FORMS, CONTRIBUTING FACTORS AND CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AMONG UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS OF EGERTON UNIVERSITY, KENYA

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EGERTON UNIVERSITY

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DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

Declaration

This research thesis is my original work and has not been presented for any award of a degree, diploma or certificate in this or any other university.

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DEDICATION

To the Lord God my Father, the essence of my being who gives me a sense of purpose in life, the strength to live each day and a sustaining counsel in times of peril.

To my mother, Esther Ndiso, who selflessly inculcated the value of service and sacrificially made it possible for me to acquire sound educational base to open a door for further academic pursuits. To my wife Emily, with whom I have grown in faith and character and to our children Charity Nthenya, Samuel Mumo and Joy Ndanu, whose encouragement as a family unit gave the drive start for this study, and prayerfully, offered me love and inspiration.

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ABSTRACT

Sexual harassment is a threatening restatement of status quo in gender relations. Its deleterious mental and physical health consequences have substantial public health and human rights implications. This problem permeates all societies including Kenyan academic institutions and presents formidable challenges to equal opportunity achievement efforts all over the world. Egerton University draws its clientele from a cross-section of all communities in the nation. Investigating harassment on campus would therefore, increase understanding of the mechanisms perpetuating it and boost the potential for successful endeavors aimed at controlling its incidence in other settings. This study set to investigate the forms, consequences and contributing factors of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in Egerton University. The study was carried out at Njoro Campus in Nakuru. It utilized a descriptive survey research design. The target population were the second, third and fourth year undergraduate students of Egerton University whose accessible number was 5056 in Njoro Campus. Purposive and stratified random sampling procedure was used to select a sample of 400 university undergraduate students. Data was collected using the self-report questionnaire that was administered to sampled students and analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequency tables) and inferential statistics (ANOVA and t-test). This was done with the aid of a computer programme - Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15. The research findings established that two thirds of the undergraduate students had been sexually harassed before joining campus. The study also established that sexual harassment is moderately prevalent in Egerton University and that most students are reluctant to label sexually harassing behaviours appropriately. The major contributing factors of sexual harassment were dress code and personal relations. This information is expected to help the university modify or redraft the sexual harassment policy to accommodate emerging trends in sexual harassment among undergraduate students. The students' counselling department could use the information to design effective students' counselling programmes for sexual harassment victims and perpetrators. Finally, the findings of this study are expected to be of help to various stakeholders who deal with issues of gender relations, the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology as well as Non-Governmental Organizations by providing them with tangible research data to work with.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAU	-	Association of African Universities
AAUW	-	American Association of University Women
ANOVA	-	Analysis of Variance
FA	-	Faculty of Agriculture
FASS	-	Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
FAWE	-	Forum for African University Women Educators
FEDCOS	-	Faculty of Education and Community Studies
FERD	-	Faculty of Environment and Resources Development
FET	-	Faculty of Engineering and Technology
FHS	-	Faculty of Health Sciences
FSC	-	Faculty of Science
GOK	-	Government of Kenya
ILRF	-	International Labour Rights Fund
IWGDS	-	Institute Of Women, Gender And Development Studies
NCVC	-	National Commission on Violence Against Children
NCWGE	-	National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education
NGO	-	Non-Governmental organizations
PTSD	-	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
UN	-	United Nations
UNDFW	-	United Nations Development Fund for Women
WHO	-	World Health Organization

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Problem

One of the problems facing development in many nations is gender and sexual harassment. Research showing high rates of sexual harassment in work and educational institutions, along with high-profile cases in the media, has established sexual harassment as a major social problem all over the world (Richman, Rospenda, Nawyn, Flaherty, Fendrich, Drum, & Johnson, 1999) and in Kenya. Indeed, sexual harassment has, for many years, been recognized as being a problem in university campuses (Street, Gradus, Stafford, & Kelly, 2007). Consequently, public awareness of the problem of sexual harassment has grown and the law has substantially evolved in the global arena during the recent years (Stone, 2001). This can be attributed to studies addressing the deleterious mental health consequences of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand & Magley, 1997) that have pointed out that it has substantial public health implications (Schneider, Swan & Fitzgerald, 1997).

Andersen (2000) views sexual harassment as fundamentally a matter of misuse of power deeply linked to gender attitudes. It generally constitutes unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical contact of sexual nature (International Labour Rights Fund, 2002). As a gender-based socio-cultural, economic, political and legal problem, it dehumanizes women and men in society by infringing on their human rights (Wanjala, 2002). Virtually everyone (students, faculty or staff) can be a victim of sexual harassment, but students are especially vulnerable because they are still developing their social, moral and psychological competencies (University of Minnesota (UoM) Sexual Harassment Policy Handbook, 2006).

There is no specific type of students who are most frequently victims of sexual harassment in universities (Amanda & Ashley, 2006). Older students are as likely to be victims as their younger colleagues, graduate students are as vulnerable as undergraduates and international or minority students can be victimized as easily as any other students. Conversely, many students who are sexually harassed typically do not think of the experience as coercive, unethical, and costly to their careers at the time of harassment (Andersen, 2000).

Although several recent studies have indicated that sexual harassment in learning institutions is pervasive, little is known about the frequency, severity, and types of sexual harassment occurring in specific educational institutions (Young, Allen, & Ashbaker, 2004) the world over. Indeed, little research has been done on peer-to-peer sexual harassment among students in tertiary institutions in Africa in general and Kenya in particular (Simelane, 2001). Majority of existing research has examined sexual harassment in nonacademic settings, and only recently have social scientists begun treating sexual harassment in academic setting as an important new area of inquiry (Whatley & Wasieleski, 2001). Therefore, little conclusive data exist concerning the pervasiveness of sexual harassment in Kenyan universities and other institutions of higher learning today (Karega, 2002).

Universities are a good representative sample of the larger society because their students are drawn from a cross section of the communities represented in Kenya. Exploring their pedagogical practices may, therefore, offer valuable insights into the broader understanding of how these institutions play a meaningful role in empowering young people by promoting harassment-free environment (Chege, 2006). The prevailing attitude towards the prevalence of sexual harassment among university members significantly influences how the society views the social problem. Since these institutions train young men and women who exert a lot of influence in the communities where they come from, it is important to investigate the factors and consequences of sexual harassment among university undergraduates.

The Egerton University Strategic Plan (2005-2015), states that the university priority is to promote democratic principles, social justice and fairness. The University Charter (2006-2009) emphasizes the university's mandate as provided for by the Egerton University Act (1987), Chapter 214 of the laws of Kenya, which includes promotion of social fairness in all matters affecting students and staff. However, it is not clear whether social fairness in this case can be taken to refer to or include freedom from sexual harassment among staff and students. It is indicated in the Egerton University Students Handbook (EUSHB), (2006/2007) that students at Egerton University are entitled to freedom and protection from all forms of discrimination or harassment, on the basis of gender, ethnicity and religion. In this regard, sexual harassment which includes rape and attempted rape, are regarded as disciplinary and criminal offences,

punishable by the University disciplinary authorities. On the same basis, it is reiterated in the handbook that one's gender does not justify discrimination and a student's degree of attractiveness is not an important factor in whether they will be sexually harassed or not. However, there is noticeable lack of research data that documents the incidence of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in the university. The Students' Handbook and SUEU constitution does not adequately address the issue of sexual harassment among the students. While Egerton University Policy defines sexual harassment and outlines an official procedure for staff-to-student harassment cases it does not have a clearly defined procedure for student-to-student sexual harassment cases apart from rape.

In 2006, a male student was allegedly raped by two female colleagues when he had gone to pick some notes in River Side Ladies Hostel. A 2007 survey conducted by the Institute of Women, Gender and Development Studies of Egerton University at the university that revealed that 75% of female and 47% of male students had experienced sexual harassment of one form or another. Between 2007 – 2008 while the researcher was undertaking a counselling practicum and later a voluntary internship in the Institute of Women, Gender and Development Studies (Egerton University), he noticed a consistency in complaints regarding peer-to-peer sexual harassment cases among the students. Several of the *Coffee Hour Social* (socially interactive forum for gender advocacy) sessions featured issues related to sexual harassment among students. The researcher noted that although female students were more vocal in protesting harassment from their male colleagues, these sessions revealed that male students were also being sexually harassed by their female counterparts. During the internship period, the researcher documented an average of one case of peer-to-peer sexual harassment among the students per week, while in the two semesters, one acquaintance and two date rape cases were reported to him. It is against this background that this research sought to investigate forms, consequences and contributing factors of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in Egerton University.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In 1992, Egerton University became the first Institution of Higher Learning in Kenya to set up a department of gender advocacy to address sexual harassment in the university. Later in 1999, the university publicly acknowledged the problem of sexual harassment after students publicly

complained about its occurrence among staff-to-students. An investigation was commissioned to look into the matter and make recommendations for addressing it. The researcher's observations indicate that peer-to-peer sexual harassment among students could have been a social problem in the university. However, most of the surveys conducted in the university mainly focused on staff-to-student sexual harassment and so far, none has focused on peer-to-peer sexual harassment among students. Therefore there is no comprehensive research data with regard to sexual harassment among students and this poses a knowledge gap in the understanding of the mechanisms perpetuating it to boost the potential for successful endeavours aimed at controlling its incidence in other settings. The study therefore sought to generate information that would bridge this knowledge gap by investigating the forms, contributing factor and consequences of peer-to-peer sexual harassment among students of Egerton University.

1.3 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate forms, consequences and contributing factors of sexual harassment among university undergraduate students in Egerton University.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

i. To determine the forms of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in Egerton university

ii. To establish the prevalence of sexual harassment among undergraduate students Egerton university

iii. To find out the contributing factors of sexual harassment among undergraduate students of Egerton university

iv. To determine the Psycho-Social and academic consequences of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in Egerton university

v. To investigate the influence of the following variables on sexual harassment among the students of Egerton university:

- Age
- Gender
- Faculty
- Year of Study

1.5 Research Questions

i. What forms of sexual harassment exist among the undergraduate students of Egerton University?

ii. How prevalent is sexual harassment among the undergraduate students of Egerton University?

iii. Which are the factors contributing to sexual harassment among undergraduate students of Egerton University?

iv. What are the academic and psycho-social consequences of sexual harassment among students in Egerton University?

1.6 Research Hypothesis

H_O1: There is no significant relationship between the following variables and sexual harassment among the students of Egerton University:

- Age
- Gender
- Faculty
- Year of Study

1.7 Significance of the Study

Egerton University is a public institution that enrolls students from a cross-section of all communities and geographical regions in the nation. Hence, failure to study the dynamics of peer-to-peer sexual harassment among the students in this institution may serve to spread rather than mitigate its incidence in other settings where the graduates exert their influence as professionals. This study has provided data that may enlighten academicians and university stakeholders on the dynamics of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in Egerton University. Sexual harassment is an interesting and often unacknowledged form of discrimination and violence that results in difficulties in realizing the full potential of affected individuals and groups. Thus, harassment leads to substantial losses in human potential for the community and the academic world. However, most of the existing research has examined sexual harassment in non-academic settings. Moreover, research on perceptions of sexually harassing behaviours has primarily been conducted in university and workplace settings within

the context of explicit power differentials. Nevertheless, since academic settings serve as training grounds for future professionals, harassment in such settings may serve to spread, rather than mitigate the incidence of sexual harassment in other settings. Investigating harassment on campus would therefore, increase understanding of the mechanisms perpetuating it and boost the potential for successful endeavours aimed at controlling its incidence in all settings.

This study has provided information that would be useful to the administration of Egerton University and other universities, in sexual harassment and gender policy formulation. The output of the study may be a source of useful empirical data to help the university administration in the designing and implementation of university rules and regulations, and designing appropriate guidance programmes for effective combating and eradication of sexual harassment on the campus precincts. The university students' counselling department is also expected to benefit from the information generated in the study by adopting the relevant details to aid in designing effective counselling programmes for victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment.

The results of this study may aid educators in understanding students' perception of certain behaviours. The Institute of Women, Gender and Development Studies (IWGDS) is set to benefit from the knowledge generated through this study, since the real picture of gender relations among students in the university has been revealed. It would be useful to NGOs, UN Agencies and other significant policy makers in addressing sexual harassment as a phenomenon that violates human rights. The findings of this study are expected to be useful to other researchers interested in the same area in identifying an information gap.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The study covered only one campus of Egerton University (Njoro campus). The researcher sampled the undergraduate student population of the campus. These were inclusive of both male and female students enrolled under the regular programme. It covered second to fourth year students only, and excluded all first year students and the fifth year students in the Faculty of Engineering and Technology. Moreover, the research covered the university students' perception of sexual harassment among the undergraduate population and thus excluded other members such as staff and postgraduate students. Forms of sexual harassment, contributing factors and its

consequences were also investigated. However, the research only covered the psycho-social and academic consequences of sexual harassment and left out others such as socio-economic, legal and health consequences.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

The study was carried out in the eve of examination period and at a time of accelerated teaching programme in a rush to complete the syllabi after an interruption of the academic schedules by students' unrest that had led to closure of the campus. Accessing the target respondents for the purpose of administration of the questionnaires was harder than initially anticipated. However, this did not significantly affect the outcome of the data collection process. Even so, eleven respondents did not return their questionnaires. Lastly, the study was carried out in only one campus, and therefore any generalizations should be carried out with caution.

1.10 Assumptions of the Study

This study was based on the following assumptions:

i. Peer-to-peer sexual harassment is a phenomenon experienced by students in Egerton University.

ii. The information collected from the respondents was a true and honest response of their perceptions, feelings, experiences and judgment of the items in the questionnaire

1.11 Definition of Terms

In this section, operational definitions are presented as were used within the context of this study.

Academic age - this term was used to refer to the length of stay in the university, measured the criterion of academic year (year of study)

Academic consequences – This term was used to refer to the academic behavior of a respondent such as missing certain classes, deferring of studies and/or poor performance as a result of sexual harassment.

Behaviour – The observable outward expression of an individual's inner inclinations. In this study it was used to imply any social expression of an individual's intentions or reaction to social stimuli.

Consequence - the term implies the aftermath of occurrence of any phenomena. In this study, the term was used to refer to students' reactions to sexual harassment among themselves and include psychosocial and academic consequences.

Counselling – The process of helping an individual discover and develop one's educational, vocational and psychological potentialities and therefore to achieve an optimal level of personal happiness and social usefulness. The term was used to mean any psychological or emotional help rendered to students to help them cope with university challenges.

Gender – A social construction of one's identity and role based on biological sex. It was used to refer to whether a respondent is male or female.

Guidance – The process, developmental in nature, by which an individual is assisted to understand, accept and utilize one's aptitudes, interests and attitudinal aspirations. It was used to refer to advices offered by individuals who have power over the respondent

Human rights – Certain non-negotiable privileges that any individual has on basis of being a human being. In this study it was used to refer to the respondents' rights and privileges by virtue of being a member of the university community.

Perception – The psychological worldview any individual has towards any phenomena. The term was used to refer to what the respondents consider to be sexual harassment and how they view its incidence of among themselves.

Prevalence – It was used to refer to frequency of the sexual conduct that is considered harassment. This was derived from the size of sample respondents who claimed to have been victims of, or engaged in sexual harassment. It was judged on the basis of the following scale: Low (<31%), Medium (31%-50%) and High (>50%) prevalence.

Psycho-social consequences – The term was used to refer to the emotional reaction to the sexual harassment e.g. feeling embarrassed,

Sexual harassment – Violation of one's sexuality either verbally or physically, resulting in emotional or psychological trauma. It was used to refer to any unnecessary intentional display of overt behaviour that has sexual connotation and makes an individual to feel uncomfortable in any way.

Social groups – The term was used to refer to formal and non-formal support organizations that an individual may be affiliated to or associated with

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the various issues related to the study of sexual harassment. It covers work on the concept of sexual harassment and its definition, its historical perspective, and manifestation in educational institutions. The range of behavior and circumstances related to sexual harassment, and their effects are also discussed. It ends with a theoretical framework that leads to the development of a conceptual framework of the study.

2.2 The Concept of Sexual Harassment

Though rarely acknowledged or reported about, sexual harassment has been identified as the most common form of sex discrimination experienced by women in universities (Omale, 2000). Its perpetration on women by male colleagues and senior managers found in Kenyan universities has led to perceived academic career stagnation and, sometimes, some women quitting their jobs (Onsongo, 2007). There have been attempts by individual universities to incorporate women's issues in their programmes which have been financed by donor funding or non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as the Forum for African Women Educationists (FAWE) and the Association of African Universities (AAU) (Onsongo, 2005). The launch of a gender equity programme in 2001 by AAU which called for the establishment of gender units in member universities, for example, led to rapid expansion of gender awareness in the universities. By 2003 four public universities had established gender centres (Egerton University – 1992; Moi University – 2003; Kenyatta University – 2002, Maseno University – 2001).

However, the gender centres have been found to be ineffective in enhancing gender equity in the universities in which they have been established. This is because the centres operate in isolation from other departments and the mainstream activities of the universities. They lack adequate staff and resources to run gender sensitization programmes on campus and the staff employed (directors) are women who sometimes lack knowledge and interest in gender issues (Keino, 2002). It might be difficult for these centres therefore, to enhance gender equity and mitigate the prevalence of sexual harassment if they are not incorporated in the mainstream activities of the universities.

2.2.1 Origin of the Term "Sexual Harassment"

The term sexual harassment emerged in the 1970's in the US, presumably established by the Working Women United Institute in 1976 (Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997). Still, even now, for researchers as well as educational and health practitioners, sexual harassment is proving to be an unclear concept (Stockdale & Vaux, 1993). Many who write about the issue assert with conviction that it is not 'about sex' at all, but 'about power', echoing equivalent claims often made about the motivations of rapists (Palmer & Thornhill, 2003) although they seldom explain why it is important to view it that way (Brown, 2006). Harassment is usually made possible by a power imbalance between groups since it is a threatening restatement of the status quo (Bhattacharyya, 1994). Determining if sexual harassment has occurred in a school setting, therefore, requires an evaluation of (a) the context of the behavior, (b) the power differential between the target and the harasser, (c) how the behavior was perceived by the target, and (d) the behavior's impact on the learning environment (Young, Allen, Ashbaker, & Smith, 2008). One's gender is not necessarily a factor in the perpetuation or mitigation of sexual harassment in academic institutions since both male and female students are likely to be victims in the these settings (Amanda & Ashley, 2006). Consequently, although these institutions should be a safe haven for young people, many students are sexually harassed and coerced there (Krug, Dahlberg, Mercy, Zwi & Lozano, 2003).

