed by S9 at College C who said:

Lack of resources needed for effective training contributes towards sexual harassment of the female student teachers by our male lecturers. Men are providers of everything for women hence if here staff members want to have relations with the female students they can just buy whatever they need so that they can win their love.

The two participants above concur on the fact that there is unequal distribution of wealth in societies, where men, including male lecturers, tended to be economically superior to women, inclusive of female student teachers. Such situations contributed to sexual harassment because men would provide for the females due to their economic power. As alluded to above, the fact that men are at an economic advantage as breadwinners in society while women rely on them for survival, made the female student teachers in teacher training colleges economically weak, hence their vulnerability, submissiveness and inability to resist sexual harassment thereby contributing to its prevalence. Findings reveal that the cultural notion where men are providers was also evident in teacher training colleges where the male lecturers, due to financial superiority, provided financial and material support to female student teachers, thereby taking advantage to sexually harass them which contributed to sexual harassment in these institutions. Drawing on the perspective of SCGT, Giuliano (2020) argues that unequal economic opportunities and status between men and women have a deep-rooted historical background. Women have been marginalised even at family level where boy children were accorded school learning opportunities while girl children stayed at home waiting to be married (Bertay et al. 2020). Literature on African philosophy heaped value on the boy child as opposed to the girl, thereby making the girl child inferior. The responses above show that male lecturers were aware that they could harass female student teachers easily due to their possession of resources which the female student teachers needed but did not have. This '*quid pro quo*' situation contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

From the discussion above, economic dependence of women on men which filtered from society into teacher training colleges made female student teachers susceptible to sexual harassment by male staff thereby contributing to this phenomenon. The next section discusses the cultural aspect of women's submissiveness to men which also contributed to sexual harassment of female student teachers by lecturers and other staff in teacher training colleges.

7.2.7.3 Women's Submissiveness to Men

Four participants attributed male dominance and the submissiveness of women to men as accounting for the prevalence of sexual harassment of female student teachers in teacher training colleges. Participant S1 at College C said:

Men are always to be understood as head in every community and women must be submissive to them and always depend on them in their lives. Men must be respected and women must not challenge them.

The response portrays men as powerful to the extent that women do not challenge their decisions or actions. This seemed to negatively affect female student teachers in colleges. Female student teachers, according to the response above, were brought up and socialised to respect and submit to men (as such

also to male lecturers) who happened to possess power. Given this power, male lecturers tended to abuse it with female student teachers because of their unquestioningly subordinate status. This perpetuated sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges. A similar response was expressed by L2 at College C saying:

Men dominate in relationships. Men use their authority to abuse women. Women are taught to be submissive hence they do not reject men. Abuse of power is common in our institutions. Female students have shown vulnerability in most cases. They easily give to male staff members' sexual demands.

Both student S1 and lecturer L2 agree on the fact that dominance of male staff in many institutions and situations influenced the men to use their power to force relationships with female student teachers, given the societal respect they commanded. Women internalised the fact that they occupy a subordinate role in society which made them ignored in key decision-making gatherings (Britannica 2021). Such respect was offered by female student teachers thereby opening themselves up to sexual abuse by men. Literature (Rai and Choi 2018) supports the fact that patriarchal ideologies support a gendered view where women must quietly submit to men as the head of the family. Consequently, men in teacher training colleges tended to take advantage of this societal view of a high level of power and exploited women student teachers sexually thereby contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment. This aspect of African culture inculcated in the girl children and women to accept men's demands, notwithstanding that such mandates may be unacceptable to them, seemed common in teacher training colleges explored in this study. In this context, female student teachers submitted to sexual demands by their male lecturers and other male staff without standing their ground against it.

The discussion above illustrates that women's submissiveness to men is another contributing factor to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Amusa et al. (2017) point out that women's acceptance of sexual abuse without questioning works as a catalyst for men. From the responses given, scenarios similar to what Amusa et al. point out were identified in the teacher training colleges where sexually harassed female student teachers just complied and tolerated the harassment silently. Drawing on the SCGT, the subordination of women to men and their failure to stand up against abuse due to structural and interpersonal positions that women hold in male dominated systems are common occurrences. Further to this, ideologically, women must not openly complain about abuse even within their families (Kalunta-Crumpton 2017).

7.2.7.4 Lack of Respect for women.

Three participants identified lack of respect for women by men as contributing to female student teachers' sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. This view was expressed by student S1 at College C who said:

Men should respect women and their rights. The fact that men particularly male lecturers and male staff members always want to have sexual relations with any female students, means that these men do not have respect for women's wishes when they (women) tell them that they are not interested in them. Some male lecturers even want to have sexual relations with married female student teachers. This is a sign of lack of respect for women.

The response shows lack of respect for women as equal human beings with rights to choose what they do or do not like. In this case male lecturers are seen to lack respect even for other people's marriages when attempting to have sexual relations with married women. Mukeredzi (2016) highlights that respect is a very important foundational factor in the development and maintenance of a healthy learning environment. However, from S1's response, there was a tendency of not respecting, but suppressing the rights of female student teachers. Similar views were shared by a lecturer, L3 at College B, who said the following:

As a counsellor I believe now there is need for both men and women to realise the value of respect for each other whether in a professional setting or social gathering. Culturally there is disequilibrium in the way our society offer respect to men and women. Men dominate in terms of respect but now as people enjoy equal rights this mindset should now change. Despite education, however it will take time for a real change to be witnessed where both men and women respect each other.

The low regard and respect for women concurs with what has been alluded to above, where culture views a woman as a lesser human who should submit to sexual abuse without question. The responses by S1 and L3 above reveal that in teacher training colleges male lecturers and other staff lacked respect for female student teachers thereby sexually harassing them which contributed to sexual harassment. Arnot and Swartz (2018) argue that respect entails having a positive feeling or demonstrating high regard or holding someone in high esteem, where you accord the person their rights as equal human beings. This was apparently not the case with some male lecturers in teacher training colleges studied as there was seemingly limited or no respect for the female student teachers' wishes and rights. Respect is essential in ensuring that there is gender equality in the country (Arnot and Swartz 2018). The situation in the teacher training colleges explored was not likely to contribute to gender equality. This research implies that lack

of respect given to women especially female student teachers was contributing to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Dietrich et al. (2021) show that women and girls are generally ranked low in society due to a number of reasons, however, the major influence is centred on the unequal complex power relations which exist in global society. The aggressive masculinities exercised by men justify the lack of respect offered to women by men (Bondestam 2020). This view concurs with the responses of the participants above where, given the limited or no respect for female student teachers, male staff found it easy to sexually harass both the married and single female student teachers contributing to sexual harassment.

From the SCGT, oppression and lack of social justice and respect for women have their roots in the socio-cultural beliefs that sexually objectify women (Ruzzante et al. 2021). Sexual objectification as alluded to earlier is viewing a woman's body as basically a physical object for quenching the sexual desire of men (Holland et al. 2017). Consequently, such cultural beliefs have made sexual harassment of women widespread. From the fore-going discussion, it is the lack of respect for women by men which contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment of female student teachers by male lecturers in the teacher training colleges.

7.3 Chapter Summary

From the findings presented in this chapter, seven factors emerged as contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges: poverty; normalisation of sexual harassment; laziness of students; lack of effective and relevant legislation; sexual harassment due to indecent dress; contra-power seduction; and culture.

To begin with, poverty emerged as contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Participants blamed the high cost of teacher education, coupled with limited or no government funding, as pre-disposing student teachers from economically poor backgrounds to sexual harassment. Such student teachers needed both financial and material support to survive and proceed with their programme in teacher training colleges. Lack of these resources made the students prone to sexual harassment by male lecturers and other staff to get the needed financial and material resources. In such cases the poor female student teachers seemingly had no choice but to indulge in transactional sex, thereby contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

Secondly, normalisation of sexual harassment was found to be another contributing factor towards prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Findings indicated that sexual harassment was treated by some teacher training colleges as normal behaviour of male staff towards female student teachers, hence cases of sexual harassment were seen as trivial

occurrences in some colleges. Findings revealed that some authorities viewed sexual harassment as a minor sexual offence not worth serious attention. This behaviour of minimising sexual harassment offences negatively affected the fight against this offence, hence perpetrators continued committing sexual harassment acts without fear of any serious repercussions. In addition, victims were discouraged from fighting it as they also tended to perceive it as acceptable behaviour. Thus, perceptions of both perpetrators and victims in normalising sexual harassment at teacher training colleges contributed immensely to the prevalence of this phenomenon

Thirdly, laziness of some female student teachers was revealed as one of the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment perpetrated on the female student teachers in teacher training colleges. Some female students were said to be too lazy to do their college work on their own. The behaviour of being lazy and failing to work hard implied that those students would want to pass without working. This made the said female student teachers prone to being sexually abused as pay-back for the marks or work done on their behalf by other people like research supervisors and other staff.

Fourthly, the lack of effective and relevant legislation on sexual harassment in teacher training colleges was another contributory factor to the prevalence of this phenomenon in teacher training colleges. Findings indicated that teacher training colleges lacked effective and relevant legislation or policies on sexual harassment, which absence perpetrators capitalised on. Lack of this legal instrument on sexual harassment encouraged perpetrators of sexual harassment to continue sexually harassing student teachers as there was no prescribed mechanism to deter the offenders. On the other hand, victims of sexual harassment found it difficult to fight harassment as there was no legal document to refer to in order to defend themselves or even to use to fight the perpetrator.

Fifthly, sexual harassment due to indecent dressing by female students also contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment by male lecturers and other male staff. Female student teachers put on short, tight, and transparent dresses, shorts or even tight-fitting revealing trousers. The forms of dress exposed body parts which sexually provoked or seduced the male lecturers and other staff: such dress was perceived to communicate the women's readiness for sexual relationships with these male staff. However, despite the above views which put the blame on women as provoking or having clothes that are sexually suggestive, feminists argue against it. Feminists (Dube et al. 2019) and SCGT proponents believe that the issue of dress is used by men as a tool to sexually objectify women. Feminists further query why sexual provocation is only levelled at women despite the fact that men can put on revealing clothes but no one ever labels

them as sexually suggestive or provocative. Lastly, feminists believe that attitudes towards dress by women show that men want to use it to justify sexual assault and harassment, which attitude may also influence how the law may eventually treat cases of sexual harassment of women. On the other hand, the same could not be said about men who have been victims of sexual assault (Mawere 2021). Finally, women believe their dress is determined by the occasion and they must enjoy the same human rights on dress as men (Wolfendale 2016).

Sixthly, contra-power sexual harassment or seduction is another factor contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment within the teacher training colleges. Findings showed that despite the usual scenario where men or male lecturers have been the culprits in the perpetuation of sexual harassment, this form of sexual harassment is initiated by the female student teachers. Data obtained from participants indicated that the female students despite their lower status than the lecturers, seduced the lecturers or other staff in the college. The way they acted and behaved clearly showed that they intended to entice or seduce lecturers. Some were seen to frequently visit the lecturers privately in their offices alone, and spoke and sat in the lecturers' offices in ways that were "communicating" something. The findings revealed that they made sure the lecturers were alone and they also went there alone as a strategy to ensure success in seducing the lecturer. This factor was viewed as very common in teacher training colleges but was less talked about. Further to that, this factor contradicted the perspective of the SCGT that always argues that sexual harassment is initiated by the male lecturers due to the unequal power dynamics where males are always above females.

Seventhly, findings further revealed cultural factors as major contributors to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. The four cultural factors that were found to have a contributory effect to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges were the polygamous system, economic dependence of women on men, submissiveness of women to men and lack of respect for women.

The traditional polygamous marriage emerged as encouraging promiscuity among male staff which behaviour influenced them to sexually harass female student teachers in teacher training colleges. Cultural acceptance of man's promiscuity emerged as linked to the behaviour of male lecturers and other staff where these professionals engaged in casual sexual relationships with female student teachers in the colleges.

The cultural belief that women must depend on men also contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges as female student teachers relied on male lecturers and other staff for financial and material support. Findings showed that this cultural belief held by female student

teachers and male staff made female students easy targets of sexual harassment as the male staff took advantage by offering students benefits in return for sexual benefits from those female student teachers.