A campus that permits inappropriate verbal and physical contact undermines the emotional, intellectual and professional growth of millions of young adults and frustrates the realization of their potential (Sweetser, 2005). Nevertheless, it is a glaring reality that most, if not all, of us have witnessed its incidence in institutions of higher learning. It is very common in Kenyan public universities for older students to prey on their younger first year colleagues in a phenomenon popularly known as 'gold rush'.

2.3 Definition of Sexual Harassment

At first glance, definitions of sexual harassment may appear straightforward. However, applying these definitions to real-life situations can be quite complex, especially for those students who struggle with processing social information and understanding the subtleties of sexual harassment. Additionally, adults are often challenged when identifying sexual harassment and

understanding how these behaviors may be related to a student's disability (Young *et al.*, 2004). Defining sexual harassment is, therefore, both simple and complex. It is simple because it is defined as unwelcome sexual behavior; if it is unwelcome then it is harassment. It is complex because it can involve behaviours that in other contexts are considered positive and reaffirming (Skaine, 2001).

Ambiguity regarding what actually comprises sexual harassment is reflected in the various definitions of the term (Brant & Too, 1994). Indeed researchers in the area warn that the greatest difficulty is the lack of consensus regarding both the behaviors comprising sexual harassment together with the circumstances in which it occurs (Fitzgerald, 1993). Moreover, the confusion about what is meant by sexual harassment comes from those sympathetic to the issue as well as those hostile to it (Brant & Too, 1994). Feminists who find the available discourse not always helpful in describing experiences of sexual harassment can make charges of exaggeration, oversimplification, inadequacy or inflexibility.

2.3.1 Lay Definitions of Sexual Harassment

Organizational and cultural differences seem to produce different contexts and understandings for different groups of people (Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Making a formal complaint requires, among other things, that people recognize and acknowledge that they have been sexually harassed, and only a small proportion of students and adult workers, reporting exposure to relevant situations, will indicate that they have been sexually harassed (Samuels, 2003). However, according to Stockdale and Vaux, (1993) relevant experiences may not be recognized as sexual harassment for at least two reasons: (a) the psychological costs to identifying oneself as a 'victim' of sexual harassment, and (b) ambiguity in the 'lay person's' definition of sexual harassment and variance of the definition across subgroups. Similar behavioral experiences are likely to have different meanings for men and women, and will not be found equally upsetting by both genders (Duffy *et al.*, 2004). Younger subjects are less likely to label their experiences as sexual harassment (Grover & Nangle, 2003). The fact that there seems to be reluctance in students to label their experiences as sexual harassment, however, does not mean that they welcome or accept the actual behaviors (Lee, 2001).

Studies of self-definition of sexual harassment can be divided into two general groups according to their focus: (a) focused on objective characteristics of the incident, and (b) focused on individual differences (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1997). Among the characteristics of an incident, severity of the episode is believed to be the best predictor of whether a woman will label her experience as sexual harassment. Severity can be measured as the type of harassment (with gender harassment considered the least severe, unwanted sexual attention moderately severe, and sexual coercion the most severe) (Gruber, 1992). Increased frequency and duration have also been found to predict the labeling of an experience as sexual harassment (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1997). Although the most severe behaviors are most likely to be labeled as sexual harassment, they usually are experienced alongside other, less severe, types of behaviors; and often, different types of behaviors do not form exclusive categories. Contextual factors, such as the status of the harasser, attractiveness, race and sexual orientation of the harasser, have also been found significant. Among the individual factors, gender, race, age and socioeconomic background, but also previous victimization and personal resources, have been studied and found relevant for what is perceived as sexual harassment (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1997).

In qualitative researches focused on lay definitions of sexual harassment respondents have shown very narrow or ambiguous definitions of sexual harassment, mostly closest to physical molesting and coercion from a person in power, involving humiliation or bad feelings (Lee, 2001). The narrowness of this definition seems to conflict with the belief that it is also wrong to be exposed to a behavior that is depersonalizing, demeaning or threatening, and involves conflicting feelings (AAUW, 2001). This condition would mean the inclusion of other, less direct and more ambivalent behaviors, such as comments, jokes and gestures. In the AAUW (2001) study, when asked in an open-ended question, students described sexual harassment as: unspecified comments or gestures (30%); unwanted touching, grabbing, or contact (23%); unspecified touching grabbing, or contact (20%); and, making someone very uncomfortable (17%). In another question, they identified, from a list of behaviors, the following as the most upsetting: forcing to do something sexual other than kissing, pulling off clothing, sexual rumors, and spying in the dressing room.

Gender harassment in many studies is identified as the least severe (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1997), and physical harassment, assault and sexual coercion as the most severe (Terrance *et al.*, 2004). In particular, gender harassment and seductive behavior are less likely to be labeled as sexual harassment by young people than sexual coercion and sexual assault (Frazier *et al.*, 1995). However, Dahinten (2001) claims that gender harassment is the most upsetting to adolescents, while sexual advances are far less upsetting. Lee (2001), in turn, asserts that sexual advances and sexual coercion are high on the severity list for their adult study participants. Possibly, the problem stems from the fact that respondents will not necessarily identify as harassment what they find upsetting, and that different studies use differing procedures – some asking about actual, and others about hypothetical behaviors (Dahinten, 2001). In experimental situations, actual and imagined behavioral and emotional responses to actual and to suggested sexual harassment situations have been found not to be the same (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). The ambiguity of the "lay person's" definition of sexual harassment (Paludi, 1997) is often compounded, for students, by frequent non-sexual use of sexual harassment (Land, 2003); and, schools and teachers are often just as confused (Terrance *et al.*, 2004). The behaviors become normalized in schools, which makes it difficult to identify them as sexual harassment. Sexual harassment is then denied and re-labeled as "everyday rudeness", or at best as bullying, rather than personal or social injustice (Lee, 2001).

It is important to remember that labeling one's own experiences as sexual harassment is not decisive for suffering harmful psychological and health and work-related outcomes (Witkowska, 2005). For instance, people who do not label their experience as sexual harassment still experience negative symptoms. In some instances, those who have experienced sexual harassment, but did not label it as such, report lower job satisfaction than those who did label their experiences as sexual harassment (Magley *et al.*, 1999).

2.3.2 Organizational Definitions of Sexual Harassment

Most of the current organizational definitions available from research into sexual harassment in institutions are based on the US legal definition of sexual harassment as either "*quid pro quo*" harassment (sexual coercion by a person in power, e.g. teacher-to-student harassment), or "hostile environment" harassment (behavior that is sexual or related to sex, which creates a

working climate that impedes the academic performance of a student (e.g. peer harassment) (Stein, 1999). The definition of sexual harassment adopted by the European Commission in 1991 refers to unwanted conduct of a sexual nature, or other conduct based on sex affecting the dignity of women and men at work (Witkowska, 2005). This includes unwelcome physical, verbal or nonverbal conduct. The definition specifies three alternative conditions for a behavior to be unacceptable: (1) that it is unwanted, improper, or offensive; (2) that its refusal or acceptance may influence decisions concerning a job; and (3) that it creates a working climate that is intimidating, hostile or humiliating for the person in question (Witkowska & Gillander, 2005).

The Swedish legal system defines sexual harassment as every form of undesired conduct based on gender or undesired sexual behavior that affects the employee's integrity at his or her workplace (Hägg, 2003). Defining sexual harassment in academic institutions presents its specific problems (Paludi, 1997). Most workplace definitions include sexual coercion, demands for sexual cooperation and disciplinary, work-related sanctions for refusal. This type of harassment is difficult to conceptualize when applied to peer sexual harassment in learning institutions, which is often perpetrated without clear sexual intent in mind (Gillander & Hammarstrom, 2000). It may not be very useful either to describe teacher-to-student type of harassment that is rarely explicit and always carries a threat to the student due to the unique level and character of power imbalance and student dependency on campus (Witkowska & Gillander, 2005).

Definitions of sexual harassment in learning institutions mostly use the criterion unwanted, or unwelcome, as the major identifier, to stress that sexual harassment is the behavior that was unwanted, regardless of what it appeared to be to the offender (Young, Allen, Ashbaker, & Smith, 2008). AAUW's definition for their "Hostile Hallways" study in 2001 was unwanted and unwelcome sexual behavior that interferes with the student's life (AAUW, 2001). The problem with the above definition is that because universities are primarily educational institutions, it is necessary to evaluate standards of campus behavior related to sexual harassment in a broader learning context than is the case for working adults. Many types of offensive behaviors may be considered undesirable in academic institutions as they interfere with students (the victims' but also the witnesses') right to a supportive, respectful and safe learning environment. The

"uninvited" or "unwelcome" categorization is not relevant in that context and may actually diminish seriousness of many types of situations by forcing the victims to "prove" they did not want or welcome them (Witkowska, 2005).

Concern has to be given to the difference between *welcome* and *expected*. Many undesirable behaviors are common, and normalized, in institutions of higher learning and if recognition and labeling of experiences as harassing arises primarily from the violation of predominant norms of sexual interaction, it may be difficult for the students alone to ever make this distinction (Giuffre & Williams, 1994). A technical problem arising from the "unwelcome" criterion is that experience of institutionalized forms of harassment, where workers consent to sexual behaviors as part of their job – and many forms of sexual harassment are normalized in campus environment as "part of the job" – are not likely to be captured by survey items that specify respondents should report "unwanted" sexual behaviors (Welsh & Nierobisz, 1997). Most of the behaviors that occur on campus are peer-to-peer are: use of offensive language (whore, slut, bitch), sexual comments and innuendoes in public, and touching private body parts, which are all inappropriate in learning institutions (AAUW, 2001). In terms of the campus staff-to-student harassment it is believed it is the adults' responsibility to ensure students' well being (Witkowska & Gillander, 2005). Possible consent or lack of thereof should therefore, not be relevant in cases of behaviors violating professional rules of conduct. Ladies already feel responsible for creating boundaries for men's behavior, and it becomes a heavy load for them (Lahelma, 2002). Indeed, setting boundaries for victimizers should not rest with the victims.

Sexual harassment can also be defined conceptually, as disrespectful, reducing, and refocusing on non-work related issues, such as looks or sexual practices. This type of definition, approaching sexual harassment from a different perspective, was used by Robinson (2005) when he termed it as any physical, visual or sexual act experienced by a person from another person at the time or later, which asserts a person's sexual identity over their identity as a person, which makes them feel any of the following: embarrassed, frightened, hurt, uncomfortable, degraded, humiliated or compromised, which has the further result of diminishing a person's power and confidence.

Lafontaine and Tredeau (1986) define sexual harassment as any action occurring within any official setting whereby women are treated as objects of the male sexual prerogative. This definition is not accurate, since it can be challenged on grounds that women are not the only victims of sexual harassment. Moreover, sexual harassment can also be viewed as unwelcome attention of sexual nature (Boland, 2002) whose behavioral forms include visual; verbal; physical and psychological (Stanko, 1988). The behavioral manifestation may be a singular event or a continuous series of events. This implies a thin line between sexual abuse and harassment since the behaviours associated with both are manifested in each, and therefore it is a continuum running from gestures to assault (Skaine, 2001). Simply put, sexual harassment is the unwanted imposition of unwanted sexual requirements in the context of unequal power (Andersen, 2000).

Egerton University Students' Handbook 2007/2008 defines sexual harassment as constituting deliberately and persistently annoying another, and/or making unwelcome sexual advances requests for sexual contact and other verbal or physical conduct of sexual nature. The Handbook declares that students are entitled to freedom and protection from all forms of discrimination or harassment on the basis of one's gender. Accordingly, rape, attempted rape, and sexual harassment are listed both as disciplinary and criminal offences that are subject to disciplinary action in accordance with the university statutes. However, while Egerton University Policy defines sexual harassment and stipulates an official procedure for faculty-student harassment, there is no clearly defined procedure for student-student harassment except for rape cases.

2.4 A Historical Perspective of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is a concept that first appeared in the 1970s in the United States and, much later on, in 1986, broke its way in Europe through a case that was recognized as illegal in Great Britain (Collier, 1995). The term sexual harassment was coined at Cornell University in 1974, but it was the United States Supreme Court confirmation hearing of Clerence Thomas, and Anita Hill's testimony, that brought the issue to national attention in the U.S (Patai, 1999). Perhaps more visibly than many other terms, sexual harassment created a possibility for both positive and negative effects on the society as a whole and on both individuals and organizations in particular.

It was due to a widespread (and ongoing) range of definitions, which later on created a much broader area of connotations of their own, that people were able to recognize harmful experiences of that sort (and often bring them to court) at the time when they actually happened (Gabor, 2006). But, in the same vein, it was due to the same ambiguity of the concept that misuse of power, proliferation of gender stereotypes, and sometimes even "workplace paranoia" (Zalesne, 1999) started to take place more and more often. Today, for many businesses, preventing sexual harassment, and defending its managerial employees from sexual harassment charges, has become key goals of legal decision-making. In contrast, many scholars complain that sexual harassment in education remains a forgotten secret, with educators and administrators refusing to admit that the problem exists in their academic institutions, or accept their legal and ethical responsibilities to deal with it (Dziech, 1990).

2.4.1 Evolution of Sexual Harassment

According to Too and Brant (1994), action on sexual harassment was originally thought to be a matter of implementing legislation or codes. In spite of these, however, increasing complexity shows that such measures do not provide fallible solution. Universities, for instance, which were among the first institutions to be persuaded to have sexual harassment policies, have in many cases had to redraft them to accommodate other harassment categories such as race and disability.

Sexual harassment was first defined as constituting illegal discrimination by Title VII of the civil bill of rights of 1964 in the U.S when the Supreme Court made a landmark decision in 1986 in the case of Meritor Savings Bank vs. Vinson in ruling that sexual harassment violates federal laws against discrimination (Andersen, 2000). Later, the case of Vishaka vs. State of Rajasthan in 1997 in India was credited with establishing sexual harassment as illegal (Kamir, 2005). In 1998, the Israeli Sexual Harassment Law made it illegal for an employer to retaliate against an employee who had rejected sexual advances; although this was ten years after the 1988 Equal Employment Opportunity Law made such behaviour a crime (Equal Employment Opportunity, 1999). In May 2002, the European Union Council and Parliament amended a 1976 Council Directive on the equal treatment of men and women in employment to prohibit sexual harassment in work place, naming it a form of sex discrimination and violation of human dignity

(American Association of University Women, 2002). This directive required Member States of the European Union to adopt laws on sexual harassment, or amend existing ones to comply with the Directive by October 2005. In 2005, China added new provisions to its Law of Women's Right to Protection to include sexual harassment and in 2006, the Shanghai Supplement was drafted to help further define sexual harassment in China (AAUW, 2006).

In 2006, the Kenyan parliament debated and passed the Njoki Ndung'u Sexual Offences Bill that was acceded to and became a Sexual Offences Act in January 2007. This Act has clearly addressed the issue of sexual harassment in the work place and but has not comprehensively catered for peer harassment. Section 23(1) of the Sexual Offences Act purports that sexual harassment is meted out by people in positions of authority, or holding public offices, which caters for staff-to-student sexual harassment is covered. However, the Act does not adequately address peer-to-peer sexual harassment among students in the institutions of higher learning.

Most of nations' current preoccupation with sexual harassment is fueled by several different trends: the increased reporting by women of their experiences at work or school and the labeling of behaviours that men used to take for granted (Kimmel, 2000). The increasing pressure that people face in the work place and increasing willingness of the legal systems to assign blame for this practice has also contributed to increased awareness among citizens.

2.5 A Global Overview of Sexual Harassment

One out of three women worldwide has experienced rape or sexual assault (World Bank, 2001). In some countries, up to one-third of adolescent girls report forced sexual initiation (NCVC, 2002). A preliminary study done in eight different countries found a 24.7 % rate of sexual violence in dating relationships (United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNDFW), 2001). Other studies show that 5-10 percent of men report a history of childhood sexual abuse (NCVC, 2002). A report of seven different countries found that more than 60% of sexual assault victims know their attackers (UNDFW, 2000). Table 1 represents the percentage of women polled in a survey who replied they attempted to report they were forced into sex, broken down by country.

Table 1

The Distribution of Women who have been Subjected to Sexual Harassment

Country	Year	Sample Size	% forced into sex
Brazil (Sao Paulo)	2000	941	10.1
Canada (Toronto)	1992	420	15.3
Japan (Yokohama)	2000	1287	6.2
Mexico (Guadalajara)	1996	650	23.0
Nicaragua (Leon)	1993	360	21.7
North America	2003	198,850	40.0
Peru (Cuzco)	2000	1534	46.7
Thailand (Bangkok)	2000	1051	29.9
UK (North London)	1993	430	23.0
Zimbabwe (Midlands Province)	1996	699	25.0

Source: *World Health Organization* (2005)

2.5.1 Sexual Harassment in America

The American continent has widespread sexual harassment incidents. In Peru, 90 % of 12 to 16 year old girls giving birth were pregnant from rape, and often incest (UNDFW, 2001). In Costa Rica, Peru and Uruguay, a rapist can go free under the Penal Code if he proposes to marry the victim and she consents (UNDFW, 2002). 49 % of the 1,000 women surveyed in Sacatepequez, Guatemala, have been physically, sexually or emotionally abused, 75% by an intimate male partner (International Statistics, 2005). A statistical survey conducted in Netzahualcoyotl, Mexico found that one in three women had been victims of family violence; 20% report blows to the stomach during pregnancy (International Statistics, 1990). Island-wide random surveys of women in Barbados revealed that nearly 1/3 of respondents had been sexually abused during childhood or adolescence (International Statistics, 1991). In Canada, 23.3 % of women had been victims of rape and attempted rape (UNDFW, 1997).