Findings also revealed that the cultural system which compels women to submit to men contributed to sexual harassment in colleges. Findings showed that male lecturers took advantage of this cultural phenomenon to sexually abuse female student teachers without the female student teachers challenging the harassment. Culture placed too much power on men and made women too submissive. Hence, male lecturers could easily demand or make proposals for sexual relationships with female students who would not challenge them due to the unequal distribution of power. This placed female student teachers in a compromised position in which they would give in to sexual harassment, thus contributing to this phenomenon in teacher training colleges.

Lastly, findings also indicated that the lack of respect for women by men in society, where women were regarded as sex objects, filtered into teacher training colleges and also contributed to sexual harassment. This view of women by men made it easy for male lecturers and staff to sexually harass female student teachers in teacher training colleges.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION, SYNTHESIS AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This study explored pre-service teacher experiences of sexual harassment, their coping mechanisms, as well as factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Sexual harassment is unwelcome verbal, visual, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature that is severe and pervasive (Chavan and Amiri 2016). This is unwanted sexual conduct which violates a person's dignity, creates an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment (Chavan and Amiri 2016; Kelly 2017). This phenomenon has become a global scourge that affects people regardless of colour, age, ethnicity, social status or level of education (Kenny et al. 2011). However, notwithstanding the wide prevalence of sexual harassment, cases are underreported in different institutions and settings all over the world (Hersch 2015). Jamela (2011), Muchena (2013) and Muchena, Mapfumo and Dlomo (2013) found that victims of sexual harassment suffer in silence: they do not speak out about their ordeal notwithstanding the severe effects that this may have on them. Students in tertiary education have quietly endured deleterious mental, physical health and poor academic outcomes as a result of sexual harassment (Wood et al. 2018).

Victims experience anger, fear, self-blame, self-consciousness, embarrassment, sleeplessness, nightmares and loss of appetite (Majoni, 2017). Such negative impacts, particularly on student teachers, may give rise to problems in studying, attentiveness and concentration during lectures, feeling suicidal, confidence loss, become tearful, getting to certain places on campus and in extreme cases wanting to drop out of the programme (Majoni 2017; Mugabe et al. 2016).

While factors contributing to sexual harassment may vary from situation to situation, culture, abuse of power and sexist attitudes have been touted as contributing to the prevalence of this phenomenon in institutions (Kenny et al. 2011; Muchena et al. 2013; Zindi 2000). Given the prevalence of sexual harassment of female student teachers in Zimbabwean institutions of higher learning (Dlomo et al. 2012; Muchazondida 2010) it became imperative to develop an in-depth understanding of how the victims experience this phenomenon, cope with the effects thereof and the factors that contribute to its perpetuation in teacher training colleges.

This final chapter is organized into six sections. Following the introduction, theoretical reflections are outlined, followed by methodological reflections on the study. A review of the study will then be presented. Subsequent to that, I discuss the findings according to the different research questions. I also

outline original contributions of the study. Finally, implications and lessons based on the study are discussed, followed by a chapter summary.

This study sought to answer the question: *What are the unheard voices of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe?*

To answer this key question, the following sub-questions were asked:

1. *What are the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges?*
2. *How do pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?*
3. *What are the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges?*

Previous chapters – Chapters Five, Six and Seven – presented findings that answered these sub- research questions. Drawing from the findings presented in the three preceding chapter this chapter analyses, discusses and synthesises results describing the unheard voices of pre-service teachers about their sexual harassment experiences, coping mechanisms and factors perpetuating this phenomenon in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe.

In this study, three selected teacher training colleges were involved. As highlighted in the methodology chapter, two of the colleges were secondary teacher training institutions in urban settings of different provinces, both under public governance. The third college was a primary teacher training college situated in a rural setting under the private governance of missionaries. The three colleges were located in different provinces: Masvingo, Manicaland and Mashonaland provinces in Zimbabwe.

The next section focuses on theoretical and methodological reflections on the study.

8.2 Theoretical Reflections

The study employed the Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) and the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC). The SCGT was effective in understanding findings answering Research Question One on the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers and factors that perpetuate the phenomenon in teacher training colleges. I was able to establish the experiences that the student teachers go through, for example, rape, as well as factors like poverty and misuse of authority that contributed to the prevalence of the harassment. However, while the theory was helpful in unpacking, understanding and describing student teacher experiences and factors contributing to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges, it was not helpful in addressing contra-power as a contributing factor. As such, it did not help me explain that aspect given that the perpetrator of the harassment would be socially

and economically of lower status than the victim. Having failed to explain this factor from a theoretical lens, I therefore, had to consult literature.

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC) was useful in addressing Research Question Two on how pre-service teachers cope with sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges. Given the focus of TMSC on capacitating the victims of sexual harassment to develop coping mechanisms to manage stress and any emotional or psychological challenges emanating from experiencing sexual harassment, the theory enabled me to identify coping mechanisms such as psychosocial intervention, avoidance and a problem-focused approach that sexual harassment victims employed to fight stress.

8.3 Methodological Reflections on the Study

The study was located within the interpretive paradigm which is considered as constructivist, natural, humanistic and anti-positivist (Shah and Albargi 2013). The interpretive paradigm was effective in pointing me to the data related to culturally situated interpretations of social life which involve the perception of society on the roles of men and women in relation to how sexual harassment is perpetrated. Sexual harassment experiences differed from place to place and ways of coping with this problem were also different. Within this paradigm, I was able to interpret and understand these different issues from the student teachers' diverse perspectives.

The multiple-site case study design which I employed was effective in exploring real life, multiple bounded systems where I generated detailed, in-depth data involving multiple sources (Brink 2018). The design enabled me to understand in-depth the experiences, coping mechanisms and contributing factors and to compare and contrast data within and across the three research sites, which enhanced the robustness of the study. Yin (1994) and Vohra (2014) concur that multiple cases strengthen results by replicating patterns, thereby increasing the robustness of the findings. Literal replication (cases designed to corroborate) and theoretical replication (cases covering different theoretical conditions) help to establish replication logic (Mukeredzi 2020). Multiple case studies generally draw on analytical and not statistical generalisations. Relying on replication logic in this study provided external validation to my findings as each case helped to confirm or refute the conclusions drawn from the others.

The study employed a qualitative approach which is understood as effective in studying social relations and lived experiences through interaction (Choy 2014). Choy argues that a qualitative approach is most suitable in studying social sciences, psychology, education, sociology, social work and any other social sciences. This approach proved effective in this study as it allowed me to understand a social occurrence, i.e., sexual harassment. As well, its flexibility, multi-modal quality and contextual focus enabled me to

modify my itinerary during data generation, and to use multiple instruments – face-to-face interviews and drawings – to generate data from the participants in their contexts where the phenomenon occurred.

This combination of interpretive, multiple-site case study, qualitative approach was useful in my choice of data generation methods. I found that the two instruments complemented each other in producing adequate and in-depth data to answer the research questions set out at the beginning of the study. I felt that sampling four lecturers was a wise decision as they were strategically positioned to share valuable data on sexual harassment of student teachers in the selected teacher training colleges as they worked closely with trainees given their roles as college counsellors. On the side of student participants, involvement of both female and male students was beneficial as the study discovered that it is not only female students who are sexually harassed but also male students. Having outlined my methodological reflections, next I review the study.

8.4 Review of the Study

This study is composed of eight chapters whose contents are summarised below.

Chapter One

Chapter One introduced the study of the unheard voices of student teachers pertaining to sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe, revealing that sexual harassment was highly prevalent in both working and learning institutions especially in the universities and colleges in Zimbabwe. Critical issues like the focus and purpose of the study, a statement of the problem, personal context and motivation and the axiological assumptions were discussed. In addition, the rationale of the study and background of the study were covered. Thereafter, overviews of the theoretical framework and methodological approach were outlined, followed by a chapter summary and overview of the thesis. The key terms used in the thesis were then defined.

Chapter Two

The chapter reviewed literature related to sexual harassment and the discussion was organised in a funnel approach, where global studies were presented first followed by regional and later national studies. The literature review was organised conceptually, addressing first the sexual harassment experiences of the pre-service teachers and then, secondly, the coping strategies employed by the sexually harassed students and, thirdly, the factors influencing the sustenance of sexual harassment within learning institutions. Literature from the global, regional and national studies revealed that sexual harassment was rife in institutions of higher learning, both universities and colleges. Results showed that many students relied on psychosocial support from their friends, peers and college counsellors in coping with the effects of sexual harassment, while some students remained silent about their sexual harassment experiences as a

way of avoiding further trouble from the harassers (emotional based coping). In a few cases students employed problem-based coping by resisting harassment or reporting it to the authorities. Finally, results revealed that the main factors contributing to sexual harassment include lack of appropriate legislation, poverty, normalisation of sexual harassment and some cultural practices.

Chapter Three

The chapter presented the two theoretical frameworks which informed my study. The chapter traced the history of Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) drawing from the work done by the two main proponents of the theory, Judith Lorber and Judith Butler, feminist researchers. The SCGT was essential in presenting and analysing data about student teacher experiences of sexual harassment and the factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. The chapter discussed this theory covering its historical development, key principles and application in the study and its limitations, as well as how these were dealt with in the study to minimise their impact on findings.

To understand coping strategies adopted by victims of sexual harassment the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC) by Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman (Biggs et al. 2017) was instrumental. The following aspects were discussed: the historical development of the theory, its key principles and application and the limitations of the theory.

Chapter Four

The chapter outlined details of the research methodology. This was employed to generate data to answer the three research questions asked in Chapter One of the study. The chapter began by discussing the interpretive paradigm. The multiple-site case study design and qualitative approach were also discussed. Population and purposive sampling of 12 lecturers and 30 student teachers were discussed. Thereafter, the process of data generation through interviews and drawings was described. Ethical considerations that were adhered to throughout the study, including informed consent, confidentiality, privacy, non-maleficence, honesty, and integrity, were also outlined. Limitations of the study were highlighted, including how these were dealt with to minimise their impact on findings. The chapter then described the process of data analysis through open coding before providing a chapter summary.

Chapter Five

This was the first of the three data analysis and presentation chapters. The chapter presented and analysed data addressing Research Question One on sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges. What emerged was that student teachers experienced coerced sexual engagements, rape, and abuse of position, sexualised remarks, sexual exploitation and being sent nude pictures or pornographic material. The chapter also covered understandings of sexual harassment where

participants revealed that they understood the phenomenon as related to pressured sexual intimacy, use of sexually derogatory language and misuse of authority.

Chapter Six

Chapter Six presented and analysed data addressing Research Question Two on the coping mechanisms that pre-service teachers adopted to deal with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Findings revealed that students employed both emotion-based coping and problem-based coping. Emotion-based coping involved psychosocial intervention where students coped through getting support from their peers and friends and counselling from their college counsellors. Further, the chapter revealed that some students used avoidance coping where they pretended that they were not affected by sexual harassment, by being silent about it. Other students employed problem-based coping where they resisted the harassment.

Chapter Seven

This third and final data analysis and data presentation chapter focusses on Research Question Three about the factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Sexual harassment in teacher training colleges emerged as being perpetuated by lack of legislation, poverty, normalisation of sexual harassment, laziness of students, indecent dress, contra-power seduction and culture.

Chapter Eight

This present chapter discusses and summarises the major findings and draws conclusions. The chapter introduces the study, highlighting why the researcher was particularly enthused and motivated to pursue this topic of sexual harassment, followed by theoretical and methodological reflections on the study. A review of the study then follows.

In the next section, the chapter discusses findings following the different research questions to illustrate how findings address them. The original contributions of the study are then outlined. Following this, the chapter draws implications and lessons based on the study findings, followed by a chapter summary. The next section discusses the research findings.

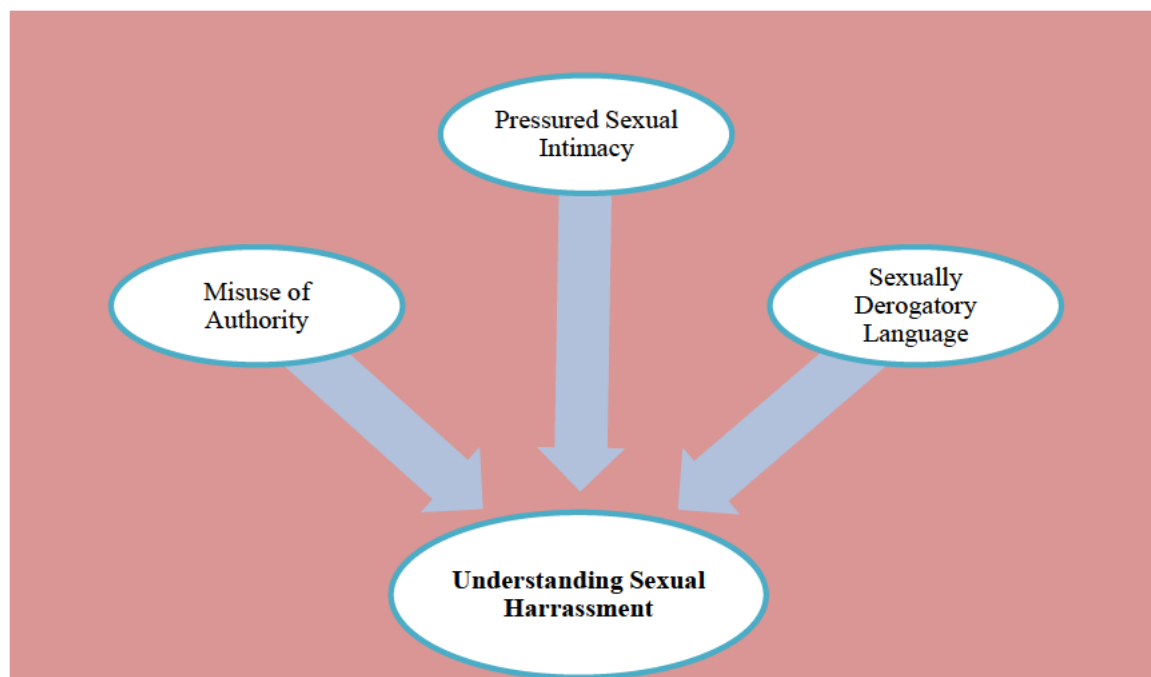
8.5 Discussion of Findings

As alluded to above, the discussion of findings is organised around research questions and begins by discussing findings addressing Research Question One. The key question addressed in this study was: *What are the unheard voices of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe?* To answer this key question a number of research questions were asked as outlined above.

This section discusses, synthesises and draws conclusions that answer Research Question One: *What are the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges?*

Before engaging with experiences, participants described their understanding of sexual harassment. Three conceptions emerged: pressured sexual intimacy; use of derogatory language; and misuse of authority. The three understandings of sexual harassment are reflected in Figure 8.1 below.

Figure 8.1 Participants' Understanding of Sexual Harassment



Source: Researcher 2022

8.6 Participants' Understanding of Sexual Harassment

Participants' conceptions of sexual harassment included pressured sexual intimacy, which manifested in the form of sexual assault, uncomfortable touching and use of threats and force so that the victim gives in to the perpetrator's demands to have a sexual relationship.

8.6.1 Sexual Assault

Participants conceived sexual harassment as sexual assault, which they viewed as a situation where there was no agreement between the perpetrator and the victim. The participants viewed it as coercive given the unreasonable pressure exerted on the victims to force compliance to a sexual relationship with the perpetrator. Given the non-consensual nature of the relationship, the victims' human rights become violated (Walters 2016). Further, participants understood sexual harassment as assault, as the victim would have been coerced into sexual activities against their wish. From the findings, sexual assault involved male staff or lecturers and female student teachers at teacher training colleges. The House of Commons Women and Equalities Committee (2019) concluded that one in every three females in tertiary

education experienced sexual assault. The Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) views sexual assault as socially constructed violence with strong historical roots in the culture of the perpetrators (Tonsing and Tonsing 2019). Sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy was also understood as uncomfortable touching which I discuss next.

8.6.2 Uncomfortable Touching

Participants also understood sexual harassment as a scenario where the perpetrator physically touched or caressed the victim in a sexually provoking manner without the victim's consent. Bondestam and Lindquist (2020) view uncomfortable touching as inappropriate behaviour of rubbing against the other person's body without their consent. Participants reported that perpetrator caressed their buttocks, shoulders, waist, breasts or even hair. Male staff and lecturers were the main culprits in sexually harassing female student teachers. Literature (Zarra 2016) argues that lecturers, instead of creating an enabling environment where they treat their students with dignity and act as parents to these student teachers, were often the chief culprits. Concomitantly, the Education Act number 22 of 2001 in Zimbabwe stipulates that professional distance must be maintained between lecturers and students which ensures a conducive learning environment. The SCGT theory (Moolman 2017) indicates that hegemonic masculinity which is culturally based portrays men as superior to women, hence they can tamper with women's body parts without fear of criticism as society trivialises women's sexual abuse by men.

Sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy was also understood as use of threats.

8.6.3 Use of Threats

Participants understood sexual harassment through threats as a way of instilling fear in the victim so that the perpetrator's sexual demands could not be resisted. Threats are statements of intent to cause pain or inflict injury on the victim so that fear is created (Kipane 2018). From the findings, participants understood this form of sexual harassment as the fear and threats instilled in female student teachers as a strategy for making them accept sexual relationship demands. Participants cited threats of being failed in assessments as a common threat used by perpetrators when victims resisted intimacy. The SCGT (Haslanger 2017) in agreement with the findings argues that culturally men dominate, treating women in society as occupying subordinate positions and this normalises sexual harassment.

From the discussion above, one can theorise student teachers understand sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy which manifests in sexual assault, uncomfortable touching and the use of threats to coerce victims into giving in.

Sexual harassment was also understood as the use of sexually derogatory language.

8.6.4 Sexually Derogatory Language

Participants perceived sexually derogatory language as sexual harassment where comments made portrayed a negative image of the victim. Sexually derogatory comments are hostile and undermining to the victim's dignity (Mapuranga et al. 2015). From the findings, participants described sexually derogatory language as degrading, belittling, destroying their confidence and self-esteem, as well as reducing the victim to an object not warranting respect. Participants lamented that sexually derogatory language in teacher training colleges is always directed at female student teachers by lecturers. Kellie (2019) asserts that statements which are sexually derogatory objectify women by treating them as sex objects and less than human, without the same human rights as men. The above assertion is consistent with SCGT which suggests that taking women as sexual objects is a cultural practice perpetrated in patriarchal societies where men are always regarded as superior while women are given less value (Sherperd 2019). What one can conclude is that student teachers understand sexual harassment as use of sexually derogatory language about female students by male lecturers.

Misusing authority was also understood as sexual harassment.

8.6.5 Sexual Harassment as Misuse of Authority

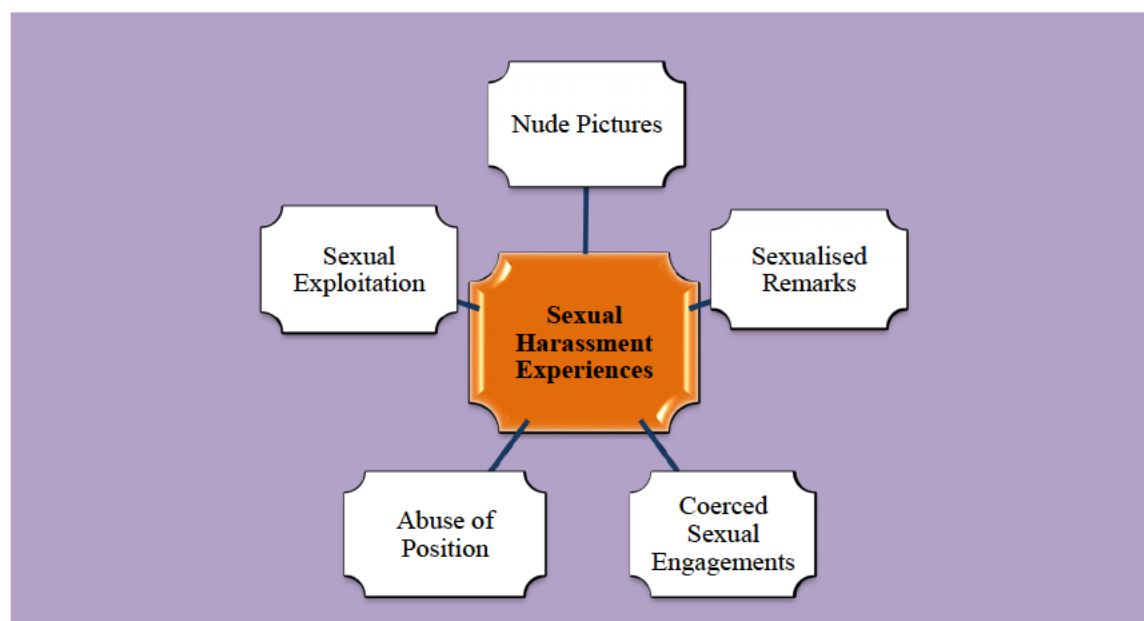
Findings further showed that misuse of authority was viewed as sexual harassment. This was a situation where those in high positions in the institutions used their authority to directly or indirectly make the inferior part give in to a sexual relationship against their wish. From the findings those in high positions took advantage of the vulnerability of the socially or economically lower person, the female student teacher. Evidence showed that there was no consent between the male lecturers and student teachers in their sexual engagements, hence the term misuse of authority. Literature (Hersch 2015) illustrates that abuse of authority is evident when people in authority use their organisational power to coerce lower persons to submit to their sexual demands against their will. Unequal distribution of power from the SCGT is the main reason why men take advantage of women. From the theory men enjoy total power offered by society. Consequently, society treats sexual harassment of women as a normal phenomenon; as such no one questions men's behaviour towards abused women (Fitzgerald 2017; Llewellyn et al. 2019). What can be concluded from the discussion above is that misuse of power by staff and lecturers on female student teachers in teacher training colleges is sexual harassment. Thus, theorising from findings of this study, participants investigated in the selected teacher training colleges understand sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy, use of sexually derogatory language and misuse of authority.

Having discussed the understandings of sexual harassment, in the next section I discuss student teachers' experiences of sexual harassment which addresses Research Question One.

8.7 Participants' Sexual Harassment Experiences

Findings from the study suggested five categories of sexual harassment experiences that student teachers went through in teacher training colleges: coerced sexual engagement; abuse of position; sexualised remarks; sexual exploitation; and nude pictures. These sexual harassment experience categories are summarised in Figure 6.5.2 below and discussed thereafter.

Figure 8.2. Participants’ Sexual Harassment Experiences



Source: Researcher 2022

8.7.1 Coerced Sexual Engagements

Participants experienced sexual harassment where they were sexually coerced into sexual activity with no consent. Victims had a feeling of being controlled. Garrido-Macias et al. (2022) point out that victims feel controlled, especially when fear is instilled in them and they may also feel manipulated. From the findings, such sexual harassment involved use of pressure, force or manipulation to have the victim engage in a sexual activity without consenting to the sexual act. MacDonald (2013) points out that victims of sexual coercion end up complying with this manipulative sexual activity due to a number of reasons (MacDonald 2013). Coerced sexual engagements manifested in threats, rape, provocative dress and improper contact. These are discussed below.

8.7.2 Threats

Findings revealed that in College A and B participants experienced threats made by male lecturers and other male staff to make them give in to their sexual demands. The Department of International Development (2018) indicates that sexual harassment perpetrators may thrive by creating a hostile environment for their victims. In this study, student teachers faced intimidating and threatening

environments where perpetrators were determined to punish them and due to fear they ended up giving in to the sexual demands. This is consistent with Taiwo et al. (2014) who argue that sexual threats are a common practice in many organisations as a way of ensuring that perpetrators of sexual harassment win their victims. The above assertions also relate to SCGT which takes sexual violence and threats perpetrated on women as stereotypes against women (Htun and Jensenius 2020). Some female student teachers experienced sexual harassment in the form of rape.

8.7.3 Rape

From the findings, female student teachers were raped by lecturers and other male staff in the teacher training colleges explored. Rape is a non-consensual sexual activity which involves an act of forceful sexual engagement (Agbo 2019; Bernard 2018). My findings showed that rape, as a form of sexual harassment existed in the teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. While findings revealed that rape was rampant in the three teacher training colleges explored, the majority of the rape incidences were committed on prospective student teachers when they were looking for teacher training vacancies on the promise of vacancy offers. Perpetrators took advantage of the desperation of the female applicants given the stiff competition for training vacancies. Literature (Burn 2018) supports the findings in relation to *quid pro quo* as a common practice in teacher training colleges as, ‘something for something’, “a thigh for a pass or distinction” (or in this case “a thigh for a vacancy”) and perpetrators would get sexual favours in return (Anene and Osayamwen 2019; Newman et al. 2021). In College A, for example, as discussed in Chapter Five, one of the male members of staff raped a female student with a pending disciplinary case where she allegedly stayed out late at night with a boyfriend. The male staff member claimed he would protect her from being subjected to some punitive action from the college authorities in exchange for sexual intimacy with him. From my findings, the prevalence of rape in the selected colleges studied is consistent with literature which indicates that this phenomenon is widespread across institutions of higher learning but is highly underreported because of the sensitive nature of its occurrence (David 2020; Lombard and Jones 2015). Drawing on the SCGT rape emanates from men’s sexual objectification of women, where the female bodies within communities are equated to sexual objects or instruments (Holland et al. 2016). Another form of sexual harassment that student teachers experienced was improper contact.