The case is no different in the South Pacific. Among 95 women interviewed in Papua New Guinea, about half of them said their husbands had forced them into sex. 1/3 of those forced said

they had been beaten into sex, and 1/5 had been manipulated into it by drunken husbands (UNDFW, 1997). And in the United States, it is estimated that 33% American women and 13% of males will be sexually assaulted in their lifetime. 89% of sexual assaults are committed by someone the victim knows. However, for every sexual assault reported to the police, 3 to 10 go unreported (The World Bank, 2005).

2.5.2 Sexual Harassment in Asia

The Asian continent is also not left behind. In a Cambodian Demographic survey, 31% of respondents said women are not justified in refusing their partners sex (The World Bank, 2000). Under Islamic Law, ordinances require women reporting rape to provide a set number (four) of credible male witnesses to verify the crime and victims unable to provide these witnesses are often charged (WHO, 2005). In Jakarta, Indonesia, city police recorded 2,300 cases of sexual violence against women in 1992, 3,200 cases 1993, and 2,000 in the first half of 1994 (UNDFW, 1997). 22% of adult women in Seoul have been the victims of rape and attempted rape. 15 % of women reported having been sexually assaulted in the past five years in Ulaanbaatar and Zuunmod, Mongolia (UNDFW, 1996). In Uttar Pradesh, India, about 2/3 of 98 respondents reported being forced into sex by their partners, about 1/3 of them by beatings (UNDFW, 2000). In Russia, 14,000 of the 331,815 reported crimes committed against women in the Russian Federation were rapes (UNDFW, 1993).

2.5.3 Sexual Harassment in the Europe

Sexual harassment in European academic institutions is not well described. In an European Union project "Tackling Violence in Schools" (Smith, 2003), including compilation of studies from 17 member countries, most of the theoretical definitions and frameworks employed were not sensitive to sexual harassment and violence against women in general (Witkowska, 2007).

Reports from Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and Spain included some representation of sexual harassment or sexual aggression/abuse. The results varied from 0.8%, in the Italian study, to 42% in Portugal. In a randomly selected study of nearly 1,200 ninth grade students in Geneva, Switzerland, 20% of girls revealed they had experienced at least one incident of sexual harassment (UNDFW, 2002). In Bosnia and Herzegovina, alone, estimates of the numbers of women raped range from 10,000 to 60,000 (WHO, 2000).

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A survey in the United Kingdom found that 19.4 % of women had been victims of sexual harassment (UNDFW, 2001). 6 % of women Tirana, Albania 2 % of women in Budapest, Hungary 4.8 % in Diaulia, Kaunas, Klaipeda, Panevezys, and Vilnius in Lithuania reported having been sexually assaulted in the past five years in (UNDFW, 1997). 11.6 % of women in the Czech Republic reported experiencing forced sexual contact in their lifetime, and 3.4 % of those women reported they had experienced forced sexual contact on more than one occasion (UNDFW, 2000). Over 20,000 Muslim women were known to be raped in Bosnia and Herzegovina during the Balkan War (UNDFW, 1997). 25% of women polled in a Norwegian study who had lived with an intimate partner had experienced physical and/or sexual abuse by their partner (International Statistics, 1991).

2.5.4 Sexual Harassment in the Africa

Surveys conducted reveal that 46% of Uganda women, 60% of Tanzania women, 42% of Kenyan Women and 40% of Zambian women report regular physical abuse. Reported incidents of rapes in 12 African provinces increased from 182 in 2001 to 270 in 2002 (World Bank, 2002). From statistic gleaned from various studies referred to in a recent Human Rights Watch report regarding South Africa, 77% of surveyed women claimed that sexual violence was very common, with 68% of these having been victims. Discriminatory norms, combined with economic and social inequalities, serve to keep women subservient and perpetuate violence by men against them (Kimani, 2007). The subservient status of women, particularly rural women, in many African countries is deeply rooted in tradition

2.6 Sexual Harassment in Academic Setting

As students transition out of secondary school, they begin to expand their social relationships, especially with the opposite gender; romantic relationships tend to increase in importance (Berk, 2006). During early adolescence, the difference between sexual harassment and flirting may be difficult for students to distinguish, especially for those who struggle with social skills or cognitive delays (Craig, Pepler, Connolly, & Henderson, 2001). Nevertheless, students who physically mature earlier than their peers may experience an increased risk for being a target of sexual harassment (Miller, Lane, & Wehby, 2005). Early maturing students may, however, not have the emotional or cognitive skills to match their physical development.

Some of the difficulty in identifying sexual harassment may be due to the blurred boundaries between sexual harassment and good-natured teasing and flirting. Flirting tends to be mutually acceptable, enjoyable, and pleasant when both parties willingly participate (Young *et al.*, 2004). In addition to identifying specific behaviors as sexual harassment, other factors such as the student's age, maturity, and cognitive ability influence the perception of and response to sexual behavior must also be considered (Murnen & Smolak, 2000).

Estimates of the frequency of sexual harassment of undergraduate and graduate students vary widely across studies, from 7% to 27% of men and from 12% to 65% of women (Rathus, Nevid & Fichner-Rathus, 2000). According to Amanda and Ashley (2006), sexual harassment is widespread in universities the world over. Nearly two thirds (62 percent) of undergraduate students in US claim to have encountered some type of sexual harassment and nearly one third (35% of female and 29% of male students) say the harassment is physical (Whatley & Wasieleski, 2001). A 2006 study on sexual harassment at colleges and universities revealed that 62% of female and 61% of male college students reported having been sexually harassed at their university, with 80% of the reported harassment being peer-to-peer (AAUW, 2007). In the same study, 51% of male students admitted to have sexually harassed someone in college, with 22% admitting to harassing someone often or occasionally. In addition, 31% of female students admitted to having harassed someone in college.

According to National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education (NCWGE, 1997), most sexually harassing behaviour in learning institutions is student-to-student. One of the most common reasons reported for sexually harassing behaviour is because the harasser thinks it is funny to do so (AAUW, 2006). However, the true reasons for harassment align more with that of need to assert power and induce fear in others; more in line with bullying (Dzeich, 1990). These hazing behaviours develop in primary school; continue in high school and college, eventually moving into the work place (Boland, 2002).

2.6.1 Range of Behaviour and Circumstances Related to Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment takes many forms, from sexual assault to mocking innuendo. Typically, it takes one of two forms. In the most obvious, *quid pro quo* version, a trade or barter of sexual

contact for a reward or avoidance of punishment can be equated to the sex-for-grades model of teacher-student interaction (Kimmel, 2000). The second form is far murkier and is understood as the creation of 'hostile environment', one which women feel compromised, threatened, or unsafe. Female medical students for example are usually subject to jokes or pranks, hearing women's bodies mocked during anatomy classes, and finding pornography shuffled into anatomy slides during lectures.

Sexual harassers can be grouped according to their behavioural manifestations. There are two broad categories of harassers: public and private (Dzeich, 1990), who can further be classified into predatory, dominance and territorial harassers (Langelan, 1993). Public harassers are flagrant in their seductive or sexist attitudes towards colleagues, while private harassers carefully cultivate a restrained and respectful image on the surface, but when alone with the target, their demeanor changes completely. The predatory harasser gets sexual thrills from humiliating others, while the dominance harasser engages in harassing behaviours as an ego boost. On the other hand, strategic or territorial harassers seek to maintain privileges in certain socials or official environments that may be dominated by one gender.

According to Boland (2002), there is usually more than one type of harassing behavior present, so a single harasser will often fit more than one category. The Power-player is a type where the harasser insists on sexual favors in exchange for benefits they can dispense because of their position in the hierarchy such as favorable grades, recommendations, credentials, projects, promotion, orders, and other types of opportunities. In the Mother/Father Figure type, the harasser will try to create a mentor-like relationship with their target, all the while masking their sexual intentions with pretenses towards personal, professional, or academic attention (Prekel, 2001). This is a common method of teacher who sexually harasses students. Related to this is the intellectual seducer type of sexual harasser. The Intellectual Seducer, most often found in educational settings, the harasser will try to use their knowledge and skills as an avenue to gain access to a student, or information about a student, for sexual purposes. They may use their skills, knowledge, and course content to impress a student as an avenue to harassing or seducing the student (Dzeich, 1990).

One-of-the-Gang type, often motivated by bravado or competition, or because the harasser(s) think it is funny, occurs when groups of men or women embarrass others with lewd comments, physical evaluations, or other unwanted sexual attention (Dzeich, 1990). Harassers may act individually in order to belong or impress the others, or groups may gang up on a particular target. Related to this is the gallant type of sexual harasser. The Great Gallant type is mostly verbal harassment which involves excessive compliments and personal comments that focus on appearance and gender, accompanied by leering looks, and are out of place or embarrassing to the recipient (AAUW, 2006).

The Serial Harasser carefully builds up an image so that people would find it hard to believe they would do anyone any harm. They plan their approach carefully, and strike in private so that it is their word against that of the victim. The Groper likes to insist on (usually begrudged) kisses or hugs. Whenever the opportunity presents itself, this harasser's eyes and hands begin to wander--in the elevator, when working late, at the office or department party (Boland, 2002).

The Bully uses sexual harassment to punish the victim for some transgression, such as rejection of the harasser's interest or advances, or making the harasser feel insecure about themselves or their abilities. The composite of the bully is the pest. The Pest is the stereotypical "won't take 'no' for an answer" harasser who persists in hounding a target for attention and dates even after persistent rejections. This behavior is usually misguided, with no malicious intent (Prekel, 2001).

The Confidante harasser approaches the subordinate, or student, as an equal or a friend, sharing about their own life experiences and difficulties, inventing stories to win admiration and sympathy, and inviting the subordinate to share theirs so as to make them feel valued and trusted (AAUW, 2006). Soon the relationship moves into an intimate domain from which the subordinate finds it difficult to separate (Boland, 2002).

In the Situational Harasser, harassing behavior begins when the perpetrator endures a traumatic event, or begins to experience very stressful life situations, such as psychological or medical problems, marital problems, or divorce (Prekel, 2001). The harassment will usually stop if the situation changes or the pressures are removed (AAUW, 2002). The Opportunist who is related

to situational harasser uses physical settings and circumstances, or infrequently occurring opportunities, to mask premeditated or intentional sexual behavior towards a target. This will often involve changing the environment in order to minimize inhibitory effects of the workplace or school (e.g. private meetings, one-on-one "instruction," field trips, conferences) (Prekel, 2001).

2.6.2 Sexually Harassing Environments

According to Boland (2002), sexualized environments are environments where obscenities, sexual joking, sexually explicit graffiti, viewing internet pornography, sexually degrading posters and objects, etc., are common. None of these behaviors or objects may necessarily be directed at anyone in particular. However, they can create an offensive environment, and one that is consistent with hostile environment sexual harassment. Boland further asserts that sexualized environments have also been shown to create atmospheres that encourage more serious and direct sexual harassment. She further pointed out that, for example, when obscenities are common in a social, environment, women are likely to be treated as sex objects, and be directly sexually harassed than in environments where profanity is not tolerated. When sexual joking is common, sexual harassment is three to seven times more likely.

2.6.3 Rituals and Initiations Considered Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment can also occur in group settings as part of rituals or ceremonies, such as when members engage newcomers in abusive or sexually explicit rites as part of initiation (AAUW, 2006). While such traditions have historically remained in arenas of male-bonding, such as team sports and fraternities, it is becoming increasingly common for girls/women's groups to engage in similar ceremonies. For example, as women's sports become more widespread, some have begun to mimic the hazing and other practices characteristic of traditional men's sports in order to try to be accepted by men in sport (Dzeich, 1990). And stories of sexual abuse and harassment in sorority initiations are also appearing more and more frequently in the popular media. While some suggest such activities are just "a joke"; others consider it degrading, insulting and even threatening especially for many young people who have experienced sexual harassment, sexual abuse, stalking or rape (Prekel, 2001). Students who lack confidence, or who are confused about their identity, may fall victim to such practices more easily than those who are self-assured (Amanda & Ashley, 2006).

2.6.4 Retaliation and Backlash in Sexual Harassment Incidents

Retaliation and backlash against a victim are very common, particularly a complainant (AAUW, 2006). Victims who speak out against sexual harassment are often labeled troublemakers who are on their own power trips, or who are looking for attention. Similar to cases of rape or sexual assault, the victim often becomes the accused, with their appearance, private life, and character likely to fall under intrusive scrutiny and attack (Langelan, 1993). They risk hostility and isolation from colleagues, supervisors, teachers, fellow students, and even friends. They may become targets of mobbing or relational aggression.

Women are not necessarily sympathetic to female complainants who have been sexually harassed (Equal Employment Opportunity Committee [EEOC], 2001). If the harasser was male, internalized sexism, and/or jealousy over the sexual attention towards the victim, may encourage some women to react with as much hostility towards the complainant as some male colleagues (Brant & Too, 1994). Fear of being targeted for harassment or retaliation themselves may also cause some women to respond with hostility. For example, when Lois Jenson filed her lawsuit against Eveleth Taconite Company, the women placed a hangman's noose above her workplace, and shunned her both at work and in the community. However, many of these women later joined her suit (Bingham, Gansler, Laura & Leedy, 2002). Women may even project hostility onto the victim in order to bond with their male co-workers and build trust.

Retaliation has occurred when a sexual harassment victim suffers a negative action as a result of the harassment (Guedes, 2000). For example, a complainant can be given poor evaluations or low grades, have their projects sabotaged, be denied academic opportunities, and other actions against them which undermine their productivity, or their ability to advance at school (Bingham, *et al.*, 2002). They may be suspended, be intentionally failed in exams or have their names missing in graduation list. Moreover, a professor or lecturer accused of sexual harassment, or who is the colleague of a perpetrator, can use their power to see that a victim is frustrated in studies, or never accepted to another school. Retaliation can even involve further sexual harassment, and also stalking and cyber stalking of the victim (Prekel, 2001).

2.6.5 Normalization of Sexual Harassment in Learning Institutions

Despite the fact that not only verbal but also many physical behaviors are commonplace in learning institutions, there is a low level of acknowledgment, and the behaviors are largely normalized (Terrance *et al.*, 2004). The most frequent behaviours are clearly more likely to be judged as "normal", and accordingly as "not-sexual-harassment". Students' main suggestions for taking action against sexual harassment include availing more information and discussion about what sexual harassment really means, and better and stricter rules (Menckel & Witkowska, 2002). Despite the fact that it may be difficult for the educators to react to every incident of harassment, condoning harassment is against the law, and violates students' rights. Even the relatively less injurious forms of sexual harassment can't be ignored because sexual harassment is a multilevel process, and the most severe behaviors emerge not as separate phenomena but as extreme manifestations alongside other less severe types of behaviors.

2.6.6 Gender Differences in Sexual Harassment in Learning Institutions

According to Robinson (2005), students view sexual harassment as something that victimizes women, and, that it must be something very serious, close to rape. Thus far, most prevalence research in this arena has employed methodologies and tools derived from research into women's exposure to sexual harassment. Data obtained from these types of surveys may be inadequate to map out and understand men's experiences (Waldo *et al.*, 1998). The scales employed also run a risk of not being sensitive to the behavioral experiences of men that women do *not* experience. For example, men may be pressured into engaging in stereotypical, heterosexual, masculine behaviors, or ridiculed in response to crossing that behavioral boundary (Vaux, 1993). The significance of many situations differs between the genders, and any meaningful factor structure of sexual harassment would have to differ between men and women. Scales constructed for male students need to be used for the measurement of men's experience of sexual harassment in academic institutions (Waldo *et al.*, 1998; White, 1997).

Gender differences in willingness to notice and voice ones problems depend on the type of a situations and their context, and will be strongly influenced by what is considered compatible with the respective gender roles, "femininity", and "masculinity" (Witkowska, 2007). Generally, women are believed to be the ones who complain easily over everything, and often women's

reports and requests for help are seen as exaggerated and not taken seriously. With this bias in mind, researchers and practitioners have to avoid regarding data on sexual harassment collected from women to be an exact reflection of actual experiences, or even "over-reported", while considering data from men as "underreported". There is evidence suggesting that men and boys are quite inclined to protest when their dominance and privileges are threatened (Quinn, 2002). It has to be understood that, in the public sphere, both sexuality and academic achievement are spheres new to women and girls, historically speaking, and tallying up the instances of sexual harassment in learning institutions can be an experience threatening to the feeling of power and agency, for the ladies, in ways that relate to a special vulnerability not experienced by men (Witkowska, 2007).

2.6.7 School Gendered Power and Sexuality

Sexual harassment is an enactment of power through sexuality, and is used to build hierarchical differences between men and between masculinities, in which aggressive heterosexual masculinity is superior (Gruber & Fineran, 2007). Positioning oneself against or even outside of this practice carries a danger of being labeled non-sexual and non-masculine. Men and women, on the one hand, seem to believe that sex is positive, necessary, and good to express (Witkowska, 2007). However, since sex is an important part of the jargon and social code for youth, acknowledging and reporting sexual harassment has the consequence of excluding oneself from the peer group (Menckel & Witkowska, 2002).

Additionally, in adolescence, peer groups become major identifiers, often surpassing the influence of family and other references. The quest for individual identity and empowerment includes identification with a group identity and the members experience an increase of personal power from the power of the peer group. If potentially offensive sexual acts are "jokes between friends", feeling harassed means putting the cohesion of your friendship structures in jeopardy. Thus, the reporting is very difficult and adults are needed to introduce, as well as to police, a broader definition of sexual harassment that includes more than just the worst cases. This cannot be done by students themselves, because that would mean to exclude oneself socially from both the group and from sexuality – interpreted as enactment of power and adulthood – in general.