8.7.4 Improper Contact

Victims also experienced sexual harassment through inappropriate physical contact with perpetrators. Improper contact involves uncomfortable closeness by perpetrators or physical intrusion of one’s personal space, patting on the back, rubbing or brushing against another person. Findings indicate that perpetrators deliberately acted against the wishes of their victims. Findings from the three teacher training colleges revealed that this was one of the most common forms of sexual harassment among female

student teachers. Literature (Onayase 2019) in support of the findings reveals that many students complain of being touched uncomfortably on the back, buttocks and shoulders by their lecturers. In this study, some perpetrators of this form of harassment would obstruct the victim with their bodies or stand too close to them to such an extent that the students felt uncomfortable. From the SCGT perspective, men's sexual harassment behaviour towards women displays oppression, discrimination and exploitation which is deep seated in their belief that women occupy second position in society (Komnas Perempuan 2020). Further, from the SCGT patriarchal society's treatment of women portrays and expects women's subordination which makes it difficult for them to be taken seriously even if they register discomfort and discontent with how men treat them sexually (Bongiorno 2020).

Student teachers were also sexually harassed through provocative dressing.

8.7.5 Provocative Dress

Research findings revealed male student teachers as victims of sexual harassment through provocative dress by student teachers. Results from all three colleges showed that these young men were sexually harassed when female students put on short, revealing, or tight-fitting forms of dress which they described as seductive and inviting men for sex. Unlike the above findings, where female students were the victims, male student teachers were also sexually harassed by their female counterparts through provocative dressing. Male students interpreted the dress of women as sexually provocative which the female student teachers use to advertise their readiness for sex (Wolfendable 2018). Further, the male students felt these female students deliberately wear these revealing dresses to make men uncomfortable sexually (Putri and Suyanto 2021). However, research shows that women believe that their dress was worn to make them more attractive, beautiful and confident. Literature showed that women regard their dress to be worn according to the occasion (Johnston 2016; Fasoli et al. 2018). Finally, SCGT perceives sexual interpretation of linking women to their clothes as a cultural belief which is perpetuated by a male dominated society and is meant to objectify women's bodies so that it increases the vulnerability of women to sexual abuse (Wolfendale 2016).

Female student teachers also experienced sexual harassment through abuse of office.

8.7.6 Abuse of Position

Abuse of position which emerged from this study was the misuse of one designated of higher, more powerful standing which they used to perpetrate sexual harassment on the weaker person (Tinkler 2013). The person of higher standing or in authority may take advantage of their position to abuse other people sexually (Younes 2018). Abuse of position to sexually harass female student teachers emerged in two ways in this study: taking advantage and making sexualised remarks.

8.7.7 Taking Advantage of Position

Research findings show that lecturers and other staff in the teacher training colleges abused their positions and authority to sexually harass students who were unable to challenge them. Lecturers by virtue of their power misused their status, demanding sexual relations or making unwelcome sexual advances to student teachers in this study. Gill and Orgard (2018) and Joseph (2015) point out that staff, because of their superior positions which they hold in the institutions of higher learning, take advantage of students and sexually harass them. The findings are consistent with SCGT that men are historically above women, hence they enjoy more socio-economic benefits than women and take advantage of those positions (Dube et al. 2019).

Other perpetrators abused their positions and often passed sexualised remarks on female students.

8.7.8 Sexualised Remarks

Findings from this research revealed that some victims of sexual harassment experienced verbal sexualised comments in the teacher training colleges. Sexualised remarks come in the form of sexual statements which are sexually discriminating, offensive and objectifying to the female victims of sexual harassment (Joseph 2015). The participants described such comments as demeaning, humiliating and sexual in nature which made their life at college hostile (Ward 2016). Findings also indicated that in making sexualised comments perpetrators targeted their victims' physical appearance and made such comments in public. Literature, in line with the findings, reveals that sexual comments dehumanise and disempower the victim (Ward 2016). From the findings this form of sexual harassment was common across the three teacher training colleges studied. Sexual harassment was also experienced in the form of sexual exploitation as shown below.

8.7.9 Sexual Exploitation

Research findings showed that lecturers used late assignment submission **by students** and demand for vacancies to train as teachers as highlighted above, as bait to sexually exploit the student teachers. The number of student teachers who reported these forms of sexual harassment suggests that these were common methods adopted through which sexual harassment was perpetrated by some male staff and male lecturers in all the teacher training colleges investigated. Literature (Dranzoa 2018) shows that perpetrators of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges are usually lecturers who may be running examinations, coordinating courses or in charge of entry into institutions. From the findings, lecturers used late submitted assignment as a bargaining point to demand sexual relationships with female student teachers whose work was late. On the other hand, while lecturers exploited student teachers through late submission of assignments, evidence also shows that they were not entirely to blame as it is the responsibility of students themselves to control this form of harassment by ensuring that they meet assignment submission deadlines. Literature shows that students must prepare their assessments

thoroughly and within the stipulated time so that they submit without problems and pass (Dube et al. (2019). In this regard, one way or the other students may be criticised for making themselves vulnerable to sexual harassment due to their unprofessional and unethical approach to their academic work. A number of current students in higher education are dishonest, lackadaisical and often adopt unscrupulous means to pass without working for it (Dube et al. 2019). From the SCGT sexual exploitation is influenced by the collective programming of the mind which is set in cultural norms and attitudes of certain groups of people in society. Further, sexual exploitation reflects structural inequalities among males and females, where females are ranked low within the society, hence their sexual exploitation becomes easy and normalised (Holschuh 2014). Sexual harassment was also experienced in the form of nude pictures.

8.7.10 Nude Pictures

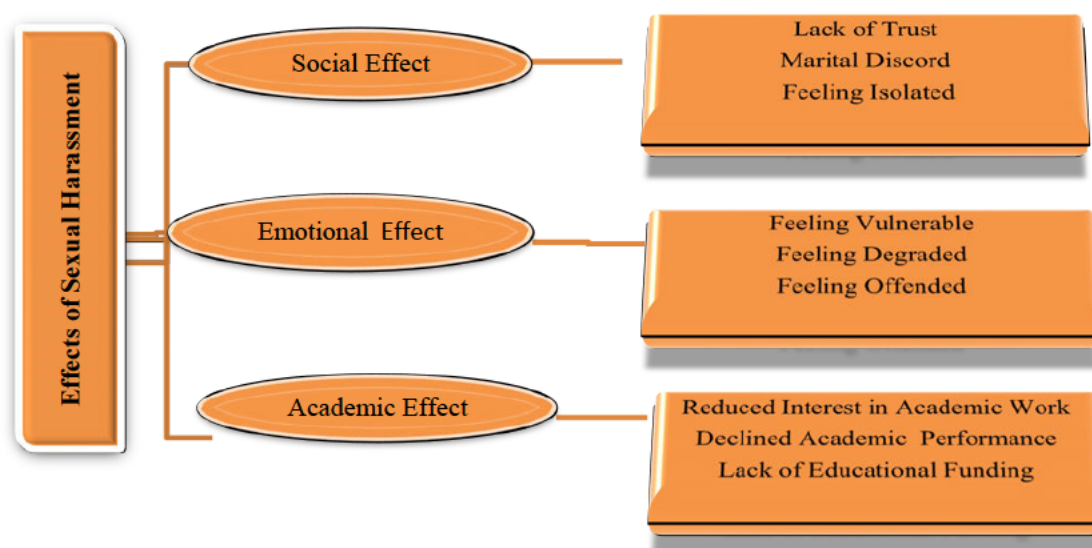
Findings revealed that some victims experienced sexual harassment through pornographic material sent to them. Participants lamented that nude pictures sent to them were apparently intended to make it easy for lecturers to lure them into sexual relationships. Thurman and Obster (2021) from reviewed literature, define pornographic material as any sexually explicit material designed to produce sexual arousal in viewers. Nude pictures, according to Joseph (2015), are sexual materials which may offend the victims of sexual harassment. According to Mshweshwe (2018), from the perspective of SCGT, men have been socialised to exert different forms of authority on women and must demonstrate that power over women using sex or other artefacts.

From the discussion above, it can be theorised that female student teachers in teacher training colleges experience diverse forms of sexual harassment by lecturers and male staff which include coerced sexual engagements, abuse of position and sexualised remarks, sexual exploitation and nude pictures. It must also be theorised that not only female students experience sexual harassment from men: male student teachers also experience sexual harassment in these colleges from women through their provocative dress. The experiences of sexual harassment revealed by the findings drawing on SCGT reflect that men wield power over women and can easily sexually coerce female student teachers into giving in to sexual relations. From the perspective of this theory power inequalities are at the centre of women's sexual harassment (Putri and Suyanto 2020). Having discussed the experiences of sexual harassment of student teachers in the selected teacher training colleges, in the following section I discuss the effects of sexual harassment encounters on the student teachers.

8. 8 Effects of Sexual Harassment on Victims

Findings from this study revealed that student teachers were gravely affected by sexual harassment perpetrated on them by lecturers and other staff in the teacher training colleges investigated. Sexual harassment experiences affected student teachers in three domains: social, emotional or psychological and academic, as reflected in Figure 8.3 and discussed below.

Figure 8.3 Effects of Sexual Harassment on Victims



Source: Researcher 2022

8.8.1 Social Effects of Sexual Harassment on Student Teachers

Research findings indicated that sexual harassment experiences impacted negatively on the social life of the victims. Social effects were the tangible or intangible consequences of sexual harassment on the victims' relationships with their communities and/or families (Gould 2021; MacKinnon and Siegel 2012). In this study findings revealed that social effects of sexual harassment affected the participants' social and family lives: lack of trust developed and threats of divorce were made to those who were married. In addition, victims, in particular the female students explored, developed fear of dating, felt isolated and ashamed. The victims also developed feelings of rejection as a result of these experiences.

Literature (Fitzgerald and Cortina 2018; Milchev 2019) shows that lack of trust between spouses damages relationships permanently. What emerged from the findings is that social effects on a married sexually harassed person diminished confidence of their families, which led to isolation and or withdrawal from the families and even groups of people.

From the SCGT lens, culturally in patriarchal societies men tend to blame women for being victims of sexual harassment. Findings revealed that men accused women of provoking the harassment (Fitzgerald and Cortina 2018) as was the case in the divorce incident. Further to that, findings showed that in addition to being blamed married women who were sexually harassed felt stigmatised within their communities (Gould 2021; MacMillan et al. 2012) and extended families. Such women who were blamed following

sexual harassment suffered multiple blows: the harassment itself, the blame, destabilised relationships, stigmatisation and other effects. However, that women invite or bring sexual harassment on themselves was challenged by my findings, as male lecturers emerged as the chief culprits of the harassment of female student teachers in the teacher training colleges. Qayyum et al. (2021) purport that when a victim of sexual harassment is blamed, they feel demeaned and end up blaming themselves and avoiding the public or even friends. Emotional effects also manifested in the victims as a result of sexual harassment.

8.8.2 Emotional Effects

Emotions are a complex mixture of hormones and the unconscious mind which influence people to behave in certain ways (Bondestam and Lundquist 2020). Emotionally, from this study, the affected victims showed that they suffered from a plethora of effects which included trauma, confusion, self-blame, and other emotions because of sexual harassment that they had encountered. Further, participants indicated that they suffered from a sense of insecurity as they became hopeless due to their lack of control to manage the emotional effects of sexual harassment. Surveyed literature (Burn 2019) indicates that sexual harassment can cause long term emotional health challenges for the victim. Victims of sexual harassment in this study reported susceptibility to depressive symptoms, recurrent emotional distress and anxiety. Other emotional effects of sexual harassment that emerged related to feelings of vulnerability, of being degraded and offended.