2.6.8 Sexual Harassment and Bullying

Students show strong resistance to labeling oneself as a victim of harassment, and a general avoidance of the "sexual harassment" label (Witkowska, 2007). Crosby (1984) found that women are more likely to acknowledge discrimination in general than their own, and Lee (2001) has proposed that recognition of a range of terms for unwanted male sexual conduct, rather than just one term, would enable more women to name and challenge unwelcome experiences. Land (2003) believes that it would be beneficial to re-interpret sexual harassment in academic institutions as bullying. A useful implication from seeing sexual harassment as related to bullying is that bullying does not require establishing of the uninvited/unwelcome factor. Act of bullying is not a discussion or debate, or a misunderstanding (Boland, 2002).

Bullying is not a conflict; it is an act of aggression (Olweus, 1994). Systems approach in prevention, based on general policies may be more workable, in terms of regulation and prevention, than a host of specific policies and strategies (Rowe, 1996). However, it is imperative that any policy defines harassment as precisely as possible and gives examples of actual behaviors and situations, and not simply treats all problems as "bullying", so as not to contribute to the discourse of depoliticizing sexual violence (Strauss, 2003).

2.7 Consequences of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment in academic institutions is recognized as a public-health problem detrimental to students' psychosomatic health (Berman *et al.*, 2000). Qualitative studies show that – although largely not acknowledged – a hostile environment on campus has a significant impact on students' confidence and level of achievement (Lahelma, 2002). It is difficult empirically to establish the causal effects of sexual harassment (Duffy *et al.*, 2004). However, many studies indicate that sexual harassment has negative psychological, and educational, consequences (Dahinten, 2001); and other negative health-related effects have been indicated as well (Paludi, 1997). Some of the sexual harassment behaviors are forms of sexual assault and traumas with lifelong consequences (Bagley *et al.*, 1997). The presence of harassment in an organization gives rise to psychological distress also among individuals who have not been directly victimized (Larkin, 1994). A majority of victims attempt to ignore or avoid the offensive behavior, and so they may cut classes, or even quit school (Paludi, 1997).

The significance of sexually harassing behaviour is shown by the extent of psychological problems reported among those who report higher rates of sexual harassment victimization (Gruber & Fineran, 2007). Guedes (2004) asserts that gender-based violence can result in many negative consequences for women's health and well-being as it has become a public health and human rights problem throughout the world. However, Watson (1994) claims that accusations of sexual harassment occur because modern relationships between men and women are complicated. The problem arises because unlike in traditional times men are not sure 'what women want' from a relationship. This brings about a lot of emotional and psychological strain in any social relationships that involve interactions between men and women (EEOC, 2000).

Consequences of sexual harassment can vary depending on the individual, and the severity and duration of the harassment (Amanda & Ashley, 2006). Often, sexual harassment incidents fall into the category of the "merely annoying." However, many situations can, and do, have life-altering consequences particularly when they involve severe/chronic abuses, and/or retaliation against a victim who does not submit to the harassment, or who complains about it openly (Boland, 2002). Indeed, psychologists and social workers report that severe/chronic sexual harassment can have the same psychological effects as rape or sexual assault (Koss, 1987). Backlash and victim-blaming can further aggravate the consequences. Moreover, every year, sexual harassment costs hundreds of millions of shillings in lost educational and professional opportunities, mostly for girls and women (Boland, 2002), through deferring of studies due to pregnancies and related mental health complications.

Common professional, academic, financial, and social consequences of sexual harassment may include but are not limited to decreased work or academic performance due to increased absenteeism, loss of a career, and loss of income (Krug, *et al.*, 2003). It also may include, having to drop courses, change academic plans, or leave school (loss of tuition) (Williams, Connolly, Pepler, & Craig, 2005). One's personal life may be offered up for public scrutiny where the victim becomes the "accused," and his or her dress, lifestyle, and private life will often come under attack, which rarely occurs for the perpetrator (Langelan, 1993). Being objectified and humiliated by scrutiny and gossip, becoming publicly sexualized (i.e. groups of people "evaluate" the victim to establish if they are "worth" the sexual attention or the risk to the

harasser's career), defamation of character and reputation (Guedes, 2004). Loss of trust in environments similar to where the harassment occurred and loss of trust in the types of people that occupy similar positions as the harasser or their colleagues is a common result (Prekel, 2001). Extreme stress upon relationships with significant others, sometimes resulting in extreme stress on peer relationships, or relationships with colleagues, weakening of support network, or being ostracized from professional or academic circles (friends, colleagues, or family may distance themselves from the victim, or shun them altogether) (Krug, *et al.*, 2003). The victim may have to relocate to another university, which is not to say in of opportunity cost and other modalities (Amanda & Ashley, 2006).

Some of the psychological and health consequences that can occur in someone who has been sexually harassed include depression, anxiety and/or panic attacks, sleeplessness and/or nightmares (Prekel, 2001). The victim may experience shame and guilt, difficulty concentrating, headaches, fatigue or loss of motivation, stomach problems, eating disorders (weight loss or gain) (AAUW, 2006). Moreover, they will be feeling betrayed and/or violated, feeling angry or violent towards the perpetrator, feeling powerless or out of control. Other effects may include increased blood pressure, loss of confidence and self esteem, withdrawal and isolation. This may then lead to overall loss of trust in people, traumatic stress, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), complex post traumatic stress disorder, suicidal thoughts or attempts, suicide (Boland, 2002). The knowledge that harassment is permitted can undermine ethical standards and discipline in the institutions of higher learning in general, as staff and/or students lose respect for, and trust in, their seniors who indulge in, or turn a blind eye to, sexual harassment. If the problem is ignored, an institution's image can suffer (Amanda & Ashley, 2006).

2.7.1 Coping Strategies Used

Individuals use a number of different coping strategies to deal with sexual harassment. An example of coping mechanisms is 'The Typology of Target Responses to Sexual Harassment' by Knapp *et al.* (1997). It illustrates various responses to sexual harassment following a thorough analysis of the existing literature. This combines a number of Gruber's (1989) categorizations based on the view that responses will vary in respect of two elements: focus and mode or type of

response, to formulate a two-by-two typology of responses, illustrated by the four quadrants in Figure 1.

Responses to sexual harassment may be either self-focused or initiator-focused (vertical axis). Self-focused responses do not involve the perpetrator of the harassment, whilst initiator-focused coping responses address the perpetrator directly. The type or mode of response (horizontal axis) varies from self response, where the person facing sexual harassment uses no outside resources to deal with it, to supported response, where they use other individuals, organizational resources and/or extra institutional resources (Hunt, Davidson, Fielden & Hoel, 2007). According to their analysis, Quadrant 1 represents the least effective method of dealing with sexual harassment. Quadrant 2 responses are also generally ineffective, although they may, in time, encourage the individual to take more effective action. Quadrants 3 and 4 represent responses which have been shown to be the most effective. Sigal *et al.* (2003) supported this typology by investigating students' reactions to sexual harassment scenarios; it was found that active coping strategies were seen to be the most effective method of dealing with sexual harassment.

Mode of response		
Self-response		**Supported response**
Self-focus	*Quadrant 1* *Avoidance/denial* Most frequently used, yet least effective for ending harassment: • Avoiding the harasser. • Altering the job situation by transferring/quitting. • Ignoring the behaviour. • Going along with the behaviour. • Treating the behaviour as a joke. • Self-blame.	*Quadrant 2* *Social coping* Not effective for ending harassment, but may assist target in coping with negative consequences resulting from harassment: • Bringing along a friend when harasser will be present. • Discussing situation with sympathetic others. • Medical and/or emotional counselling.
Initiator-focus	*Quadrant 3* *Confrontation/negotiation* Not frequently used, but very effective for ending harassment: • Asking or telling harasser to stop. • Threatening the harasser. • Disciplining the harasser (if in a position to do so).	*Quadrant 4* *Advocacy seeking* Not frequently used but very effective for ending harassment: • Reporting the behaviour to a supervisor, other internal official body or outside agency. • Asking another person (e.g. friend) to intervene. • Seeking legal remedies through the court system.

Figure 1: Typology of Target Responses to Sexual Harassment

(Source: Knapp, et al., (1997). Determinants of Target Responses to Sexual Harassment: A Conceptual Framework)

2.8 Sexual Harassment and the Counselling Intervention

Clearly, the hidden costs of harassment are enormous. It is in every institution's stakeholders' interest to be proactive and prevent the problem, rather than having to redress it after damages have been suffered (Ritchie, 2006). Aware individuals can play a major role by bringing the seriousness of harassment to the attention of administration, staff and students, by helping to formulate and implement appropriate policies, and by helping victims to deal with the consequences of harassment (Prekel, 2001).

2.8.1 Pro-Active Interventions to Sexual Harassment

Hunt *et al.* (2007) proposes three basic types of intervention that can be implemented by institutions to prevent or deal with sexual harassment: preventative, responding to sexual harassment, and follow-up. Preventative actions include a range of initiatives that are outlined as follows:

i. Policy formation is crucial. There are two distinct approaches to this: a 'top-down' and a 'consultative' approach. The consultative approach is advocated by researchers, who emphasize the importance of involving multiple stakeholders.

ii. Similarly, a bottom-up approach is the most successful, where staff and staff representatives are fully involved with management in developing and owning relevant policies and programmes. This should aim to develop a culture of respect and focus on the beliefs, behaviour and norms within an institution. Linked to this is the importance of a strong zero tolerance policy towards sexual harassment, although this may prove unpopular in some situations.

iii. Training can be used to raise awareness and understanding of sexual harassment and to help equip individuals with the necessary skills to deal with it. Few studies have looked at the effectiveness of training but those that exist suggest that it is particularly effective for changing men's attitudes.

Responses to sexual harassment include ways in which complaints are made and dealt with within an institution. It can be very difficult to make a complaint, especially if the institution does not have clear policies and procedures in place (Witkowska, 2007). For a complaints procedure to be effective it must be clear and well-communicated, students must have confidence that their complaints will be taken seriously and treated confidentially, feel reassured that they will not be victimized and that the whole process will be handled reasonably quickly. Follow-up interventions in the aftermath of a complaint of sexual harassment include rehabilitation of the person who has suffered sexual harassment, the perpetrator and others involved. It is vital that procedures are in place to prevent victimization or a backlash against the person who complained of harassment. A number of organizations have published good practice guides covering sexual harassment. These include: changing the organizational culture to one where harassment is not tolerated; establishing effective policies and procedures; training for all employees; commitment

and support from senior staff; providing those who experience harassment with independent support and effective monitoring systems (Hunt *et al.*, 2007). Having reviewed the available literature on interventions, it is possible to produce a best practice model. Figure 2 highlights the various stages of prevention and intervention that an institution should consider.

2.8.2 Re-Active Intervention to Sexual Harassment

As Milne (2003) claims, the person who has been sexually harassed is likely to have reservations about trusting those whom they regard as in a role of authority – including a therapist. The counsellor thus maybe experienced in the transference as a potential harasser. In working with the client, assertiveness training may come in handy (Bayne, 2006). A client who has been a victim to serial harassment could make a clear request to the harasser that although he/she claims that his/her touching his/her on the shoulder does not mean anything, it matters to the client/victim (EEOC, 1999).

A client who has been sexually harassed brings with him/her a lack of faith in justice, a feeling that he/she has been blamed and not heard or believed (Ritchie, 2006). She further claims that regardless of the therapist orientation, the dynamics of sexual harassment will be central to the therapist-client relationship. Unfortunately, as Sands (2000) asserts, for a significant number of clients, therapy has turned out to be – in spite of the therapists' duty to care – a negative and damaging experience (Sands, 2000). Issues such as abuse of power, one person controlling another, sexualization of contact, humiliation or force are always close to the surface in any exchange (Ritchie, 2006).

According to the sexual harassment policy of the University of Minnesota (2006), it is clearly stated how a victim of sexual harassment may act in the event one believes that she/he has been sexually harassed. When the client wants to stop the harassment on his/her own, the client is advised to use whichever mode of communication to tell the harasser to stop as firmly as possible disregarding the need to be polite or make excuses (Prekel, 2001). The victim should also keep a detailed record of sexual harassment incident(s), recording dates, times, places and witnesses, if any. This would be helpful in the event that the victim decides to complain later (UoM, 2006). The victim should also talk to a trusted friend or fellow student. They may have

learnt things from their own experiences with sexual harassment that can help the victim, or they may be witnesses to the sexual harassment he/she has suffered and be willing to back the victim up. Lastly, it is important to talk to someone who has authority over the harasser, because this person maybe able to stop the behaviour without requiring further action from the victim (EEOC, 2001).

Both the harasser and victim need counselling (Prekel, 2001). The harasser has needs which he/she meets and the victim has acquired a lot of symptoms from the ensuing trauma of sexual harassment. The best theory for both cases is the behavioural model, which provides techniques that can be applied in coping with specific problems. Individual psychotherapy, anxiety management training, behavioural change, communication training, relaxation training, social skills and assertive training are some of the skills the victim will need to learn (Lazarus, 1995).

According to Prekel (2001), many practical steps can be taken as part of an integrated programme to counter harassment. First, a clear policy from the administration should be put in place. Awareness of the problem, one's own, and others' rights should be promoted through appropriate measures (UoM, 2006). The university should also set up clear complaints and disciplinary procedures. Although no policy can be expected to eliminate the problem, awareness of the problem and ways to deal with it will help to reduce its prevalence dramatically (Prekel, 2001). The appropriate professionals must also assist victims of past and present harassment to overcome the negative effects of that experience (EEOC, 2001).

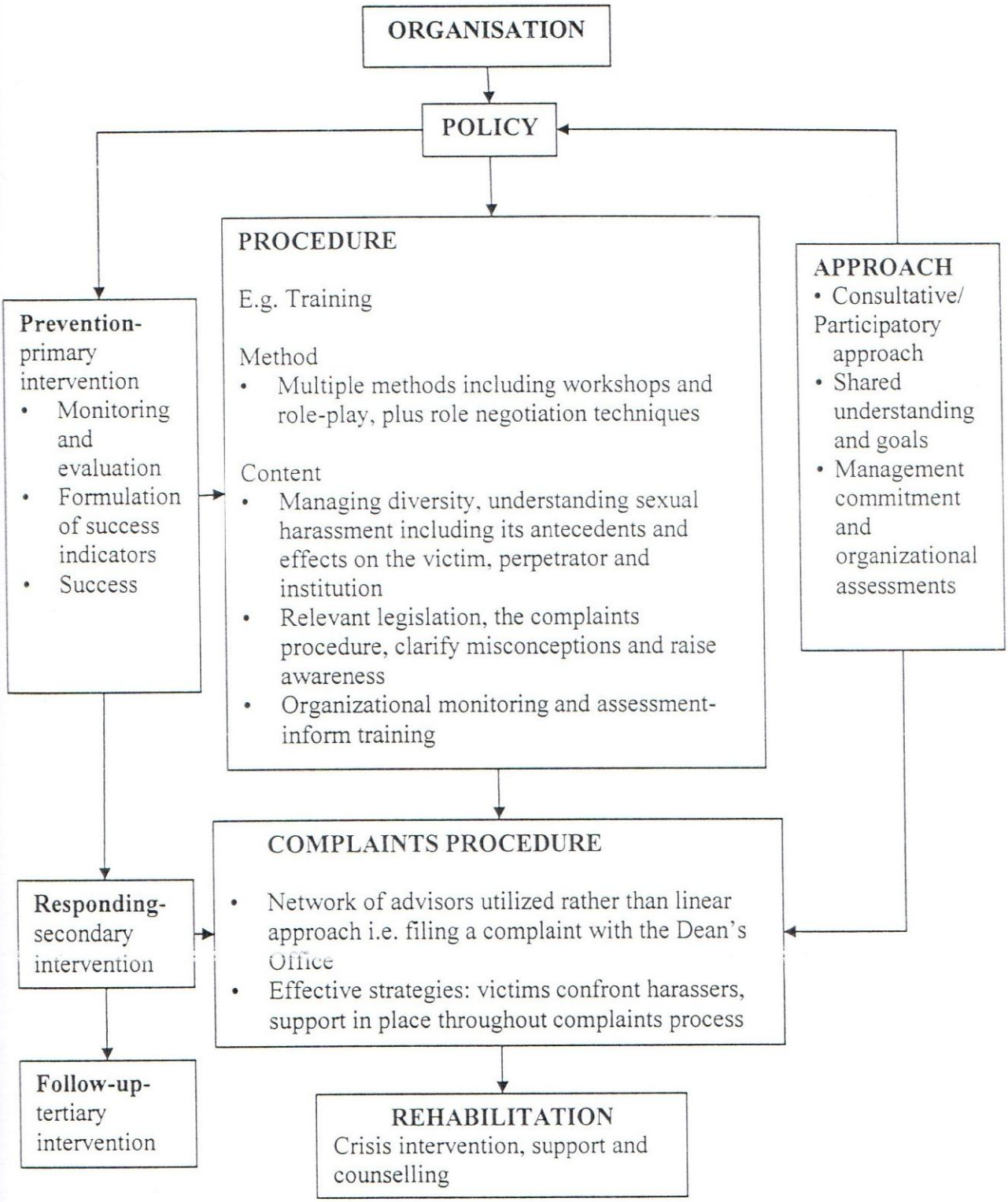


Figure 2: Sexual Harassment Intervention Model

(Source: Adapted from Hunt et al. (2007) model)

Thorough monitoring and evaluation should be conducted at every stage to determine whether the procedures are effective. However, consultative and participatory approaches appear to be the most effective.

2.9 Theoretical Framework

The study of sexual harassment is essentially interdisciplinary hence a variety of theoretical models have been formulated to explain sexual harassment. However, the key theoretical framework that will guide this study will mainly be selected sociological and psychological theoretical perspectives. Sociology pays attention to the society and community institutions that have a direct effect on the process of personal and outward social control. Deviation from the social norms thus depends on the personal and social control, the lack of which may result in deviant behavior, which includes sexual harassment, a fact also acknowledged by Lauer (1998). The sociological and psychological theories to be used in this study will include social learning, social control, social strain, and social disorganization theories.