8.8.2.1 Vulnerability

Findings from the study showed that emotional effects of sexual harassment on the victims were portrayed in their feeling of vulnerability. Vulnerability is a state of being unable to protect oneself against harm or significant exploitation (Mutiso and Mutie 2018). When one is vulnerable it means one is at risk, one is exposed, threatened and may be exposed to some possibility of attack or harm which may be emotional or otherwise (Guillaumont 2017). My findings revealed that victims of sexual harassment suffered from a feeling of having no power or immediate help or protection from the perpetrator of sexual harassment. Literature sourced (Fernandes-Alcantara 2018) shows that vulnerable people lack protection from harm, hence they are at high risk of facing a crisis without anyone giving them immediate assistance. Student teachers in this study who experienced harassment especially from people of a higher status like their lecturers felt that they could not do anything to fight back or defend themselves against further harassment. Data showed that vulnerability included feelings like being helpless, worthless, hopeless, insecure, unsure and confused. Literature consulted (Bondestam and Lundqvist 2020) concurs with my findings above but further indicates that immediate physical reactions may be witnessed after the harassment like fatigue, irritability, sleeplessness, nausea and headaches. Drawing on the SCGT male domination and cultural assumptions impregnated in all societies sustain sexual exploitation of women and make them more vulnerable and unable to complain openly after the

sexual abuse (UN Women 2020). Consequently, women are left with no choice but to suffer silently as they become confused as to how they can get protection against the continuous abuse, especially by male perpetrators. This was the case in this study where many of the victims did not report the sexual harassment. Findings also revealed that some participants felt degraded by the sexual harassment experienced.

8.8.2.2 Feeling Degraded

Feeling degraded is defined by Etinson (2020) from surveyed literature as the experience of feeling humiliated and feeling gross inhuman treatment. Findings showed that victims of sexual harassment felt emotionally degraded or dehumanised by the experience. My findings showed that the victims' dignity was severely compromised and they experienced diverse feelings from the harassment as a result of this degradation. Such feelings included being humiliated, isolated, embarrassed, in addition to being condemned. Anwar et al. (2022) concur with the findings above when they argue that sexual harassment brings about shame in the victim and makes them create a feeling of self-stigmatisation. In line with SCGT, Equal Rights Advocates (2013) support the above students' feelings when they assert that socially people who are sexually harassed may feel stigmatised and alienated. Being offended also emerged from the findings as having been felt by sexual harassment victims.

8.8.2.3 Offended

My findings revealed that feelings by sexual harassment victims of being offended manifested in anger, anxiety and even fear. Literature (Sigurvinsdottir et al. 2019) in concurrence with these findings points out that victims of sexual harassment may suffer from anger and self-blame which emanate from the feeling that they caused the harassment or for failing to stop the harassment. Sigurvinsdottir et al. (2019) argue that self-blame tends to lead to suicidal thoughts. In line with the SCGT, Dahl and Knepper (2021) point out that perpetrators of sexual harassment wield great power which they unleash on the victim so that their demands are accepted without being challenged which creates anger, fear and self-blame in their victims. From the discussion of emotional effects above, it can be theorised that victims of sexual harassment experience emotions related to vulnerability, degradation/mortification and being offended, among others. The next section discusses the academic effects of sexual harassment on the affected student teachers.

8.8.3 Academic Effects

Academic effect generally measures how well a student meets the standards set out by their educational institutions (Kheswa 2014). My findings indicated that the academic performance of victims of sexual harassment was negatively affected. The victims lost interest in education, displayed in missing lectures, culminating in a sudden drop in their academic performance. Participants further revealed that due to sexual harassment they developed negative attitudes towards the particular lecturers who were abusing

them which further made them lose interest in their academic work giving rise to contemplation of quitting college. Literature (Jacobson and Eaton 2018) indicates that sexual harassment can interfere with one's educational operations by creating an intimidating, abusive or offensive environment, where one feels unable to concentrate and one becomes hopeless in the work one is doing. Drawing from these findings discussed above, one can conclude that sexual harassment of female student teachers affects their academic performance within the teacher training colleges.

From the discussion on the effects of sexual harassment on student teachers in the selected teacher training colleges, it can be concluded that these students suffer socially, emotionally and academically following the forced sexual encounters.

Having discussed, synthesised and concluded findings addressing experiences of sexual harassment, including the effects of that harassment on the victims, in the next section I discuss the mechanisms employed by student teachers to cope with the effects of sexual harassment in the teacher training colleges, addressing Research Question Two.

8.9 How Pre-service Teachers Cope with Sexual Harassment in Teacher Training Colleges

Findings show that victims of sexual harassment adopted three major coping strategies: psychosocial intervention; avoidance; and reporting which are reflected in Figure 7.1.

8.9.1 Psychosocial Intervention

Results of the study indicated that participants employed psychosocial intervention to deal with the effects of sexual harassment that they had experienced. Psychosocial intervention emerged as an emotion-based coping mechanism which involved psychosocial support offered to the victims of sexual harassment. Psychosocial interventions are methods of assisting victims suffering from a variety of pathologies which involve psychological, social and biological functioning (Dangroo et al. 2021). The goal of psychosocial intervention is to effect change in the victim in terms of symptoms, functioning and their well-being (Kraiss et al. 2022). Psychosocial intervention emerged in two forms: sharing with others (friends, peers, spouses and other family members), and getting counselling.

Figure 8. 4 Coping with Effects of Sexual Harassment



Source: Researcher 2022

8.9.1.1 Sharing with Others

Findings revealed that victims of sexual harassment shared information about their ordeals with significant others. Significant others are those people included in one's circle of close friends, spouses, peers and close family members (Ferguson 2022). Further, significant others may be those people who have an impact in a person's life because they are socially and emotionally close (Banovcinova and Baskoa 2016). Research findings indicated that victims of sexual harassment shared with their spouses and family members, friends and peers as a way of coping with the stresses caused by sexual harassment. It also emerged that other support systems at teacher training colleges included peer educators trained to support students with such problems. Significant others are those people who share emotional interdependence with the victims, hence, are vital in the coping process (Sels et al. 2016). Peer educators seemed to have fulfilled those attributes. Drawing on the TMSC (Lazarus and Folkman 1984 in Gradus 2017) people can search for help if their coping resources are overwhelmed by the challenges that face them. While findings indicated the value of peers in helping victims cope with the effects of sexual harassment, the effectiveness of trained peer educators in teacher training colleges in handling cases of sexual harassment was not found in the literature consulted. Literature seemed to have no idea of this group of students currently in teacher training colleges and their value in helping their peers (other student teachers) cope with sexual harassment effects. Counselling was also adopted as a strategy for coping with sexual harassment.

8.9.1.2 Counselling

From the research findings, psychosocial support also emerged through counselling offered by professional counsellors in the teacher training colleges. The trained counsellors or deans of students counselled victims of sexual harassment and helped them cope with the negative effects of the harassment. Counselling is a one-on one interaction emotion-based support between a professional counsellor and someone looking for help. The counsellor's work is to capacitate the client in order to be able to resolve their own problems (Kabir 2018; Linley and Joseph 2004). Findings showed that counselling was an effective coping strategy to deal with psychosocial challenges for the victims of sexual harassment as many victims opted for counselling without necessarily reporting their attackers. Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC) theory concurs when it views coping as a critical strategy in managing a stressful situation (Bosmans et al. 2015).

One can, therefore, conclude that student teachers subjected to sexual harassment adopt psychosocial intervention as one of the coping strategies against stress where they share their ordeals with others and/or seek counselling from professionals. Another coping strategy adopted to deal with effects of sexual harassment was avoidance which is discussed below.

8.9.2 Avoidance (Maladaptive Coping)

Findings showed that victims of sexual harassment also used avoidance as a coping strategy in dealing with the effects of the harassment. Participants indicated that avoidance as a strategy involved simply keeping quiet about their harassment without divulging their encounter. Avoidance was preferred by victims who were gripped with fear of the outcome of divulging their encounters to avoid confronting the perpetrator of the sexual harassment. This coping strategy offered temporary relief as it did not address the real underlying problem, hence it is called maladaptive coping strategy. Avoidance or escape coping mechanism is described by Shen and Slater (2021) as a maladaptive form of coping where the victim avoids dealing with the stressor directly. Cowan et al. (2020) support the use of this escape coping style which uses avoidance where the victim deliberately avoids confronting the harasser for fear of further victimisation and further stress which emanates from the sexual harassment experiences. Drawing on the TMSC, avoidance creates a scenario where the victim may be subjected to increased stress, anger, loneliness anxiety and depression (Kain et al. 2019; Son et al. 2020).

From the above discussion, it can be theorised that notwithstanding that avoidance is a maladaptive method of coping, many sexual harassment victims still prefer to use it as they just keep quiet, avoiding confronting the attacker. The next section discusses the problem-based coping strategy.

8.9.3 Problem-Based Coping

Problem-based coping involves task oriented or active behavioural strategies which are designed to find solutions to the stressors. Smith and Keefer (2016) view such strategies as adaptive in nature. Approaches to problem-based coping in this study involved reporting the sexual harassment. Findings showed that some victims of sexual harassment reported the cases to the relevant authorities in order to obtain a solution to their problem. The problem-focused approach where the victim confronts the real problem was adopted by a few courageous and empowered sexual harassment victims. Reporting involves alerting people in authority about the harassment perpetrated in a bid to seek justice and solve the problem (Quick and MacFadyen 2017; Lauzen 2017). Results from the study revealed that female students who adopted this coping strategy reported to their female deans for help. In this study, reporting emerged as the most effective adaptive coping strategy in offering a permanent solution to victims, as perpetrators were directly confronted and the problem resolved. From the TMSC, problem-based coping strategy is regarded as a problem- focused approach as the victim faces the stressor head-on. While this strategy needs courage and support, it may be difficult to implement, notwithstanding its ability to make a real change in ensuring that the victim adjusts well to the problem (Carroll 2013; Gradus 2017; Sgoifo et al. 2017).

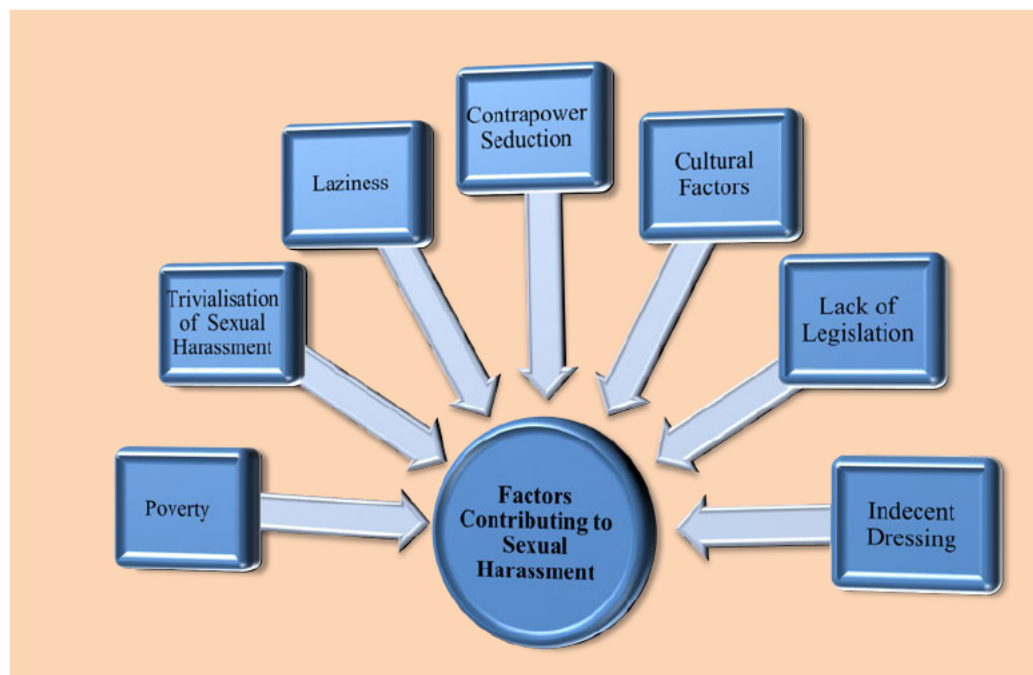
One can, therefore, conclude that the problem-based coping mechanism provides a more permanent solution to the problem of sexual harassment. However, very few victims adopt it due to fear of the consequences and the courageous who adopt it find it easier to report to authorities of the same gender. Thus, the three major coping strategies adopted by victims of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges are psychosocial intervention, avoidance coping and problem-based coping.