2.9.1 Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory developed by Albert Bandura, focuses on the learning that occurs within a social context (Bandura, 1977). According to this theory, sexual harassment as a behavior is learnt through the complex process of socialization. It postulates that behavior is reflective of people observing and imitating others and imagining the consequences of their own behavior. As asserted by Ormrod, (1999), people learn anti-social behavior by associating with others and imitating their behavior. Sexual harassment can therefore be viewed as another pattern of learned behavior that some individuals are taught through social interaction with the family, peer group, schoolmates and other agents of socialization.

Bandura (1997) supports the notion that sexual harassers learn their behavior from others with whom they interact in their social environment. Sexual harassment behaviour therefore, may be learnt from direct, face-to-face interaction or vicariously through observation of others in person or symbolically in literature, films, television programs and music. Children learn both positive and negative behavior through imitating what they observe in others. On the other hand, Bynum and Thompson (1992) assert that antisocial behavior is learnt and acted out in response to rewards and reinforcements that are available in the individual's environment. Sexual harassment

behavior is therefore, a learnt and performed through interaction with individuals and groups who have the power to bestow gratification, social status and other commensurable rewards.

This theory informs the study by asserting that behaviour is learnt and therefore can be unlearned. This implies that students who engage in sexual harassment can be helped to overcome their antisocial behaviour through psychological counselling. The effects of sexual harassment on the victims can also be reversed through psychotherapy. It is important that universities should have students' counselling departments that cater for the counseling services of both victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment.

2.9.2 Social Control Theory

Social control theory starts with the premise that human behavior is by nature antisocial and delinquent. This theory views sexual harassment as acting out one's most primal inclinations (Leighninger & Popple, 1996). Sexual harassment is therefore an antisocial behavior that stems from defective social control systems. Control theory evolves towards the social bond and self control as an explanation to sexual harassment (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994). On the other hand, Siegel and Senna (1988) postulate that sexual harassment is something that all adolescents participate in unless obstacles are thrown in their path by disapproving society through social bonds. Social Control theory therefore, focuses on the socialization process, especially on the extent to which norms have been internalized, providing weak and strong internal controls, the integration or bonding to conventional groups and activities that determine the strength of external control of behavior. The central theme of this theory is that, the more satisfying the relationships are in the social systems the less likelihood that people will want to harass others sexually. This theory informs the research by showing the importance for universities put into place the proper social control mechanisms to ensure that students will not learn the harassment behaviours in the academic settings.

2.9.3 Social Strain Theory

The Social strain theory as presented by Merton (1968) re-conceptualizes Durkheim's concept of anomie. It asserts that people are inherently good and participate in sexual harassment behaviors only when they are confronted by extreme pressures or stress (Regoli & Hewtt, 1994). Problems are created by a social structure that holds out the same goals to all its members without giving

them equal means to achieve them (Akers, 2000). This results in lack of integration between what the culture calls for and what the structure permits that causes deviant behaviours such as sexual harassment.

Social strain theory informs the study by pointing out that adequate social amenities (such as clubs and societies, games and sports which provide for outings) should be provided for in universities for students to socialize without undue restrictions. The mode of dressing can contribute to the perpetuation of sexual harassment by exerting undue psychological influence that builds emotional arousal and sexual pressure on other students. Dress code should therefore, be regulated so that students are not influenced by mode of dress to engage in sexual harassment.

2.9.4 Social Disorganization Theory

Social disorganization theory was first developed to explain the dynamics of delinquency. Shoemaker (1996) identifies four specific assumptions of social disorganization as an explanation of delinquency. First, delinquency is mainly the consequence of a collapse of institutional, community-based controls. Second, the disorganization of community-based institutions is often a result of rapid industrialization, urbanization, and immigration processes that occur primarily in urban areas. Third, the effectiveness of social institutions and the desirability of residential and business locations correspond closely to natural, ecological principles that are influenced by the concepts of competition and dominance. The fourth assumption is that socially disorganized areas lead to the development of criminal values and traditions that replace conventional ones and that are self-perpetuating. The theory, thus, blames sexual harassment on the rapid social changes, which weakens communities and neighborhoods' control on children. University students come from these communities whose cultural values have been eroded by rapid industrialization, urbanization, and immigration processes, which occur primarily in urban areas (Shoemaker, 1996). The influence of mass media has also impacted negatively on the socialization of the youth by promoting permissiveness and displaying immorality as attractive. What these youth learn is perpetuated through peer influence. This accounts for the higher rate of sexual harassment in urban areas compared to rural areas. It would be counterproductive, therefore, to allow students' organizations in the university to run without the proper organizational structures such as a constitution.

2.10 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework takes into account the forms, consequences and contributing factors of sexual harassment among undergraduates as shown in figure 3.

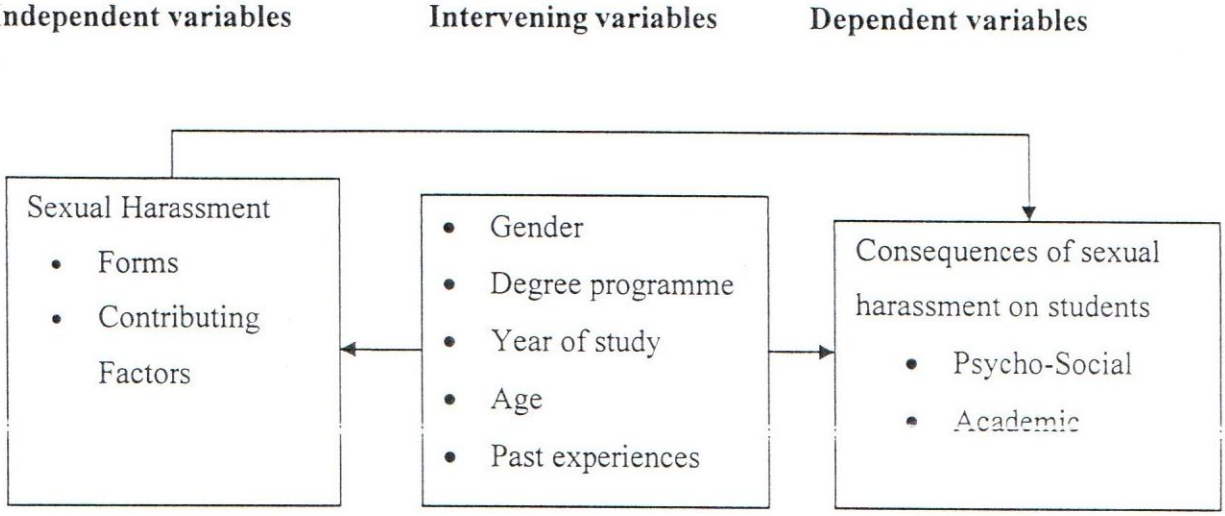


Figure 3: A conceptual framework showing the interplay between research variables

Figure 3 above indicates the interplay of the study variables that form the independent, intervening and dependent variables. It conceptualizes this relationship between variables in terms of circular rather than linear causality. This implies that in a university setting, sexual harassment has diverse consequences on the students and some of the consequences may in turn become contributing factors that lead to its perpetuation. The forms of sexual harassment and the contributing factors will determine the psycho-social and academic consequences it has on the students. Students' perception of sexual harassment is a factor that results from their psychological worldview and socialization. This leads them to consider some social behaviours as sexually harassing and this results to labelling of some social expressions as unacceptable, making it easy to successfully combat sexual harassment within the campus setting. The intervening variables were conceptualized as having effect on both the independent and dependent variables. Some of the intervening variables such as age, gender and year of study could be a contributing factor to sexual harassment within the university. Psycho-social consequences may be influenced by one's gender, age and year of study. The career choice, which was defined by the faculty the students are enrolled in, may also determine the academic

consequences of sexual harassment. The independent variable in this study was sexual harassment among undergraduate students, which has been defined by the forms and contributing factors. Consequences of sexual harassment, which were restricted to psycho-social and academic consequences, formed the dependent variables. However, the study assumed that there might be other factors not under study, which might indirectly affect the dependent variables. These included students' age, gender, degree programme, and academic age. The research sought to control the intervening variables by studying them alongside the other variables in the survey.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the research design, location, study population, sample size and sampling techniques, instrumentation (validity and reliability), data collection and data analysis procedures.

3.2 Research Design

This descriptive survey research utilized an *ex post facto* causal comparative design. This design was considered suitable because the study compared the forms, consequences and contributing factors of sexual harassment with regard to gender, degree programme and age of the university students. Black (2002), Kerlinger (2000), and Kothari (2007) supported the use of *ex post facto* design in studies which the researcher has no sufficient control over variables under study. In this study, the researcher did not directly control or manipulate the independent variables (forms and contributing factors sexual harassment) because they had already taken place, hence *ex post facto* design. Ogula (1998) and Kasomo (2007) posit that the survey design is appropriate in studies where data would be collected from a large sample as was the case in this study because it would be the most efficient method of collecting descriptive data. Therefore, a descriptive survey was carried out on a randomly selected stratified sample of students to explore and describe the forms, contributing factors and psycho-social and educational consequences of sexual harassment at the time of the study (Kathuri & Pals, 1993). The variables in this study comprised sexual harassment forms and contributing factors taken as independent variables and consequences taken as the independent variables.

3.3 Location of the Study

The study was conducted at Njoro campus in the county of Nakuru. This location was purposively chosen mainly because it was the largest and oldest campus of Egerton University whose students were randomly drawn from diverse geographical, social, and ethnic backgrounds. The size of the accessible target population, diversity of clientele, courses offered and population of the university campus were taken as factors necessary for viable research.

3.4 Population of the Study

The study targeted the Egerton university undergraduate students registered under the various regular degree programmes. Egerton University has over 10,000 students distributed among-its constituent campuses and university colleges. The targeted population for this study was the second, third and fourth year undergraduate students in Njoro campus whose number at the time of study was 5,056 distributed across various faculties according to their degree programmes. This distribution is shown clearly in Table 2:

Table 2

Distribution of Population by Faculty and Academic Year

	Academic Year			
Faculty	*2008*	*2007*	*2006*	*Totals*
Faculty of Agriculture	612	386	361	**1359**
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences	260	183	150	**593**
Faculty of Education and Community Studies	610	407	288	**1305**
Faculty of Environment and Resources Development	121	61	48	**230**
Faculty of Engineering and Technology	123	148	129	**400**
Faculty of Health Sciences	108	72	61	**241**
Faculty of Science	386	286	256	**928**
Totals	**2220**	**1543**	**1293**	**5056**

(Source: Office of Registrar Admissions - October, 2007)

3.5 Sampling Procedures and Sample Size

Simple, purposive and stratified random sampling procedures were used in this study to select the required sample. The researcher purposively sampled all the seven established faculties in the university to form the main stratum. Further stratification was done at the level of years of study where the researcher purposively sampled second, third and fourth year student groups who have already settled into university routine. The first, fifth, and sixth year strata were left out of the sample on purpose because first years were considered too new on campus and the fifth and sixth

year students were viewed having outgrown the frivolities of undergraduate life. The researcher purposively sampled respondents' age to come up with clusters ranging between 18 - 29 years.

Stratification ensured that different groups of population were proportionately represented in the sample as postulated by Nassiuma (2000). The target population of the study was not homogenous in terms of courses and length of time spent in the university. Therefore, the researcher stratified it as per the year of study and faculty from which proportionate sampling was used to determine the number of subjects drawn from each stratum to ensure that they were equally represented in the sample. Simple random sampling was then applied within each population stratum which constituted the expected homogeneity.

Although there is no strict rule for obtaining sample size as Nkapa (1997) argues, Kathuri and Pals (1993) recommended the formula for estimating the sample size S needed relative to (a) a population of known size, (N), (b) a specified confidence level (e.g. 95) associated with chi-square statistic for one degree of freedom, and the designated degree of accuracy as reflected by the amount of sampling error (d) that can be tolerated. The formula is as follows:

$$S = \frac{\chi^2 Np(q)}{d^2(N-1) + \chi^2 p(q)}$$

Where:-

S = required sample size

N = the given population size

p = proportion in the target population estimated to have the characteristics being measured

q = 1-p

d = the level of significance set

χ^2 = table value of chi-square for one degree of freedom

Using this formula, Kathuri and Pals (1993) generated a summarized table for determining needed size of a randomly chosen sample. This table was utilized to select a sample of 400 respondents. The resultant sample representation from each faculty is shown in Table 3:

Table 3

Sample Distribution of Students by Faculty and Academic Year

	Academic Year			
Faculty	*2007*	*2006*	*2005*	**Totals**
Faculty of Agriculture (FA)	48	30	29	**107**
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (FASS)	20	14	12	**46**
Faculty of Education and Community Studies (FEDCOS)	48	32	22	**102**
Faculty of Environment and Resources Development (FERD)	9	6	4	**19**
Faculty of Engineering and Technology (FET)	10	13	10	**33**
Faculty of Health Sciences (FHS)	9	6	5	**20**
Faculty of Science (FS)	31	22	20	**73**
Totals	**175**	**123**	**102**	**400**

3.6 Instrumentation

Research data was collected using the structured self report questionnaire in appendix A. a structured questionnaire is suitable for data collection in surveys because its wording and sequence is fixed, predetermined and identical to all the respondents (Mutai, 2000). This had the advantage of eliciting standard answers to questions, making it possible for comparisons to be made between sets of data. The tool was ideal since it facilitated a rapid collection of research data from large samples as was the case on this study. This was important since the research targeted to generate data that would accurately describe the forms, contributing factors, students' perceptions, and effects of sexual harassment in Egerton University at the time of study. The data collection tool consisted of one part into which all items that measured the research variables reflected in the conceptual framework were incorporated. The extraneous variables were also factored into the questionnaire in the background information personal experiences and perceptions of sexual harassment in university, and relevant campus environment and individual characteristics. It consisted of 12 items directly related to personal experience of sexual harassment, and the campus environment. All questions were multiple response items.

3.6.1 Validity and Reliability

Validity refers to the degree to which a research instrument measures the variables it purports to measure (Kathuri & Pals, 1993). In other words, the instrument used for data collection should adequately capture the desired concept that the researcher wants to measure from the field (Kasomo, 2007). The survey was exploratory by nature, and the questionnaire employed had not been psychometrically validated. Thus, it may not fully have represented the higher order construct in which sexual harassment actually consists. In this study the researcher did not, at any point, use the behavioral scales as forming an additive representation of sexual harassment as a construct. However, the most important validity in this study was content validity, which was assured through doing collation of the structure of questionnaire with the research objectives and literature review. This was done with close consultation with research experts in the Department of Psychology, Counseling and Educational Foundations.

Reliability, on the other hand, is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). In other words, it is the extent to which results are consistent over time and accurately representing the total population under study (Mutai, 2000). If the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable (Joppe, 2000). Reliability for this research was enhanced through internal consistency of the questionnaire items. The instrument was piloted using 30 undergraduate students who were selected from Laikipia campus, which had the similar characteristics as the actual population of study. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to determine to determine the reliability of the instrument as suggested by Selltiz, Wrightsman and Cook, (1976). The research yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.79 which is greater than the critical value (Cronbach's alpha) of ≥ 0.7 and therefore, the research was considered reliable as suggested

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher collected data from the selected respondents after receiving permission from the National Council for Science and Technology, and the University Administration. Frannenkel and Wallen (2000) recommend that survey questionnaires should be administered to the students when they are all in one place to improve the rate of return. Therefore, four hundred (400)

questionnaires were distributed to the selected samples of undergraduate students during their lecture time sessions. However, due to the pressure of congested academic schedules, the researcher could not control the responses for some students who had to be allowed to take away their questionnaires. Three hundred and eighty nine (389) questionnaires were returned and these were the ones that provided the data that was subjected to analysis.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data generated by this study was quantitative. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the data analyses in this study. Perception of sexually harassing behaviours was codified into two artificial categories, that is low and high perception based on students' percentage scores on items on one to five point Likert scale as follows: Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1; Disagree (D) = 2; Undecided (UD) = 3; Agree (A) = 4 and Strongly Agree (SA) = 5. Negative statements were scored in the reverse order. Respondents who scored 50% on the one to five point Likert scale continuum were thought to have high perception of the sexually harassing behaviours while those who scored 50% and below were thought to have low perception. This therefore implies that a mean score of 2.5 out of the maximum 5 points on the Likert scale was taken as the transition point.

A one way Analysis of Variance between the intervening and the dependent variables was carried out to compare the means and find out whether their differences were statistically significant. These were also subjected to t-test to establish whether there existed any relationships between the variables and find out the significance of their relationship. This was done after cross-tabulation of the extraneous variables and the students' perception of sexually harassing behaviours generating a contingency table. The generated data was processed, coded and analyzed to facilitate answering the research questions in accordance with the objectives. Data analysis was done using descriptive statistics (percentages, frequencies, tables and cross-tabulations). This was done with the aid of computer software – Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15. This statistical software package offers extensive data-handling capabilities and numerous statistical analysis routines that can analyze small to very large data statistics. All statistical tests were done at 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

Presented in this chapter are the research findings of the study on forms, consequences and contributing factors of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in Egerton University that was conducted at Njoro campus. Each of the five research objectives is restated, results presented in tabular form and finally a conclusion made indicating whether the findings support or contradict other research findings. The posited hypothesis was tested at 95% confidence level and the discussion presented at the end of this chapter.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Four hundred questionnaires were issued to the respondents, out of which 389 responded. Eleven respondents did not return their questionnaires and therefore were considered non-respondents. The final actual sample from this study therefore, comprised 389 students, 258 males (66.3%) and 131 females (33.7%) who were aged between 18 to 29 years. They were sampled from second, third and fourth year undergraduates distributed across seven faculties relative to their degree programmes. Students in their first year of study were not considered for this study because in the view of the researcher, they still had challenges related to adjustments with regard to campus life.

4.2.1 Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age was clustered into four categories, that is; 18-20 years; 21-23 years; 24-26 years and 27-29 years.

Table 4

Distribution of Respondents by Age

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
Age (Years)	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**
18 - 20	12	4.7	27	20.6	39	10
21 - 23	191	74	90	68.7	281	72.2
24 - 26	51	19.8	8	6.1	59	15.2
27 - 29	4	1.6	6	4.6	10	2.6
Total	**258**	**100**	**131**	**100**	**389**	**100**

Table 4 indicates that the modal age group was 21-23 years cluster. This was 72.2% of the total sample. In addition, the data revealed that 15.2% of students who participated in the study were aged between 24-26 years, and that these comprised 19.8% males and 6.1% females respectively. More female students (20.6%) compared to 4.7% of their male counterparts fell in the 18-20 years age bracket, which accounted for 10% of the total sample. The least age category was 27-29 years which accounted for only 2.6% of the sample, 1.6% of which were male and 4.6% female. This age distribution supports the career lifespan projections for Kenyan 8-4-4 system of education.

4.2.2 Distribution of Respondents by Year of Study

The respondents were also grouped according to their year of study in the university. This was done by stratifying them according to their academic years with the assumption that there had been no disruptions to the academic schedules of the university during the time the respondents had been undertaking their studies until the time of data collection. The respondents selected were from second, third and fourth years of study as shown in Table 5. First year stratum was omitted because in the understanding of the researcher, they were not completely settled into the university routine and they were already subject to too much attention on account of their being the newest group on campus.

Table 5

Distribution of Respondents by Year of Study

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTALS	
Year of Study	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**
Second Year	96	37.2	57	43.5	153	39.3
Third Year	75	29.1	40	30.5	115	29.6
Fourth Year	87	33.7	34	26	121	31.1
Total	**258**	**100**	**131**	**100**	**389**	**100**

As shown in Table 5, second year students who participated in the research accounted for 39.3% of the sample and comprised 37.2% males and 43.5% females. In addition, 29.6% of the total samples were Third year students who consisted of 29.1% males and 30.5% females. Lastly, 33.7% male and 26% female students of the Fourth year respondents accounted for a total percentage of 31.1% of the sample.

4.2.3 Distribution of Respondents per the Faculties

Egerton University has seven established faculties from which the 400 sampled students were enrolled. These are: Faculty of Education and Community Studies (FEDCOS); Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (FASS); Faculty of Environmental and Resources Development (FERD); Faculty of Engineering and Technology (FET); Faculty of Agriculture (FA); Faculty of Health Sciences (FHS); and Faculty of Science (FA).

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by Faculties

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTALS	
Faculty	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**
FS	52	20.2	27	20.6	79	20.3
FASS	57	22.1	20	15.3	77	19.8
FA	41	15.9	35	26.7	76	19.5
FEDCOS	76	29.5	29	22.1	105	27
FET	23	8.9	10	7.6	33	8.5
FERD	4	1.6	4	3.1	8	2.1
FHS	5	1.9	6	4.6	11	2.8
Total	**258**	**100**	**131**	**100**	389	100

Table 6 shows that 29.5% male and 22.1% female students from FEDCOS constituted the highest number of respondents (27%) in this study. FS, which accounted for 20.3% of the sample, was made up of 20.2% male and 20.6% female respondents. Moreover, FASS accounted for 19.8% of which 22.1% and 15.3% were male and female respondents respectively. FA consisted of 15.9% males and 26.7% female respondents who contributed to 19.5% of the total sample. FET accounted for 8.5% of the sample and consisted of 8.9% male and 7.6% female respondents. The faculties that had the least sample of respondents were FHS and FERD. FHS accounted for 2.8% of the total sample and comprised 1.9% male and 4.6% female respondents. Finally, FERD (consisting of 1.6% male and 3.1% female respondents) accounted for 2.1%. This appears to be contrary to the selected samples where FA, FEDCOS and FS, respectively, should have accounted the largest response. Therefore, it can be assumed that the none-respondents were from these faculties.

4.2.4 Distribution of Students by Sexual Harassment Prior to Campus Life

Distribution of respondents according to sexual harassment prior campus life was defined by those who admitted to have been sexually harassed before joining the university. Table7 shows that 65.3% of the total number of respondents was affected by sexual harassment suffered before joining the university. These are composed of 65.5% males and 64.9% females.

Table 7

Students' Responses on Sexual Harassment Prior to Campus Life

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	Freq.	**Percentage (%)**	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**	**Freq.**	**Percentage (%)**
No	89	34.5	46	35.1	135	34.7
Yes	169	65.5	85	64.9	254	65.3
Total	**258**	**100**	**131**	**100**	**389**	**100**

From the research data presented on Table 7 almost two thirds of the university undergraduates have experienced sexual harassment by the time they are admitted into campus life. Moreover, there was no significant gender disparity in the sexual harassment experiences prior to university life.

4.3 Forms of Sexual Harassment among Undergraduates

The first objective of this study was to establish the major forms of sexual harassment among the undergraduate students of Egerton University. These were obtained by describing the respondents' rating of the frequency of the types of sexually harassing behaviours within the campus. The types of behavioural experiences from the respondents' self-report were also described to present the major types of sexually harassing behaviours.

4.3.1 Forms of Sexual Harassment Witnessed by Respondents

To establish the forms of sexual harassment among the students, respondents were required to state any types of harassing behaviours that they had witnessed being meted on their colleagues. The findings of the study are presented on Table 8.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Forms of Sexual Harassment Witnessed on Campus

Sexually Harassing Behaviour Witnessed	MALE n	MALE Mean	MALE sd	FEMALE n	FEMALE Mean	FEMALE sd	TOTALS N	TOTALS Mean	TOTALS sd
Sexual insults	258	0.21	0.408	131	0.27	0.444	389	0.23	0.421
Rape	258	0.06	0.242	131	0.1	0.3	389	0.07	0.263
Unwanted indecent touching	258	0.3	0.46	131	0.43	0.497	389	0.34	0.476
Unwarranted sexual attention	258	0.24	0.426	131	0.27	0.444	389	0.25	0.432
Attempted rape	258	0.03	0.184	131	0.12	0.329	389	0.06	0.246
Indecent public exposure	258	0.25	0.435	131	0.21	0.412	389	0.24	0.427
Valid n (list wise)	**258**	**0.182**	**0.36**	**131**	**0.23**	**0.404**	**389**	**0.2**	**0.378**

Table 8 indicates sexual insults ware witnessed by a mean of 0.21 of the male respondents and 0.27 of their female counterparts. Similarly, a mean of 0.25 of male and 0.21 of female respondents witnessed indecent public exposure of their colleagues. Unwarranted sexual attention was witnessed by a mean of 0.24 of the male and 0.27 of female respondents. However, only 0.3 of the male respondents witnessed their colleagues being subjected to unwanted indecent touching compared to 0.43 of their female counterparts. Similarly, a mean of 0.03 of male respondents were witnesses to attempted rape as opposed to 0.12 of female respondents. Rape was witnessed by a mean of only 0.06 of male respondents and 0.1 of female respondents.

4.3.2 Forms of Sexual Harassment Derived from Students' Frequency Rating

From the analyzed responses of rating of the sexually harassing behaviours among the students in Egerton University, the major forms of sexual harassment were derived as shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Sexually Harassing Behaviours as per Frequency Rating

Statement	Sum	Mean	SD
Persistent unwarranted sexual advances	1107	2.85	1.515
Sexual insults	1042	2.68	1.402
Persistent unwarranted request for sexual favours	1198	3.08	1.387
Physical assaults	805	2.07	1.257
Verbal abuse, threats or intimidation	1076	2.77	1.49
Derogatory or patronizing name calling	1007	2.59	1.298
Forced sexual intercourse (rape) by a stranger	546	1.4	0.834
Attempted forced sexual intercourse	698	1.79	1.093
Date rape	851	2.19	1.365
Forceful touching, feeling or grabbing	1082	2.78	1.533
Unwanted indecent touch	1308	3.36	1.497
Indecent public exposure	1430	3.68	1.444
Sexually explicit graffiti	1115	2.87	1.397
Unwarranted exposure to pornography	1411	3.63	1.481
n = 389	**1048.286**	**2.696**	**1.400**

Table 9 indicates that the most common types of sexually harassing behaviours within Egerton University are indecent public exposure of private body part (3.68); unwarranted exposure to viewing pornography (3.63) and unwarranted indecent touch (3.36). Others are persistent unwarranted requests for sexual favours (3.08); sexually explicit graffiti (2.87) and persistent sexual advances (2.85). In addition, forceful touching, feeling or grabbing (2.78); verbal abuse, threats or intimidation (2.77); sexual insults (2.68); derogatory or patronizing name-calling (2.59); and date rape (2.19) were also prevalent types of sexual harassment. The least prevalent forms of sexual harassment were date rape (2.19); physical assaults (2.07); attempted rape (1.79); and rape (1.4).

4.3.3 Forms of Sexual Harassment Derived from Students' Personal Experiences

From the respondents' personal experiences of the sexually harassing behaviours, the major types of sexual harassment can be derived. These major forms of sexual harassment are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Sexually Harassing Behaviours as per Personal Experiences

Sexually Harassing Behaviours Experienced	Sum	Mean	sd
Uninvited comments of sexual nature	251	0.65	0.479
Sexual insults	127	0.33	0.47
Persistent unwarranted requests for sexual favours	151	0.39	0.488
Physical or sexual assaults	67	0.17	0.378
Forced sexual intercourse	32	0.08	0.275
Unwanted indecent exposure of body parts by a fellow student	52	0.13	0.341
Date rape	28	0.07	0.259
Acquaintance rape	42	0.11	0.311
Unwanted indecent touch	240	0.62	0.487
Witnessed indecent public exposure	261	0.67	0.47
Sexually explicit graffiti	144	0.37	0.483
Deliberate grabbing, touching or brushing against parts of the body	233	0.6	0.491
Unwarranted exposure to pornography	228	0.59	0.493
Lewd gestures denoting sexual activity	259	0.67	0.472
Suggestive whistling, wolf-calls or kissing	243	0.62	0.485
Jokes, innuendoes or taunting about clothing, body image or sexual activities	287	0.74	0.44
Repeated unwanted social invitations (i.e. for dates)	256	0.66	0.475
Obscene jokes or humor about sex	320	0.82	0.382
n = 389	**178.944**	**0.46**	**0.427**

From Table 10, the most common types of sexually harassing behaviours that have not been included in Table 8 are uninvited comments of sexual nature (0.65); acquaintance rape (0.11) and lewd gestures denoting sexual activity (0.67). Others are suggestive whistling, wolf-calls or kissing sounds (0.62); jokes, innuendoes or taunting about clothing, body image or sexual activities (0.74); obscene jokes or taunting about sex (0.82) and repeated unwarranted social invitations, such as for dates (0.66).

The research findings in Table 10 indicate that the forms that threaten the students' physical well-being have been experienced by a relatively large number of students. The study established that out of 389 respondents who participated, 67 had experienced physical or sexual assaults, 32 had been subjected to forced sexual intercourse, 28 had suffered date rape and 42 had experienced acquaintance rape. A total of 169 undergraduate students who participated in the study were victims of aggravated sexual assault, which is 43% of the total sample. Generalizing these findings would imply that more than a third of the undergraduate students of Egerton University have suffered sexual abuse within the campus precincts.

4.4 Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

Objective two of this study sought to establish the prevalence of sexual harassment among the undergraduate students in Egerton University. Therefore, presented in this section are the research findings and discussions.

4.4.1 Prevalence of Sexual Harassment Derived from Students' Frequency Rating

Respondents were asked to rate the frequency of sexually harassing behaviours, among themselves, within the univeristy. Operationally, prevalence of sexual harassment was defined as a composite variable derived from the mean score of non-missing students' response on 14 closed-ended question items on a 5-point Likert scale, namely: least frequent = 1; less frequent = 2; moderately frequent = 3; frequent = 4 and very frequent = 5. A mean prevalence index of ≤ 1.7 out of the possible 5 points was taken to constitute low prevalence, a mean index greater than 1.7 and less than 3.3 comprised moderate prevalence while high prevalence was derived from a mean index of more than 3.3. Table 11 presents the summaryof responses of 14 items measuring prevalence of sexual harassment among students in egerton university.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

	MALE			FEMALE			TOTAL		
	n	Mean	sd	n	Mean	sd	Sum	Mean	sd
Persistent unwarranted sexual advances	258	2.6	1.507	131	3.33	1.417	1107	2.85	1.515
Sexual insults	258	2.47	1.401	131	3.08	1.319	1042	2.68	1.402
Persistent unwarranted request for sexual favours	258	2.91	1.381	131	3.4	1.346	1198	3.08	1.387
Physical assaults	258	1.92	1.184	131	2.36	1.348	805	2.07	1.257
Verbal abuse, threats or intimidation	258	2.6	1.46	131	3.08	1.504	1076	2.77	1.49
Derogatory or patronizing name calling	258	2.6	1.269	131	2.56	1.36	1007	2.59	1.298
Forced sexual intercourse (rape) by a stranger	258	1.37	0.837	131	1.47	0.826	546	1.4	0.834
Attempted forced sexual intercourse	258	1.67	1.004	131	2.04	1.218	698	1.79	1.093
Date rape	258	2.12	1.365	131	2.33	1.361	851	2.19	1.365
Forceful touching, feeling or grabbing	258	2.54	1.507	131	3.25	1.48	1082	2.78	1.533
Unwanted indecent touch	258	3.22	1.529	131	3.63	1.399	1308	3.36	1.497
Indecent public exposure	258	3.8	1.43	131	3.44	1.447	1430	3.68	1.444
Sexually explicit graffiti	258	2.98	1.411	131	2.65	1.347	1115	2.87	1.397
Unwarranted exposure to pornography	258	3.85	1.421	131	3.19	1.504	1411	3.63	1.481
n = 389	**258**	**2.62**	**1.337**	**131**	**2.84**	**1.348**	**1048.286**	**2.696**	**1.400**

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Table 11 indicates that the mean prevalence rating among the male respondents was 2.6 while the female rspondents rated it 2.8, which falls within the moderate prevalence level. An overall, a mean frequency rating of 2.7 with a standard deviation of 1.4 further confirmed that sexual harassment among Egerton university students is moderately prevalent.

The research established that the serious forms of sexual harassment are moderately prevalent. Physical assaults were rated at 2.07, attempted rape 1.79, date rape 2.19 and forceful touching, feeling or grabbing was rated at 2.78. This data shows a very worrying trend because it implies that a relatively large number of students are not physically safe on campus in an era of HIV/AIDS pandemic.

4.4.2 Prevalence of Sexual Harassment According to Frequency of Perpetration

To further establish the prevalence of sexual harassment among students, the researcher examined the frequency of respondents who admitted perpetrating the sexually harassing behaviours. A prevalence index was derived from a mean score of a scale of frequency of perpetration as follows: Never = 1; Once or Twice = 2; and Often = 3. The transition point for low, medium and high prevalence was therefore set at 1, 2 and 3 respectively. Table 12 presents the research findings in relation self-confessed perpetration of sexually harassing behaviours.

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Self-Confessed Perpetration of Sexual Harassment

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male	258	355	1.38	0.656
Female	131	179	1.37	0.659
Total	**389**	**534**	**1.37**	**0.656**

Table 12 indicates that the prevalence of sexual harassment according to male perpetration was 1.38 with a standard deviation of 0.66 while that of their female counterparts was 1.37 with a standard deviation of 0.66. Therefore, there was no gender difference in the prevalence level for sexual harassment based on the mean index for self-confessed perpetrators since both fell in the

medium prevalence level. The overall prevalence level of sexual harassment according self-confessed perpetration and based on the mean prevalence index was 1.37 which implies that sexual harassment among students in Egerton university is moderately prevalent.

The findings are in tandem with the postulation that other researches have indicated that men are as vulnerable as women as asserted by AAUW (2007). However, the study findings does not support Wood and Wood (2002), who claim that research rather dramatically shows that men are more willing than women to act aggressively in the absence of provocation, a fact attributed to level of testosterone levels in the blood. They further assert that greater physical aggression in males is one of the most consistent and significant gender differences. This therefore, implies that generally, male students are expected to be the major perpetrators of sexual harassment, with their female counterparts being their major targets. These research findings directly contradict these assertions and implications.

4.4.3 Prevalence of Sexual Harassment Derived from Respondents Eye-Witnessing

Respondents were required to indicate whether they had witnessed a colleague being subjected to sexually harassing behaviours within the campus premises as futher measure for prevalence of sexual harassment. The distribution of the students who had witnessed these episodes are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Witnessing a Colleague being Sexually Harassed

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male	258	192	0.74	0.437
Female	131	99	0.76	0.431
Total	**389**	**291**	**0.75**	**0.435**

Table 13 indicates that the mean index for male respondents who witnessed a colleague being sexually harassed was 0.74 and that of the female reapondents was 0.76. The overal mean index for the prevalence was 0.75. this implies 75% of undergraduate student of Egerton University

have witnesed a colleague being subjected to sexual harassment. Two thirds of the respondents who witnessed sexual harassment constitute high prevalence according to the definition of terms.