In the next section I discuss answers to Research Question Three about the factors contributing to the perpetuation of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

8.10 Factors Contributing to the Prevalence of Sexual Harassment in Teacher Training Colleges

Poverty, trivialisation of sexual harassment, laziness of students, lack of effective and relevant legislation, indecent dress, contra-power seduction and culture emerged as the major factors contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in the selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe These are reflected in Figure 8.1 and discussed thereafter.

Figure 8.5 Factors Contributing to the Prevalence of Sexual Harassment in Teacher Training Colleges.



Source: Researcher 2022

8.10.1 Poverty

Research findings showed that poverty contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Participants blamed the high cost of teacher education, coupled with limited or no government funding, as pre-disposing student teachers from economically poor backgrounds to sexual harassment. This is consistent with literature which indicates that lack of adequate financial resources compromises the dignity and morality of the student teachers making them prone to sexual harassment (Gukurume 2021; Mutambara and Chinyoka 2016). Findings showed that student teachers from weak financial backgrounds needed both financial and material support to survive and progress with their tertiary education in teacher training colleges. Lack of these resources made the students, particularly female student teachers, prone to sexual harassment by male lecturers. It emerged that in such cases the poor female student teachers had no choice but to indulge in transactional sex, thereby contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. Chinyoka and Mutamba (2020) in support of this view argue that the tense political and economic conditions prevailing in the country made the government of Zimbabwe unable to subsidise tertiary education leaving everything to the individual students and their families. Using the lens of SCGT, the issue of financial inequality gives rise to transactional sexual relationships and sexual harassment of women and girls. From these findings, one can conclude that poverty contributes to sexual harassment in the selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Trivialisation of sexual harassment was also found to influence the perpetuation of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges.

8.10.2 Trivialisation of Sexual Harassment

My findings indicated that trivialisation of sexual harassment also contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. From the findings, sexual harassment was downplayed by some of the selected teacher training colleges. The behaviour of some male staff towards female student teachers was dismissed as something trivial, not worth talking about, hence cases of sexual harassment were seen as not important. According to Karami et al. (2021) trivialisation of sexual harassment can be defined as downplaying or belittling the seriousness of the behaviour and its effects on the victims. In other words, trivialisation is where a victim is manipulated to accept sexual harassment committed on them as lawful or acceptable (Mendes et al. 2022; Sarwar 2022). From my findings, some college authorities viewed sexual harassment as a minor sexual offence not worth any serious attention. Underplaying sexual harassment offences negatively affected the fight against Gender Based Violence, hence, perpetrators continued harassing students without fear of any repercussions. In some cases, in this study victims ended up perceiving it as acceptable behaviour in teacher training colleges. Consequently, perceptions of both perpetrators and victims in trivialising sexual harassment in teacher training colleges contributed to its prevalence. From the SCGT standpoint Swan (2017) notes that complex structures of gender inequality are responsible for perpetuating sexual harassment especially in institutions of higher learning which may be a way of protecting and preserving the culture of sexual harassment within the institution.

From the discussion, it can be theorised that sexual harassment was perpetuated by trivialising the incidence in some teacher training colleges. It should also be noted that in some cases both perpetrators and victims trivialise sexual harassment which contributes to its prevalence. I also found students' laziness influenced their sexual harassment.

8.10.3 Laziness

Findings revealed that laziness of some female student teachers to do college work or submit assignments in time also contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges, as such students wanted to pass without working. Such student teachers made themselves prone to sexual harassment as pay-back for marks or work done on their behalf by lecturers and supervisors. This is consistent with literature where Kebirungi (2021) argues that peer pressure in female students to indulge in excessive alcohol and substance abuse has become rampant in institutions making them uncaring about school work, thus, making them prone to sexual abuse or even rape when they are intoxicated.

Based on the findings laziness of students to work on assessments and submit them in time contributes to the prevalence of sexual harassment by male lecturers and other staff in teacher training colleges. I discuss lack of legislation in the next section.

8.10.4 Lack of Legislation

My findings also revealed that lack of effective and relevant legislation on sexual harassment in teacher training colleges was another contributory factor to the prevalence of this phenomenon. Findings showed that the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education lacked legislation to control perpetrators of sexual harassment. Further to that, the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Innovation Science and Technology Development (MHTEISTD) also lacked enthusiasm to fight sexual harassment through policies. Lack of legal instruments on sexual harassment encouraged perpetrators to continue sexually harassing student teachers as there was no prescribed mechanism to deter the offenders. Literature (Matsikidze 2017) argues that the constitution of Zimbabwe does not expressly provide for the right to be protected against sexual harassment though there are provisions which can be relied upon to protect women against sexual harassment. Victims, therefore, found it difficult to fight harassment as there was no legal document to refer to in order to defend themselves or even to consult to fight the perpetrator. In support of the above, literature (University World News in Zimbabwe 2021) shows that a sexual harassment bill to criminalise abuse is taking a long time to pass, hence, sexual harassment continues unabated.

One can, therefore, say that the lack of appropriate legislation on sexual harassment within the teacher training colleges contributes to the perpetuation of sexual harassment. I also discuss provocative dressing as one of the contributors of sexual harassment.

8.10.5 Provocative Dress

Sexual harassment through indecent dressing by female students also contributed to the prevalence of sexual harassment by male lecturers and other male staff in teacher training colleges. Female student teachers put on short, tight, and transparent dresses, shorts or even tight-fitting revealing trousers. The forms of dress exposed body parts which sexually provoked or seduced the male lecturers, other staff and male students to sexually harass them. Such dress was perceived to communicate the women's readiness for sexual relationships. However, despite the above views which put the blame on women as provoking through clothes, feminists argue against it. Dube et al. (2019) and the SCGT proponents believe that dress is used by men as a tool to sexually objectify women. Feminists further question why sexual provocation is only levelled at women notwithstanding that even men can put on revealing clothes but no one ever labels them as sexually provocative. Feminists argue that men want the law to justify women's sexual harassment because of their dress. However, these men would not wish to be treated the same way when they encounter sexual assault (Mawere 2021; Omar 2019). In addition, women believe that their dress is determined by the occasion and the need to be smart looking. In this study female students felt that they must enjoy the same human rights on dress as men (Wolfendale 2016; Luzen 2017).

Drawing from the above findings, it can be concluded that male student teachers believe female student teachers contribute to their sexual harassment through provocative dress. I next discuss contra-power as a factor in influencing sexual harassment.

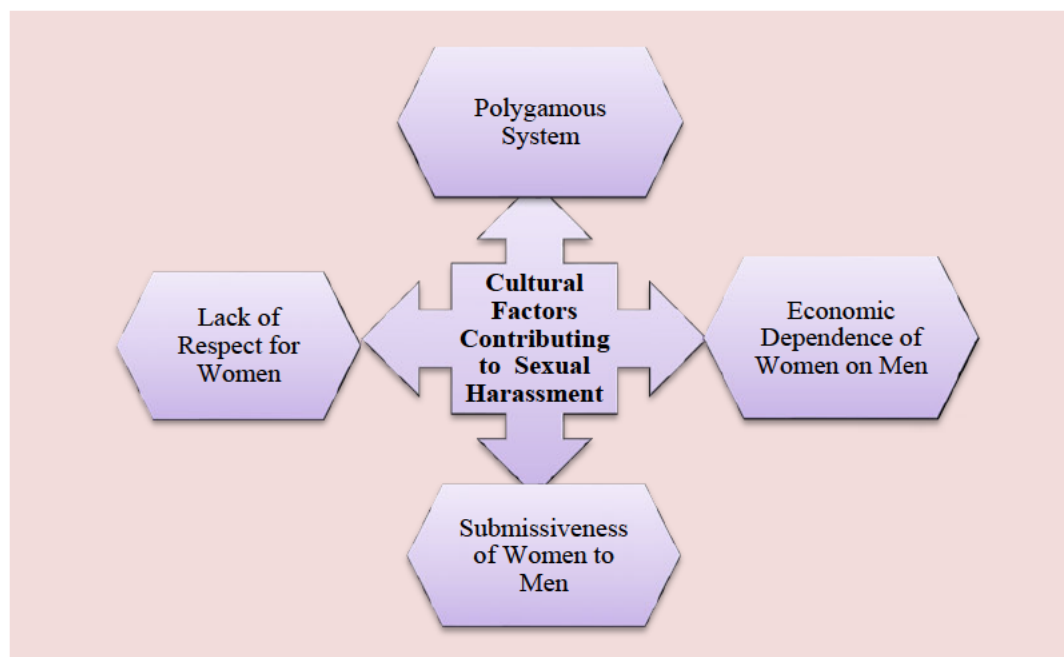
8.10.6 Contra-power Seduction

Contra-power sexual harassment or seduction also emerged as a factor contributing to the prevalence of sexual harassment within the selected teacher training colleges. Contrary to the usual scenario where male lecturers and staff were the culprits in the perpetuation of sexual harassment, contra-power sexual harassment was initiated by female student teachers. Findings indicated that these female students, despite their lower status than the lecturers, seduced them. From the findings, such female students frequented the lecturers' offices privately, spoke and sat in those offices in ways that were "communicating something sexually". While this contributory factor emerged as widespread in teacher training colleges, it was less talked about. Further to that, contra-power contradicted the SCGT where it is only men who sexually harass women due to unequal power dynamics (Ruzzante et al. 2021) and not the other way around. However, other literature consulted (Mawere and Seroto 2022) indicates that contra-power sexual harassment is rampant in Higher Education and continues to contribute to the prevalence of this phenomenon in these spaces. What the discussion above reveals is that sexual harassment in teacher training colleges is also perpetuated by contra-power seduction. I discuss culture as a factor in influencing sexual harassment next.

8.10.7 Culture

Findings from the study further revealed culture as another major contributor of the prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. The four cultural factors that were found to have a contributory effect to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges were the polygamous system, economic dependence of women on men, submissiveness of women to men and lack of respect for women.

Figure 8.6: Cultural Factors Contributing to the Prevalence of Sexual Harassment



Source: Researcher 2022

8.10.7.1 Polygamous System

The traditional polygamous marriage emerged as contributing to sexual harassment as it encouraged promiscuity among male staff which behaviour influenced them to sexually harass female student teachers in teacher training colleges. From literature polygamy is a kind of a marriage contract commonly made up of one husband and a multiplicity of wives, which gives freedom to men to enjoy several sexual relations with no control (Bahari et al. 2021; Femi-Ajao 2018). Cultural acceptance of man's promiscuity emerged as linked to the behaviour of male lecturers and other staff where these professionals engaged in casual sexual relationships with several female student teachers in the colleges. From the theoretical perspective, SCGT (Anitha 2019; Dlamini 2020) suggests that patriarchal societies employ toxic masculinity perspectives to suppress the rights of women and allow men to engage in promiscuity because they place women at a lower status than men. The research findings revealed the link between the culture of polygamy and the behaviour of promiscuous men which influenced male lecturers' sexual harassment attitudes in the teacher training colleges. Another cultural aspect related to culture which contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe is the economic dependence of women on men.

8.10.7.2 Economic Dependence on Men

The cultural belief that women must depend on men also contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges as female student teachers relied on male lecturers and other staff for financial and material support. Findings showed that this cultural belief held by female student teachers and male staff

made female students easy targets of sexual harassment as the male staff took advantage, offering students material and financial support in return for sexual benefits (Kanyeredzi 2018; Ogunmosule 2012). Literature indicated that women have been marginalised even at family level where boy children were accorded school learning opportunities while girl children stayed at home waiting to be married (Bertay et al. 2020; Gangoli et al. 2020). Drawing on the perspective of SCGT, Giuliano (2020) argues that unequal economic opportunities and status between men and women have a deep-rooted historical background. All the above factors have contributed to the sexual harassment of the female student teachers in Zimbabwean teacher training colleges. Women's submissiveness to men also contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges as discussed below.

8.10.7.3 Submissiveness of Women to Men

Findings also revealed that the cultural system which compels women to submit to men contributed to sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. From the findings, male lecturers took advantage of this cultural phenomenon to sexually abuse female student teachers without the female student teachers challenging the harassment. Culture placed too much power on men, making women too submissive. Women internalise the fact that they occupy a subordinate role in society which makes them ignored in key decision-making gatherings (Britannica 2021; Oni et al. 2014). Hence, male lecturers could easily demand or make proposals for sexual relationships with female student teachers who would not challenge them due to unequal distribution of power. SCGT views power relations as enabling women to accept their subordinate position in society. Hierarchy, gendered norms and values within communities entrench the belief that women are under men, hence they must submit to them (Amusan et al. 2017). From the findings, female student teachers are placed in a compromised position in which they give in to sexual harassment, thus contributing to its prevalence in teacher training colleges.