4.4.4 Prevalence of Sexual Harassment Derived from Students' Personal Experience

Another criterion for determining the prevalence of sexual harassment among the students was personal experiences of respondents. This was derived from a composite variable derived from the mean score of non-missing students' response on 18 closed-ended question items on a YES = 1 and NO = 0 scale where the transition point low and moderate prevalence was 0.33 and 0.67 respectively. Therefore, a mean prevalence index of 0.67 and above was taken to imply high prevalence of sexual harassment. A summary of the responses and their descriptives has been presented in Table 14.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Prevalence of Sexual Harassment Based on Personal Experiences

	MALE				FEMALE				TOTALS			
Sexually Harassing Behaviours Experienced	**n**	**∑**	**л**	**sd**	**n**	**∑**	**л**	**sd**	**n**	**∑**	**л**	**sd**
Uninvited comments of sexual nature	258	155	0.6	0.49	131	96	0.73	0.44	389	251	0.65	0.48
Sexual insults	258	79	0.31	0.46	131	48	0.37	0.48	389	127	0.33	0.47
Persistent unwarranted requests for sexual favours	258	75	0.29	0.46	131	76	0.58	0. 5	389	151	0.39	0.49
Physical or sexual assaults	258	42	0.16	0.37	131	25	0.19	0.39	389	67	0.17	0.38
Forced sexual intercourse	258	18	0.07	0.26	131	14	0.11	0.31	389	32	0.08	0.28
Unwanted indecent exposure of body parts by a fellow student	258	21	0.08	0.27	131	31	0.24	0.43	389	52	0.13	0.34
Date rape	258	17	0.07	0.25	131	11	0.08	0.28	389	28	0.07	0.26
Acquaintance rape	258	22	0.09	0.28	131	20	0.15	0.36	389	42	0.11	0.31
Unwanted indecent touch	258	140	0.54	0.5	131	100	0.76	0.43	389	240	0.62	0.49
Witnessed indecent public exposure	258	182	0.71	0.46	131	79	0.6	0.49	389	261	0.67	0.47
Sexually explicit graffiti	258	104	0.4	0.49	131	40	0.31	0.46	389	144	0.37	0.48
Deliberate grabbing, touching or brushing against parts of the body	258	154	0.6	0.49	131	79	0.6	0.49	389	233	0.6	0.49
Unwarranted exposure to pornography	258	169	0.66	0.48	131	59	0.45	0.5	389	228	0.59	0.49
Lewd gestures denoting sexual activity	258	171	0.66	0.47	131	88	0.67	0.47	389	259	0.67	0.47
Suggestive whistling, wolf-calls or kissing	258	148	0.57	0.5	131	95	0.73	0.45	389	243	0.62	0.49

Jokes, innuendoes or taunting about clothing, body image or sexual activities	258	190	0.74	0.44	131	97	0.74	0.44	389	287	0.74	0.44
Repeated unwanted social invitations (i.e. for dates)	258	152	0.59	0.49	131	104	0.79	0.41	389	256	0.66	0.48
Obscene jokes or humor about sex	258	215	0.83	0.37	131	105	0.8	0.4	389	320	0.82	0.38
Valid n (list wise)	**258**	**114**	**0.44**	**0.42**	**131**	**64.8**	**0.49**	**0.43**	**389**	**178.9**	**0.46**	**0.43**

Table 14 indicates that a mean index of sexual harassment for male respondents was 0.44 while that of the female respondents was 0.49. The overall mean index for sexual harassment prevalence was 0.46 which falls in the moderate prevalence level. Therefore, from these research findings, it can be concluded that sexual harassment is moderately prevalent among the students of Egerton University.

The research findings in Table 14 reflect similar trends as those indicated in Table 10, that the forms that threaten the students' physical well-being have been experienced by more than a third (43%) of the undergraduate students of Egerton University. A total of 99 out of 258 male respondents who participated in the survey and 70 out of 131 of their female colleagues had experiences sexual abuse. The survey therefore established that 38% of male and 53% of female undergraduate students of Egerton University were subjected to sexual abuse on campus.

These findings differ with the findings by Armada and Ashley (2006) who assert that 62% of undergraduate students have encountered some type of sexual harassment. The research findings also differ from a 2006 study on sexual harassment at colleges and universities that revealed 62% of female and 61% of male college students reported having been sexually harassed at their university, with 80% of the reported harassment being peer-to-peer (AAUW, 2007). In addition, the survey refuted a 2007 survey conducted by the Institute of Women, Gender and Development Studies of Egerton University at the university that revealed that 75% of female and 47% of male students had experienced sexual harassment of one form or another.

4.5 Factors that Contribute to Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

The third objective of this study sought to establish the factors that served to perpetuate the incidence of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in the university. The factors were studied under three broad categories: The factors relating to the university setting, students' perception of sexual harassment and the students' motives in for engaging in sexually harassing behaviours. The results are discussed under their categories in the sections that follow:

4.5.1 Contributing Factors Related to the University Setting

Factors related to the university setting were broadly categorized into university environment, self presentation and social relations. The university environmental factors that contribute to

sexual harassment were categorized into poor lighting, lack of sexual harassment policy, poor lighting and lack of security. Social relations were defined by personal relationships and economic vulnerability; while self presentation was defined in terms of personal grooming and dress mode. These are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Contributing Factors of Sexual Harassment

	MALE			FEMALE			TOTALS		
	n	**Mean**	**sd**	**n**	**Mean**	**sd**	**n**	**Mean**	**sd**
Personal relationships	258	0.46	0.499	131	0.55	0.499	389	0.49	0.501
Economic vulnerability	258	0.44	0.497	131	0.42	0.495	389	0.43	0.496
Poor lighting and security	258	0.23	0.423	131	0.23	0.422	389	0.23	0.422
Dressing mode	258	0.69	0.462	131	0.57	0.497	389	0.65	0.477
Lack of sexual policy	258	0.26	0.439	131	0.48	0.502	389	0.33	0.472
n = 389	**258**	**0.416**	**0.464**	**131**	**0.45**	**0.483**	**389**	**0.426**	**0.4736**

According to Table 15, the university environmental factors that contribute to sexual harassment were poor lighting (0.23), lack of sexual harassment policy (0.33) and lack of security (0.23). On the other hand, contributing factors related to social relations were personal relationships (0.49) and economic vulnerability (0.43). Additionally, the self presentation factor that encouraged sexual harassment was dress mode that accounted for a mean of 0.65. From these findings therefore, the greatest contributing factor of sexual harassment were dressing mode, personal relationships and economic vulnerability of the students. These findings are in line with the postulations of the social strain theory which implies that students may engage in sexually harassing behaviours when confronted with extreme psychological pressure (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994). Therefore, it is no wonder that the mode of dressing was ranked the highest among the contributing factors of sexual harassment.

4.5.2 Personal Motives for Perpetration of Sexual Harassment

The personal reasons for engaging in sexual harassment were examined to find out if they were a contributing factor to its perpetuation among the undergraduate students. The findings are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Motives as Contributing Factors of Sexual Harassment

	MALE			FEMALE			TOTALS		
	n	Mean	sd	n	Mean	sd	n	Mean	sd
Thought it was funny	258	0.08	0.274	131	0.09	0.29	389	0.08	0.279
Revenge	258	0.01	0.107	131	0.05	0.226	389	0.03	0.158
Thought the person liked it	258	0.1	0.296	131	0.02	0.15	389	0.07	0.259
Wanted a date with the person	258	0.09	0.291	131	0.05	0.21	389	0.08	0.267
n = 389	**258**	**0.07**	**0.242**	**131**	**0.05**	**0.22**	**389**	**0.07**	**0.241**

Table 16 indicates that a mean of 0.08 of male respondents and 0.09 of their female counterparts view harassment as a source of fun. On the other hand, a mean of 0.01 of the male respondents viewed sexual harassment as a means to revenge as opposed to 0.05 of the female respondents. Similarly, the male students who accounted for a mean of 0.1 thought their targets compared to a mean of 0.02 of their female counterparts. Interestingly, a mean of 0.09 of the male respondents and 0.05 of their female colleagues harassed their comrades as a means to procuring a date. Therefore, personal motives for sexually harassing others are not a major contributing factor of sexual harassment among the students of Egerton University.

4.5.3 Students' Willingness to Label the Sexually Harassing Behaviours

Respondents were asked to state whether they had been sexually harassed as they interacted with their colleagues within the university and their responses presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Labeling Sexual Harassment Appropriately

Gender	n	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male	227	85	0.37	0.485
Female	127	68	0.54	0.501
Totals	**354**	**153**	**0.43**	**0.496**

Table 17 shows that the male students who labeled themselves as victims of sexual harassment had a mean of 0.37 as opposed to their female counterparts who had a mean of 0.54. This implies that the female students were more willing to label the sexually harassing behaviours than their male colleagues. The overall mean for respondents who labeled themselves as victims of sexual harassment 0.43 which implies that most of the students who are sexually harassed are resistant to labeling themselves as victims of sexual harassment. It is important to note that data presented in Table 17 indicates that the mean sexual harassment perception index is 3.8 which implies that undergraduate students of Egerton University have a high perception of sexual harassment. Therefore, based on these findings, it can be concluded that students' resistant to labeling the sexually harassing behaviours is a contributing factor to the perpetuation of sexual harassment within the university. These findings are in tandem with Witowska (2005) who asserts that many students are subjected to many of the potentially offensive behaviors without labeling them as sexual harassment, despite the fact that they see the behaviors as problematic. In addition, there is a strong resistance to labeling oneself as a victim of harassment, and a general avoidance of the "sexual harassment" label. The findings of the study seem to agree with this postulation.

4.6 University Students' Perception of Sexual Harassment

The study sought to establish students' perceptions of peer sexual harassment in line with objective four. Operationally, Perception of Sexual Harassment was defined as a composite variable derived from the mean score of non-missing students' response on 19 closed-ended question items on a 5-point Likert scale, namely: strongly agree (SA) = 5; Agree (A) = 4; Undecided (UD) = 3; Disagree (D) = 2 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1. Negative statements

were scored in the reverse order. The sum, mean and standard deviation (SD) of each of the 19 items are summarized in the Table 18

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

	MALE				FEMALE				TOTALS			
Perception of Sexual Harassment	**n**	**∑**	**л**	**sd**	**n**	**∑**	**л**	**sd**	**n**	**∑**	**л**	**sd**
Sexual harassment is a natural human behavior	258	969	3.76	1.33	131	555	4.24	1.17	389	1524	3.92	1.3
Women who cry foul over a sexual harassment are overreacting	258	837	3.24	1.26	131	567	4.33	0.98	389	1404	3.61	1.28
Sexual harassment can be wiped out in universities	258	885	3.43	1.29	131	483	3.69	1.29	389	1368	3.52	1.3
Sexual harassment can occur to anyone irrespective of gender	258	1178	4.57	0.80	131	571	4.36	1.06	389	1749	4.5	0.9
Sexual harassment offenders should be seriously punished	258	1026	3.98	1.24	131	552	4.21	1.22	389	1578	4.06	1.24
Unwarranted sexual advances are usual phenomena	258	767	2.97	1.30	131	427	3.26	1.38	389	1194	3.07	1.34
Sexual harassment should be taken more seriously in the university	258	1074	4.16	1.04	131	584	4.46	0.96	389	1658	4.26	1.03
Sexual harassment is usually provoked by the individual's dressing mode	258	546	2.12	1.19	131	391	2.98	1.34	389	937	2.41	1.31
Sexual harassment affects women only	258	1189	4.61	0.82	131	582	4.44	0.88	389	1771	4.55	0.84
Verbal sexual harassment is as serious as any other form of crime	258	850	3.29	1.28	131	503	3.84	1.33	389	1353	3.48	1.32

Fighting sexual harassment should be a responsibility for all	258	1189	4.61	0.73	131	600	4.58	0.94	389	1789	4.6	0.80
Most women overreact on the issue of sexual harassment	258	701	2.72	1.27	131	455	3.47	1.4	389	1156	2.97	1.36
Women sexual offenders should receive same punishment as men offenders	258	1187	4.6	0.80	131	548	4.18	1.14	389	1735	4.46	0.95
Sexual harassment is wrong no matter what the circumstances	258	1121	4.34	1.00	131	600	4.58	0.80	389	1721	4.42	0.92
Sexual harassment is a crime against humanity	258	1141	4.42	0.93	131	580	4.43	1	389	1721	4.42	0.95
We should respect someone who says no to a sexual advance	258	1130	4.38	1.05	131	592	4.52	0.97	389	1722	4.43	1.03
Like beauty, sexual harassment is in the eyes of the beholder	258	876	3.4	1.55	131	471	3.6	1.40	389	1347	3.46	1.50
Sexually explicit graffiti is sexual harassment	258	827	3.21	1.19	131	457	3.49	1.23	389	1284	3.3	1.20
Unwarranted exposure to pornographic materials is sexual harassment	258	822	3.19	1.43	131	493	3.76	1.25	389	1315	3.38	1.39
n = 389	**258**	**964**	**3.74**	**1.13**	**131**	**527**	**4.02**	**1.14**	**389**	**1491**	**3.83**	**1.16**

From the data presented in Table 18, the mean perception index for the 19 items is 3.8 which fell above the transition point. It can be concluded that undergraduate students of Egerton University have a high perception of sexual harassment. Female respondents scored a mean perception index of 4.02 while the male respondents scored 3.74. Therefore, this research revealed that female respondents were more perceptive that their male counterparts.

4.7 Psycho-Social Consequences of Sexual Harassment

The fifth objective of this study was to determine the psycho-social consequences of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in the university. This was determined by asking the respondents to indicate how their experiences of sexually harassing behaviours affected their emotions. These effects on their emotions would have a significant impact on their psychological well-being and social interactions. The research findings are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Psycho-Social Consequences of Sexual Harassment

	MALE			FEMALE			TOTALS		
	n	Mean	sd	n	Mean	sd	n	Mean	sd
Felt upset	258	0.21	0.408	131	0.31	0.462	389	0.24	0.429
Felt self conscious	258	0.09	0.291	131	0.11	0.32	389	0.1	0.301
Felt embarrassed	258	0.36	0.482	131	0.24	0.431	389	0.32	0.469
Felt angry	258	0.11	0.312	131	0.3	0.459	389	0.17	0.378
Felt afraid	258	0.06	0.234	131	0.12	0.329	389	0.08	0.271
n = 389	**258**	**0.17**	**0.346**	**131**	**0.22**	**0.4**	**389**	**0.18**	**0.37**

Table 19 gives a mean of 0.21 of male and 0.31 of female students who felt upset as a result to sexual harassment experiences. Similarly, a mean of 0.36 of the male and a mean of 0.24 of the female students felt embarrassed after being subjected to sexually harassing behaviours. Students who feel self-conscious when they are sexually harassed constituted a mean of 0.09 for males and 0.11 for females. Reacting with anger after sexual harassment is more evident among the female students who had a mean of 0.3 compared to 0.11 of their male counterparts. Lastly, 0.12

female students reacted with fright after being subjected to sexually harassing behaviours compared to their male comrades whose mean was 0.06. However, in relation to their total means, the most common psycho-social consequences of sexual harassment were a sense of embarrassment (0.32) followed by feeling upset (0.24) and being angry (1.7). Others were sense self-consciousness which accounts for a mean of 0.1 and being afraid which had a mean of 0.08. The findings of this study supports the claims of Amanda and Ashley (2006) that consequences of sexual harassment can vary depending on the individual, and the severity and duration of the harassment. In addition, the findings are in agreement with Prekel (2001) who asserts that some of the most common psycho-social consequences of sexual harassment include: feeling angry, depression, loss of confidence and self esteem, shame and guilt and experiencing withdrawal and isolation tendencies.

4.8 Academic Consequences of Sexual Harassment

The sixth objective of this study was to determine the academic consequences of sexual harassment among undergraduate students in the university. This was determined by asking the respondents to indicate how their experiences of sexually harassing behaviours affected their academic achievement efforts. Their responses are presented in Table 20.

Table 20

Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Consequences of Sexual Harassment that Affect Students' Academic Efforts

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTALS	
	Mean	**sd**	**Mean**	**sd**	**Mean**	**sd**
Found it hard to study	0.12	0.33	0.08	0.267	0.11	0.311
Found it hard to pay attention in class	0.23	0.421	0.14	0.346	0.2	0.399
Skipped a class	0.05	0.219	0.03	0.173	0.04	0.205
Dropped a course	0.02	0.124	0.03	0.173	0.02	0.142
Stay away from particular campus premises	0.22	0.418	0.34	0.477	0.26	0.442
n = 389	**0.13**	**0.302**	**0.12**	**0.287**	**0.17**	**0.3**

Table 20 indicates that most students (represented by a mean of 0.26) prefer to stay away from particular campus premises after being subjected to sexual harassment. This implies that these students do not have the freedom to fully utilize the university resources for their academic efforts and this could impair their academic performance. Other students, represented by a mean of 0.2, found it hard to pay attention in class, which might have long term effects of poor academic performance. A mean of 0.11 found it hard to study as a consequence of sexual harassment while a mean of 0.04 of the students skip classes. However, only a mean of 0.02 of the students drop courses as a result of sexual harassment.

The findings of this study are in tandem with the assertion of Krung, *et al.* (2003) that common academic consequences of sexual harassment may include but are not limited to decreased performance due to increased absenteeism, loss of career, having to drop courses or change academic plans.

4.9 Influence of Extraneous Variables on Sexual Harassment

The researcher subjected the data to statistcal tests to find out whether the extraneous variables (age, gender, academic year and faculty) influenced the dependent variables (perception and prevalence of sexual harassment). Inferential statistics (t-test and analysis of variance ANOVA) were used to compare the means on perception and prevalence to find out if their differences were statistically significant.

4.9.1 Gender Factor on Perception and Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

An independent samples t-test for equality of Means was done on the students' perception and prevalence rating of sexual harassment with regard to gender. The prevalence rating of sexual harassment by male respondents (2.62) was lower than those of the female respondents' (2.84) with a -0.225. This difference had a 2-tailed p-value of 0.01, which is statistically significant. It was therefore inferred that the perception of prevalence of sexual harassment among the undergraduate students of Egerton University was significantly influenced by the students' gender. Similarly, the male respondents who had a mean of 3.74 were found to be less perceptive to sexual harassment than the female respondents whose means was 4.02. The mean difference between the perception of the two groups was -2.86, with a p-value of 0.000 which was stastically significant. It was inferred that the students' gender significantly influenced the

perception of sexual harassment among the undergraduate students of Egerton University. The t-test results are presented in Table 21.

Table 21

Independent Samples t-test for Influence of Gender on Perception and Prevalence Rating of Sexual Harassment

		t-test for Equality of Means						
							95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Upper	Lower
Prevalence rating of sexual harassment	Equal variances assumed	-2.593	387	.010	-.225	.087	-.396	-.054
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.561	252.655	.011	-.225	.088	-.398	-.052
Perception of Sexual harassment	Equal variances assumed	-5.151	387	.000	-.286	.055	-.395	-.177
	Equal variances not assumed	-5.105	255.198	.000	-.286	.056	-.396	-.176

4.9.2 Age Factor on Perception and Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

Analysis of variance between the age categories was done to ascertain if age significantly influenced perception or prevalence rating of sexual harassment by the respondents. The results are displayed on Table 22.

Table 22

Analysis of Variance of Age in Perception and Prevalence Rating of Sexual Harassment

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perception of Sexual harassment	Between Groups	.250	3	.083	.290	.832
	Within Groups	110.421	385	.287		
	Total	110.670	388			
Prevalence rating of sexual harassment	Between Groups	.072	3	.024	.036	.991
	Within Groups	257.444	385	.669		
	Total	257.516	388			

Table 22 indicates that the significance level of the mean difference in perception of sexual harassment was 0.832 which is greater than the alpha level and therefore not statistically significant. It was infered that age did not significantly influence students' perception of sexual harassment. Similarly, the mean difference in prevalence rating of sexual harassment across the age categories had a significance value of 0.991 which was greater than the alpha value and therefore not statistically significant. Consequently, it was inferred that respondents' age did not significantly influence their rating of the prevalence of sexual haarssment among undergraduate students in the university.

4.9.3 Academic Year Factor on Perception and Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

In order to determine whether students' academic year significantly influences their perception or prevalence rating of sexual harassment analysis of variance of second, third and fourth years respondents' means were analyzed. A summary of the results are presented on Table 23 and the multiple comparisons presented in Appendix D.

Table 23

Analysis of Variance of Year of Study in Perception and Prevalence Rating of Sexual Harassment

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perception of Sexual harassment	Between Groups	3.415	2	1.707	6.145	.002
	Within Groups	107.256	386	.278		
	Total	110.670	388			
Prevalence rating of sexual harassment	Between Groups	1.022	2	.511	.769	.464
	Within Groups	256.494	386	.664		
	Total	257.516	388			

Table 23 shows that the mean difference in the perception of sexual harassment among undergraduate students of Egerton University with regard to their academic years had a p-value of 0.002 which is statistically significant. Consequently, it was inferred that students' year of study significantly influenced their perception of sexual harassment among themselves. On the other hand, the mean difference in sexual harassment prevalence rating between the years of study had an observed significance value of 0.464 which is greater than the critical alpha value and therefore not statistically significant. It was inferred that students' year of study did not significantly influence their rating of perceived prevalence of sexual harassment.

4.9.4 Influence of Degree Programme on Perception and Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

The researcher wanted to find out if respondents' degree programme had any significant influence on their perception of sexual harassment or the rating of its prevalence among students. A multiple analysis table is presented in Appendix E and a summary show on Table 24.

Table 24

Analysis of Variance of Faculty in Perception and Prevalence Rating of Sexual Harassment

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perception of Sexual harassment	Between Groups	1.387	6	.231	.808	.564
	Within Groups	109.283	382	.286		
	Total	110.670	388			
Prevalence rating of sexual harassment	Between Groups	5.727	6	.954	1.448	.195
	Within Groups	251.789	382	.659		
	Total	257.516	388			

Table 24 indicates that the mean differences on prevalence rating and perception between degree programmes were 0.195 and 0.564 respectively, which are greater than the critical alpha value of 0.05. Therefore these observed significance values were not statistically significant and it was inferred that students' degree programme did not significantly influence their perception of sexual harassment or perceived prevalence of sexually harassing behaviours.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the major findings of the study as derived from the analysis of the five research questions in chapter four. Conclusions are also highlighted based on the findings. The last part of the chapter details recommendations and suggestions for further research.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The overall aim of this research was to explore and analyze forms of sexual harassment among the undergraduate students of Egerton University, its contributing factors, prevalence, students' perceptions and its consequences. Data were collected from a random sample of undergraduate students, in second, third and fourth academic years whose age ranged from 18 to 29 years as sampled form the seven established faculties of the university. A self-report questionnaire was administered to the selected sample to facilitate data collection. Four hundred questionnaires were issued, form which three hundred and eighty nine were returned. The questionnaire addressed personal experiences and perceptions of sexual harassment, and also relevant aspects of the university setting. The following are the major findings of the study:

i. Two thirds of university undergraduates are subjected to sexual harassment before they join campus

ii. There is no significant gender difference in the experiences of sexual harassment before admission into the university

iii. The common forms of sexual harassment among students of Egerton university are:
    a. Indecent public exposure
    b. Unwarranted exposure to pornography
    c. Unwanted indecent touch
    d. Persistent unwarranted requests for sexual favours
    e. Unwarranted sexual attention
    f. Sexual insults
    g. Comments of sexual nature
    h. Sexually explicit graffiti
    i. Lewd gestures denoting sexual activities

j. Suggestive whistling, wolf-calls or kissing
k. Jokes, innuendoes or taunting about one's clothing, body image or sexual activities
l. Repeated unwanted social invitations such as for dates
m. Unwarranted sexual advances
n. Sexual insults

iv. Sexual harassment is moderately prevalent among the undergraduate students of Egerton University

v. The factors that contribute to prevalence of sexual harassment among students in Egerton university are:
   a. Students dress mode
   b. Personal relationships
   c. Economic vulnerability
   d. Lack of sexual harassment policy
   e. Students' resistance to label sexually harassing behaviours appropriately

vi. The undergraduate students of Egerton University are highly perceptive of the prevalence of sexual harassment among themselves within the university.

vii. The psycho-social consequences of sexual harassment among the undergraduate students are feeling upset, self conscious, embarrassment, anger and fear

viii. The academic consequences of sexual harassment are: staying away from particular campus premises; finding it hard to pay attention in class; finding it hard to study; and skipping classes.

5.3 Conclusion

On the basis of the findings of the study, the researcher made several conclusions which are related to the six research questions of the study. These conclusions were generalized to undergraduate students of Kenyan universities. They are as follows:

i. All students irrespective of their gender, academic level, degree programme and age are vulnerable to sexual harassment within the university premises

ii. Sexual harassment among students of Egerton University is a moderately prevalent phenomenon.

iii. Many students are subjected to many of the potentially offensive behaviors without labeling them as sexual harassment, despite the fact that they see the behaviors as problematic.

iv. Even though many people stereotype male students as the social aggressors and female students as the most likely recipients of sexual harassment, there is no gender difference in the perpetration of sexual harassment

v. Both male and female students of Egerton university are highly perceptive of sexually harassing behaviours within the university

vi. The greatest contributing factor of sexual harassment among students in Egerton university are students' dress mode and personal relationships

vii. Female student are more emotionally affected by sexual harassment while the males students are more academically affected.

5.4 Recommendations

This study employed a very broad theoretical and operational definition of sexual harassment. However, the results suggest that employing a broad definition of harassment will not unreasonably inflate the results. Analysis of the efficiency of specific question formulation in measuring sexual harassment suggests that more general questions actually yield lower recognition, and hence give lower frequencies. Lack of questions establishing contextual factors of the incidents may be considered a weakness. Nevertheless, this study asked about specific behaviors so that sexual harassment was operationalized and very specific. Therefore, from the study, the following recommendations were made:

i. Generally, greater efforts are needed to analyze and effectively counteract sexual harassment in Egerton University. They need to employ more sophisticated measurements and adopt education and prevention strategies that incorporate an understanding of the complex nature of the phenomenon and perceptions of it.

ii. Aggressive in-reach campaigns should be conducted within the university to raise the awareness of sexual harassment on campus. Awareness of the problem, one's own, and others' rights should be promoted through the appropriate measures

iii. The university students counseling department should organize a programme for psychological debriefing and trauma counseling for the students whose entry into the university is preceded by experiences of sexual harassment

iv. Both perpetrators and survivors of sexual harassment should be accorded the necessary mental health assistance to help them cope with their experiences

v. A clear sexual harassment policy should be put in place adopting the consultative and participatory approaches to policy formulation and implementation to enhance the success index in combating the phenomena within campus premises

vi. The universities should set up clear complaints and disciplinary procedures that should be well-communicated, so that students have confidence that their complaints will be taken seriously, treated confidentially with assurance that they will not be victimized, and that the whole process will be handled reasonably quickly

vii. The appropriate professionals must assist victims of past and present harassment to overcome the negative consequences of that experience

viii. Training of all students leaders (not just peer-counselors and students union leaders) should be used to raise the awareness and understanding of sexual harassment and to help equip individual with the necessary skills to deal with it

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

The researcher identified some areas which require further investigations in order to have more insight into sexual harassment among students on Kenyan universities as well as enrich the present knowledge. These are:

i. A cross sectional study involving all students from first; second; third; fourth; and fifth years on the forms, consequences and contributing factors of sexual harassment among the undergraduate students should be carried out to find out if the same results will be obtained

ii. A replication of the present study should be carried out in other campuses of the university to find out whether the same trends will be observed

iii. An investigation into the factors that contribute to the perceived strong resistance among Egerton University students to labeling oneself as a victim of sexual harassment

iv. A survey on university students harassment awareness training and its effectiveness in influencing their perception of sexual harassment

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APPENDIX A: UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent,

You have been chosen to take part in this study on the **Forms, Consequences and Contributing Factors of Sexual Harassment Among Undergraduate Students in Kenya.** Kindly respond to the questions in this questionnaire to the best of your knowledge. The responses you give will be treated with utmost confidentiality. There is no right or wrong answers.

Thank you.

James Kay)

Instructions

Please Tick (√) the Appropriate Box

1. Indicate your Faculty

   - ☐ Faculty of Agriculture
   - ☐ Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (FASS)
   - ☐ Faculty of Education and Community Studies (FEDCOS)
   - ☐ Faculty of Engineering and Technology (FET)
   - ☐ Faculty of Environmental Resource Development (FERD)
   - ☐ Faculty of Medical Sciences
   - ☐ Faculty of Science

2. State your age

   - ☐ 18 – 20 years
   - ☐ 21 – 23 years
   - ☐ 24 – 26 years
   - ☐ 27 – 29 years

3. Your year of study

   - ☐ Second year (07)
   - ☐ Third year (06)
   - ☐ Fourth year (05)

4. Your gender

☐ Male
☐ Female

5 (a). Please respond to the following items by indicating your rating of their frequency among students within the university by using the following scale

Least frequent - 1
Less frequent - 2
Moderately frequent - 3
Frequent - 4
Very frequent - 5

FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT	1	2	3	4	5
Persistent unwanted sexual advances					
Sexual insults					
Persistent unwanted request for sexual favours					
Physical assaults					
Verbal abuse, threats or intimidation					
Derogatory or patronizing name calling					
Rape by a stranger					
Attempted rape by a stranger					
Being raped during a date					
Forceful touching of body parts in a sexual way					
Unwanted indecent touch					
Indecent public exposure of body parts by students					
Writings or paintings of sexual materials on public places					
Unwarranted exposure to viewing pornographic materials					

6. Please respond to these items by indicating whether you have been a victim of the following forms of sexual harassment in the university by ticking as appropriate

FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT	Yes	No
Uninvited comments of sexual nature form fellow students		
Being called obscene names by fellow students		
Persistent unwarranted requests for sexual favours		
Physical assaults		
Rape by a student whom you don't know well		
Attempted rape by another student		
Raped when on a date with a friend		
Raped by a fellow student whom you know very well		
Unwanted touches that make you sexually uncomfortable		
Witnessed another student publicly exposing her/his sexual parts		
Writings or paintings of sexual materials on public places		
Deliberate grabbing, touching or brushing against parts of the body		
Being unnecessarily forced to view pornographic materials		
'Dirty' gestures denoting sexual activity		
Suggestive whistling, wolf-calls or kissing when directed to you in public		
Jokes, innuendoes or taunting about clothing, body image or sexual activities		
Repeated unwanted social invitations with sexual implications		
Beings unnecessarily exposed to 'dirty' jokes about sex		

b). During the course of your study in this university, have you ever been sexually harassed?

☐ Yes
☐ No

7. (a) During the course of your study in this university, have you ever witnessed a colleague being sexually harassed?

☐ Yes
☐ No

b) If **YES** in **(a)** above, what form of sexual harassment did you witness?

- ☐ Sexual insults
- ☐ Rape
- ☐ Unwanted touching of private body parts
- ☐ Being subjected to too much attention that makes you sexually uncomfortable
- ☐ Attempted Rape
- ☐ Unwanted indecent public exposure of body parts by fellow student
- ☐ Other form (specify _____)

8 (a) How did your experiences of sexual harasment affect your emotions?

- ☐ Felt upset
- ☐ Self-conscious
- ☐ Embarrassed
- ☐ Angry
- ☐ Afraid
- ☐ Other effect (specify _____)

(b) How did your experiences of sexual harassment affect your academic achievement efforts?

- ☐ Found it hard to study
- ☐ Found it hard to pay attention in classes
- ☐ Skipped a class in response to sexual harassment
- ☐ Dropped a course
- ☐ Stay away from particular campus premises
- ☐ Other effect (specify _____)

9 (a) How often have you engaged in sexual harassment in this university?

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Once or twice
- ☐ Never

(b) Give the reasons for your behaviour

- ☐ Thought it was funny
- ☐ Revenge
- ☐ Thought the person liked it
- ☐ Wanted a date with the person
- ☐ Other reason (specify_____)

10. Since you were born, have you had the experience of being sexually harassed outside the university?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

11. In your opinion, what conditions contribute to the incidence of sexual harassment among Egerton University undergraduates? **(You may tick more than one option)**

- ☐ It is a way of communicating one's interest for a relationship
- ☐ Economic vulnerability
- ☐ Poor lighting on university streets
- ☐ Security around the university premises
- ☐ Dressing in a sexually provocative manner
- ☐ Lack of sexual policy in the university
- ☐ Other reason (specify _____)

12. Please indicate your level agreement with each of the following statement concerning sexual harassment by using this scale

Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1

Disagree (D) = 2

Undecided (U) = 3

Agree (A) = 4

Strongly Agree (SA) = 5

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
Sexual harassment is a natural human behavior					
Those who complain about sexual harassment are overreacting					
Sexual harassment can be wiped out in universities					
Sexual harassment can occur to anybody regardless of gender					
Sexual harassment offenders should be seriously punished					
There is nothing wrong with unwanted sexual advances					
Sexual harassment should be taken more seriously in the university					
Sexual harassment can be provoked by dressing provocatively					
Sexual harassment affects women only					
Verbal sexual harassment is as serious as any other form of crime					
Fighting sexual harassment should be a responsibility for all					
Most students overreact on the issue of sexual harassment					
All sexual offenders should receive same punishment					
Sexual harassment is wrong no matter the circumstances					
Sexual harassment is a crime against humanity					
We should respect someone who says no to sexual pressure					
Like beauty, sexual harassment is in the eyes of the beholder					
Drawings of sexual nature on public places is sexual harassment					
Unwarranted exposure to pornographic materials is sexual harassment					

APPENDIX B: TABLE OR SAMPLE SIZES

Table for determining needed size of a randomly chosen sample from a given finite population of N cases such that the sample proportion P will be within plus or minus .05 of the population proportion P with a 95 percent level of confidence.

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	400
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	241	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377

From Kathuri &Pals (1993)

APPENDIX C: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION 1

EGERTON
Tel: Pilot: 254-51-2217620
254-51-2217877
254-51-2217631
Dir.line/Fax: 254-51-2217847
Cell Phone



UNIVERSITY
P.O. Box 536 - 20115
Egerton, Njoro, Kenya
Email: eugradschool@wananchi.com
www.egerton.ac.ke

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR GRADUATE SCHOOL

Ref: EM20/1701/06 Date: April 3, 2009

Mr. James K. Muthama Ndiso,
Department of Psy. Coun. & Edfo.,
Egerton University,
P. O. Box 536,
EGERTON.

Dear Mr. Ndiso,

RE: CORRECTED PROPOSAL

This is to acknowledge receipt of two copies of your corrected proposal, entitled: "**Forms, Consequences and Contributing Factors of Sexual Harassment Among Undergraduate Students in Kenya: A Case Study of Egerton University, Njoro Campus**"

You are now at liberty to commence your fieldwork.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Prof. Robert K. Obura, PhD
DIRECTOR, BOARD OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

c.c. Dr. Micah Chepchieng – Supervisor
Dr. Mrs. Esther Chelule - Supervisor

RKO/cm

APPENDIX I: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION 2

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telegrams: "SCIENCETECH", Nairobi
Telephone: 254-020-241349, 2213102
254-020-310571, 2213123
Fax: 254-020-2213215,318245, 318249
When replying please quote

P. O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA
Website: www.ncst.go.ke

Our Ref: NCST/5/002/R/337/4

Date: 14th May 2009

Mr. Ndiso James K. Muthama
Egerton University
P.O.Box 536
NJORO

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on, ***Forms, Consequences and Contributing Factors of Sexual Harassment among Undergraduate Students in Kenya: A Case Study of Egerton University, Njoro Campus.***

I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out research in Egerton University, Njoro Campus for a period ending 30th May 2010.

You are advised to report to the Vice-Chancellor, Egerton University before embarking on your research.

On completion of your research, you are expected to submit two copies of your research report to this office.

PROF. S. A. ABDULRAZAK Ph.D,MBS
SECRETARY

Copy to:

The Vice-Chancellor
Egerton University
P.O.Box 536
NJORO

EGERTON UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

APPENDIX J: RESEARCH PERMIT

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2)/four(4) bound copies of your final report for Kenyans and non-Kenyans respectively.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

GPK 6055—3m—10/2009

(CONDITIONS—*see* back page)

PAGE 2

THIS IS TO CERRTIFY THAT:

Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss. NDISO JAMES K. MUTHAMA

of (Address). EGERTON UNIVERSITY P.O.BOX 536 NJORO

has been permitted to conduct research in. EGERTON UNIVERSITY **Location,** NAKURU **District,** RIFT VALLEY **Province,**

on the topic. Forms, Consequences and Contributing Factors of Sexual Harassment among Undergraduate Students in Kenya: A Case Study of Egerton University Njoro Campus

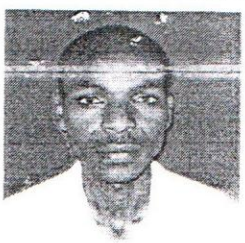
for a period ending 30th May, **20**10

PAGE 3

Research Permit No. NCST/5/002/R/337

Date of issue 14.5.2009

Fee received. SHS.1000.00



Applicant's Signature

Secretary, National Council for Science and Technology