8.10.7.4 Lack of Respect for Women

My findings also indicated that the lack of respect for women by men in society, where they were regarded as sex objects, filtered into teacher training colleges and also contributed to sexual harassment. Arnot and Swartz (2018) argue that respect entails having a positive feeling, demonstrating high regard or holding someone in high esteem, where you accord the person their rights as equal human beings. However, a contrary view of women by men where there was lack of respect made it easy for male lecturers and staff to sexually harass female student teachers in teacher training colleges contributing to the prevalence of the phenomenon. SCGT perceives aggressive masculinities exercised by men as another justification for the lack of respect offered to women by men and the behaviour has deep roots in cultural beliefs (Bondestam 2020).

From the discussion, it can be theorised that factors that contribute to the pervasiveness of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges, among others include poverty; trivialisation of sexual

harassment; student laziness, absence of policy and legislation, provocative dress and contra-power seduction. Culture emerges as another major contributing factor, given the four cultural contributory aspects: polygamy; women's dependence on men; women's submission to men; and lack of respect for women. Having discussed, synthesised and concluded findings addressing the three research questions that I set out in Chapter One, in the next section I outline the original contributions of the study.

8.11 Original Contributions of the Study

This study investigated the unheard voices of sexual harassment of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe to understand their experiences and the effects of the phenomenon, the coping mechanisms that they adopt, as well as factors that perpetuate this scourge in the colleges.

As I come to the end of my research journey, in this section I address the question: What does the thesis contribute regarding sexual harassment of student teachers in selected teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe? Drawing on findings, I make five major contributions related to the theoretical framework, normalisation of sexual harassment, influence of poverty and culture, contra-power seduction; and male student teacher harassment.

Firstly, Social Construction of Gender Theory (SCGT) has been used in isolation to understand sexual harassment issues. On the other hand, the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (TMSC) has also been used on its own to understand strategies adopted to cope with various forms of stress. This study discovered that the use of SCGT in combination with TMSC produces a robust and effective theoretical framework to unpack, understand and describe the sexual harassment experiences of the victims, the effects of that harassment, the coping strategies that the victims adopt, as well as the factors contributing to the prevalence of this sexual phenomenon in teacher training colleges (Mashweshwe 2018; Worke et al. 2021).

In addition, what emerged in my study is that contra-power seduction perpetuates sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. However, while the SCGT has worked well in researching sexual harassment issues, what I discovered is that on its own, the SCGT does not provide a complete lens to make sense of the variations in sexual harassment, in particular to understand or explain the phenomenon of contra-power seduction prevalent in teacher training colleges. Consequently, from an analysis of literature around contributory factors to sexual harassment, I was able to understand, and explain the aspect of contra-power seduction. Thus, to obtain a nuanced understanding of sexual harassment issues, the SCGT, in addition to the TMSC, needs to be combined with literature on related aspects. This is an additional theoretical contribution of this study.

Secondly, with regard to normalisation of sexual harassment, my study found that sexual harassment was sustained within some teacher training colleges through normalisation of the harassment behaviour. It emerged that the college authorities and lecturers were reluctant to seriously and decisively address cases of sexual harassment brought to their attention, apparently viewing them as normal small matters. Such attitudes may influence one to believe that they were also 'in the game.' Given such prevailing attitudes, the victims themselves consequently ended up accepting the occurrences as normal phenomena. Normalisation of sexual harassment de-sensitises all individuals to the abusive or inappropriate sexual behaviour perpetrated at the colleges (Karami et al. 2021; Matsikidze (2017).

Thirdly, regarding the influence of poverty and culture on sexual harassment, my study revealed that lack of material and financial support from the government predisposed female student teachers to sexual exploitation by male lecturers and other male staff. Student teachers from weak financial backgrounds emerged as vulnerable to sexual harassment as the government had ceased the provision of grants, loans and cadetship to tertiary education students. This left all the financial burdens of these poorly funded student teachers on the sole shoulders of their financially struggling guardians or parents (Chinyoka and Mutamba 2020). In the same vein cultural beliefs that women depend on men for financial support made some student teachers fall prey to and be taken advantage of sexually by male lecturers who provided them with financial and material support in return for sexual favours – the *quid-pro quo* practice.

Fourthly, contra-power seduction emerged as perpetuating sexual harassment in teacher training colleges. While female students have traditionally been documented as the victims of sexual harassment (Anene and Osayamwen 2019; Buchanan et al. 2018; UN Women 2020), it emerged from my study that some female students in all the colleges explored had become perpetrators of sexual harassment to male lecturers. These female students used several tactics which involved displaying some sexual gestures, visiting the lecturers privately in their offices and behaving or sitting in awkward ways in an attempt to seduce or entice them into a sexual relationship. The behaviour of these female students is known as contra-power seduction because it is a form of unusual harassment perpetrated by someone from a lower social status to the other person holding a higher position in the organisation (Mawodza 2019). However, even though contra-power was rampant in colleges, my findings showed that it was rarely talked about in literature, let alone being given any attention.

My fifth contribution concomitant to the above pertains to how male student teacher sexual harassment is perpetrated by their female counterparts. While extant literature (Gould 2021; Dahl and Knepper 2021; Mutiso and Mutie 2018) points to female students as the sole victims of sexual harassment, my study established that male student teachers were also victims of sexual harassment by female students. This study showed that female students harassed male student teachers through their dress which was allegedly too short, too tight or too revealing. This inappropriate dress by the female students, therefore, sexually

provoked, aroused, sexually offended or sexually harassed the male students (Crowley 2021). However, despite the dress which male students regarded as sexually inappropriate, literature from feminists refutes the assertion that women dress to lure men sexually: rather, women choose their dress for them to look beautiful and fashionable (Mawere 2021). Having outlined the original contributions of this study, in the following section, I discuss implications based on the study.

8.12 Implications Based on the Study

Based on the research findings, I draw four recommendations related to policy on sexual harassment, student funding, college practice and dress code.

In relation to policy, this study revealed that poverty was the major contributor to the on-going prevalence of sexual exploitation and harassment of female student teachers by male lecturers and other male staff in teacher training colleges. Students who come from economically compromised backgrounds emerged as prone to sexual harassment due to poverty. The issue of poverty emanated from and was exacerbated by the government's withdrawal of student funding from tertiary education in Zimbabwe. This study suggests that government through the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Innovation Science and Technology Development (MHTEISTD) reinstates the policy on the provision of student pay-outs to support their tertiary education. This could be based on an assessment of family income and would particularly benefit those students from weak financial backgrounds. Such an action would probably contribute to the reduction of sexual harassment of the vulnerable student teachers by lecturers and other staff in teacher training colleges.

This study also discovered that colleges lacked sexual harassment policies or guidelines to deal with such cases. It would appear that the high prevalence of sexual harassment in teacher training colleges emerged against a backdrop of an absence of such regulations which could act as a deterrent and regulate the conduct of college authorities, lecturers and student teachers. This thesis suggests an urgent need for the development a sexual harassment policy by the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Innovation Science and Technology Development (MHTEISTD) in conjunction with teacher training colleges. Such a policy would help control both staff and students and offer guidelines on procedures for reporting, as well as for handling, sexual harassment cases in these institutions of higher learning. The said policy would suggest the imposition of heavy penalties for perpetrators of such gender-based violence.

It also emerged that normalisation of sexual harassment cases by college authorities, lecturers and students, which made such incidences trivial and eventually acceptable, was rife in the colleges. Such attitudes contributed to the perpetuation of sexual harassment in these institutions and, more seriously, led to non-reporting of sexual harassment incidences by the victims. This study, in addition to policy highlighted above, recommends regular mandatory sensitisation workshops and awareness campaigns to

educate college communities about sexual harassment and its effects on student teachers in teacher training colleges.

Lastly, this study discovered that indecent or sexually provocative dress by female student teachers sexually harassed male student teachers, male lecturers and other staff. This was contrary to Public Service Commission (PSC) dress code requirements for all civil servants including teacher trainees, discussed in Chapter 6, which stipulates the expected form of dress to maintain the professional images of the ministries (Public Service Standard of Dress 2006). While the dress code circular 10 of 2006 was adhered to by civil servants in the field, apparently the PSC dress requirements were not enforced in teacher training colleges. This was probably due to different financial backgrounds, notwithstanding that these students were training to be teachers. It could also have been because, unlike qualified civil service personnel on whom 'charges' could easily be preferred by PSC if found inappropriately dressed, student teachers could not be 'charged' for misconduct. It is, therefore, suggested that colleges enforce the PSC dress code given that after training these people enter the classroom where they are expected to model good behaviour including appropriate dress code to the young learners. From literature, Catapano (2019) points out that teachers are role models for their students so when teachers dress professionally it sends an important message to students and their communities.

8.13 Implications for Research

This research investigated three out of 17 teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe where it explored only 30 out of approximately 3000 student teachers from those three colleges. Given the paradigmatic and philosophical orientations in which the study is located, findings cannot be generalised. It is, therefore, recommended that more comprehensive studies be undertaken which could investigate the prevalence of sexual harassment in these colleges and the measures that could be taken to minimise occurrences among other issues. Such studies could involve more or all colleges, a bigger sample inclusive of college management, staff and students. Different research paradigms, designs, approaches and methods could be adopted to enable generalisation of findings.

8.14 Summary

In this chapter, having introduced the chapter and presented theoretical and methodological reflections and thesis review, I then synthesised and discussed findings from the study where participants understood sexual harassment as pressured sexual intimacy; use of derogatory language; and misuse of authority. Student teachers experienced sexual harassment in the form of coerced sexual engagement, abuse of position, sexualised remarks, sexual exploitation and nude pictures. These sexual harassment experiences affected student teachers socially, emotionally or psychologically and academically. Three major coping strategies to deal with sexual harassment in teacher training colleges were adopted: psychosocial intervention; avoidance; and reporting. What also emerged was that factors contributing to sexual

harassment in teacher education related to poverty, trivialisation of sexual harassment, laziness of students, lack of effective and relevant legislation, indecent dress, contra-power seduction and culture. As I have arrived at the end of my gruelling research journey where I explored *Sexual harassment in teacher education: Unheard voices of pre-service teachers in teacher training colleges*, I vividly recall a comment made by one female participant at College C who said:

Sexual harassment is unwelcome behaviour that is offensive, humiliating and intimidating which, us, female students encounter every day, we are always getting requests for sexual favours. In colleges this is perpetuated by those people in positions of power, who have financial resources to take advantage of the vulnerable student teacher who has no knowledge of how to resist the temptation (College C S3).

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Certificate of Research Ethics

	Zertifikat Certificat	Certificado Certificate
Promouvoir les plus hauts standards éthiques dans la protection des participants à la recherche biomédicale Promoting the highest ethical standards in the protection of biomedical research participants		
	Certificat de formation - Training Certificate Ce document atteste que - this document certifies that	
HERBERT MURADZIKWA a complété avec succès - has successfully completed Introduction to Research Ethics du programme de formation TRREE en évaluation éthique de la recherche of the TRREE training programme in research ethics evaluation		
Release Date: 2020/11/25 CID: 76F518E6		Professeur Dominique Sprumont Coordonnateur TRREE Coordinator
		
Ce programme est soutenu par - This program is supported by : European and Developing Countries Clinical Trials Partnership (EDCTP) (www.edctp.org) - Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF) (www.snsf.ch) - Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) (www.cihr-irsc.gc.ca/289.html) - Swiss Academy of Medical Science (SAMS/ASSIMSW) (www.sams.ch) - Commission for Research Partnerships with Developing Countries (www.kfpe.ch)		
[REV : 20170310]		

Appendix B: Ethical Clearance



Institutional Research Ethics Committee
Research and Postgraduate Support Directorate
2nd Floor, Berwyn Court
Gate 1, Steve Biko Campus
Durban University of Technology

P O Box 1334, Durban, South Africa, 4001

Tel: 031 373 2375
Email: lavishad@dut.ac.za
http://www.dut.ac.za/research/institutional_research_ethics
www.dut.ac.za

29 May 2021

Mr H Muradzikwa
Bondolfi Teachers' College
Box 300
Masvingo
Zimbabwe

Dear Mr Muradzikwa

Sexual harassment in Zimbabwe teacher education: Unheard voices of pre-service teachers in Teachers' Colleges
Ethical Clearance number IREC 155/20

The Institutional Research Ethics Committee acknowledges receipt of your notification regarding the piloting of your data collection tools.

Kindly ensure that participants used for the pilot study are not part of the main study.

In addition, the IREC acknowledges receipt of your gatekeeper permission letter.

Please note that FULL APPROVAL is granted to your research proposal. You may proceed with data collection.

Any adverse events [serious or minor] which occur in connection with this study and/or which may alter its ethical consideration must be reported to the IREC according to the IREC SOP's.

Please note that any deviations from the approved proposal require the approval of the IREC as outlined in the IREC SOP's.

Yours Sincerely

Prof J K Adam
Chairperson: IREC

Appendix C: Permission Request Letter: To the Ministry



PERMISSION REQUEST LETTER: TO THE MINISTRY

THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER TERTIARY EDUCATION SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
DEVELOPMENT
NEW COMPLEX BUILDING 6TH FLOOR BLOCK GCNR 3RD STREET/SAMORA MACHEL
AVENUE
HARARE
ZIMBABWE

Date.....

Dear Sir

RE: REQUEST TO CARRY OUT A STUDY IN YOUR MINISTRY

My name is Muradzikwa Herbert (EC Number 0921757J) employed as a lecturer at Bondolfi Teachers' College. I am a student pursuing a PhD study with Durban University of Technology. I am writing to seek permission to carry out a research in your Ministry in four teachers' colleges. The topic of my study *Sexual harassment in Zimbabwe teacher education: Unheard voices of pre-service teachers in colleges*. I intend to hold 4 focus group discussions and also 6 individual interviews with 32 female students and one focus group discussion with 10 male students. I will work with first year and final year students in your colleges. I will also hold individual face to face interviews with the Vice Principal and 4 lecturers (dean of students, resident warden, one HOD and college counsellor). With permission of the participants, all interviews will be audio recorded. The research report will be made available to you on completion of the study.

For more information, you may contact my supervisors whose details are below

Prof Tabitha Mukeredzi and Prof Julia Preece School of Education, Faculty of Arts and Design
Indumiso, Midlands Campus, Durban University of Technology, Pietermaritzburg

Research Ethics Administrator on 031 373 2375.

Complaints can be reported to the Director Research and Postgraduate Support, Prof K Duffy on
0313732577 DUT P.O. Box 1334, Durban 4001. Tel 031 373 2577

I look forward to hearing from you soon

Yours Faithfully

Appendix D: Permission Request Letter: To the Principal



PERMISSION REQUEST LETTER: TO THE PRINCIPAL

The Principal

.....
.....

Date.....

Dear Sir

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN YOUR COLLEGE

My name is Muradzikwa Herbert (EC Number 0921757J) employed as a lecturer at Bondolfi Teachers' College. I am a student pursuing a PhD study with Durban University of Technology. I am writing to seek permission to carry out a research in your College. The topic of my study is: *Sexual harassment in Zimbabwe teacher education: Unheard voices of pre-service teachers in colleges*

I intend to hold 4 focus group discussions and also 6 individual interviews with 32 female students and one focus group discussion with 10 students male students. I intend to work with first year and final year students in your college. I will also hold individual face to face interviews with the Vice Principal and 4 lecturers (dean of students, resident warden, one HOD and college counsellor). With permission of the participants, all interviews will be audio recorded. The research report will be made available to you on completion of the study.

For more information, you may contact my supervisors whose details are below

Prof Tabitha Mukeredzi and Prof Julia Preece
School of Education, Faculty of Arts and Design, Indumiso/Midlands Campus,
Durban University of Technology, Pietermaritzburg

Research Ethics Administrator on 031 373 2375.

Complaints can be reported to the DVC: Research, Innovation and Engagement Prof S Moyo on 031 373 2577 or moyos@dut.ac.za.

I look forward to hearing from you soon

Yours Faithfully

Appendix E: Authority from the Ministry

All official communications should be addressed to:
"The Secretary for Higher & Tertiary Education
Telephones: 795891-5, 796441-9, 730055-9
Fax Numbers: 792109, 728730, 703957
E-mail: thesecretary@mbet.ac.zw
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"



Reference:

MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY
EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND
TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT
P. BAG CY 7732
CAUSEWAY

REF/P: MURADZIKWA H. (MR)
E.C NO: 0921757 J

STAFF CONFIDENTIAL

20 May 2021

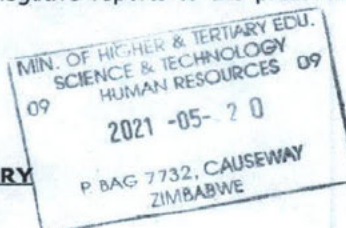
Mr. H. Muradzikwa
C/o Bondolfi Teachers College

AUTHORITY TO CARRYOUT A RESEARCH AT FOUR (4) TEACHERS COLLEGES: MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, INNOVATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT.MR HERBERT MURADZIKWA: EC.NO: 0921757 J: BONDOLFI TEACHERS COLLEGE

Reference is made to your letter dated 12 April 2021 in which you requested for permission to carry out a research on ' **Sexual harassment in Zimbabwe teacher education; unheard voices of pre-service teachers' colleges**' A case study of Ministry's four (4) Teachers Colleges.

It is hoped that your research will benefit the Ministry and it would be appreciated if you could supply the office of the Permanent Secretary with a final copy of your study, as the findings would be relevant to the Ministry's strategic planning process. You are not allowed to send negative reports to the press without the Ministry's knowledge.

F. Manyere (MR)
FOR: **PERMANENT SECRETARY**



Appendix F: Letter of Information to Participants (Students and Staff)



LETTER OF INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS (STUDENTS AND STAFF)

Title of the Research study: Sexual harassment in Zimbabwe Teacher Education: How pre-service teachers experience and deal with sexual harassment teachers, colleges.

Principal investigator /Researcher: Muradzikwa Herbert

Co-Investigator/s/Supervisors: Prof Tabitha Mukeredzi and Prof Julia Preece

Brief introduction and purpose of the study:

The purpose of my study is to explore how pre-service teachers experience and deal with sexual harassment in four teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe. The study also intends to establish some of the causes of sexual harassment in colleges and the implications of sexual harassment on teacher training in Zimbabwe.

Outline of the procedures:

After completing a short questionnaire, I will conduct individual face to face interviews with some of you, which will take 60 -120 minutes in a private venue. I will further hold face to face interviews with the vice principal, dean of students, resident warden, and one HOD and college counsellor. These interviews will take 45 to 60 minutes and will be conducted in the respective offices. With your permission all interviews will be recorded.

Risks or Discomforts to the participant:

There will be no risks or discomforts. However, a counsellor will be on the standby in case one of you needs counselling services. These face to face interviews may be audio recorded only to be used for the study and nothing else. This is done to enable me to capture what you say accurately while I concentrate on the discussions.

Benefits:

As participants you will have an opportunity to share your experiences and air your views which may help fight sexual harassment in teachers' colleges in the country. I will also serve you with snacks and drinks during the interviews.

Reasons why participants may be withdrawn from the study:

You may choose to withdraw from the study at any time without any prejudice.

Remuneration: No payment will be made to you as you are not expected to incur any expenses.

Costs of the study: You are not expected to cover any costs towards the study

Confidentiality:

Data generated will not be divulged to anybody except my supervisors and will be securely and confidentially kept by my supervisors in a locked up cupboard. Your real names will not be used instead pseudo or fictitious names will be used in reporting the findings.

Research –related injury: There will be no injury to you as a result of the study

Persons to contact in the event of any problems or queries:

Supervisors:

Prof Tabitha Mukeredzi, PhD: Tel:0762995974 TabithaM@dut.ac.za

Prof Julia Preece, PhD: 0734657609 PreeceJ@gmail.com

Researcher: +263772707720 muradzikwah@gmail.com

Research Ethics Administrator on 031 373 2375. Complaints can be reported to the Director Research and Postgraduate Support, [Prof K Duffy](#) on 0313732577 DUT P.O. Box 1334, Durban 4001. Tel 031 373 2577

Appendix G: Consent Form



CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- ☐ I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, _____ (name of Researcher), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number:
- ☐ I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- ☐ I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- ☐ In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerised system by the researcher.
- ☐ I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent 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, _____ (name of researcher) herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

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

Appendix H: Questionnaire for Selecting Student Participants



QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SELECTING STUDENT PARTICIPANTS

The purpose of this questionnaire is to help me to select those of you who have experienced some form of sexual harassment in the college and are willing share their experiences, so that I can then sit down and discuss more about this issue in the college.

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FOR STUDENTS

Please **respond by placing an X** in the appropriate box.

(i) AGE RANGE: (YEARS)

Years	✓
18-20	
21-23	
24-26	
27-29	
30+	

(ii) LEVEL (Year group/Academic year)

First Year	
Final Year	

CELL NUMBER(S)

Instruction

(iii) Please answer the questions as honestly as possible by answering YES or NO.

1. Have you at any time experienced or observed someone involved in sexual harassment in the college?
2. Are you willing to share your experiences or knowledge with me in an interview?
3. Are you willing to discuss sexual harassment issues in a more general or confidential way in an interview--?

Appendix I: Interview Guide Female and Male Students - Individual Face to Face Interview



INTERVIEW GUIDE FEMALE AND MALE STUDENTS - INDIVIDUAL FACE TO FACE INTERVIEW

1. What are the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in teachers' colleges?

1. Do you have an idea of what sexual harassment involves?
2. Would you like to tell me briefly some information pertaining to your education history in relation to your sexual harassment experiences at the college?
3. What signs did you see which show that the person was harassing you sexually?

2. How do pre-service teachers deal with sexual harassment in teachers' colleges?

1. Tell me how the experiences of sexual harassment made you feel.
2. Please explain what you did after you were sexually harassed.
3. Tell me whether anybody helped you. In what ways were you helped?
4. Tell me what you did after you were sexually harassed.
5. How did the whole experience of sexual harassment affect (i) your life? (ii) your school performance?

3. What are the Factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teachers' colleges?

1. In your case what do you think caused sexual harassment you mentioned above?
2. Can you tell me about the way you were brought up to believe, about relations between men and women?
3. With this upbringing, how do you expect men to behave towards women in (i) professional situations? (ii) also in nonprofessional situations like social gatherings/events?
4. Do you think culture could in any way contribute to the many incidences of sexual harassment? Explain more.
5. In your opinion, do you think there are any particular situations, behaviours or practices of both in men and women, that seem to influence sexual harassment?
6. Would you think this is justifiable reason for sexual harassment? Please explain.
7. What do you think could be the factors that contribute to students being sexually harassed in college? Tell me about it.
8. Do you think there are particular situations, behaviours or practices that may bring about sexual harassment of students at college? Tell me some of these.

Appendix J: Interview Guide for Staff: Questions for Face to Face Interview



INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STAFF: QUESTIONS FOR FACE TO FACE INTERVIEW

1. What are the sexual harassment experiences of pre-service teachers in teachers' colleges?

1. How do you understand sexual harassment? What counts as sexual harassment to you?
2. What is the situation regarding sexual harassment in the college?
3. Do you know of instances of sexual harassment that have been reported by students formally or non-formally or any which was not reported? Can you tell me about them?

2. How do pre-service teachers deal with sexual harassment in teachers' colleges? 1. How were these cases handled?

2. How in your opinion do you think the students felt?
3. From your observation, what do students do when they are sexually harassed?
4. In your opinion what are some of the effects of sexual harassment on students in the college?
5. How do the victims handle the effects of sexual harassment in the college?

3. What are the factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual harassment in teachers' colleges?

1. Can you tell me about the way you were brought up to believe, about relations between men and women?
2. With this upbringing, how do you expect men to behave towards women in (i) professional situations? (ii) also in nonprofessional situations like social gatherings/events?
3. Would you think this is justifiable reason for sexual harassment? Please explain.
4. What do you think could be some of the factors that may contribute to students being sexually harassed in college? Tell me about it.

5. In your opinion, do you think there could be particular situations, behaviours or practices of both in men and women, that seem to provoke student sexual harassment? Tell me some of these.
6. Do you think culture could in any way contribute to the incidences of sexual harassment in the college? Explain more.

Appendix K: Drawing for Female Students only



May you make a drawing depicting the emotions/ feelings that you experienced when you were sexually harassed? The picture must tell a story in terms of showing clearly how the incidence (s) of sexual harassment made you feel.