INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIVENESS TO STUDENT SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN

TEACHERS' COLLEGES IN ZIMBABWE

BY

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TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/ Madam

Re: Confirmation of language editing and proof reading of the Doctor of Philosophy in Sociology of Education thesis for Mr Kelvin Henry Usanga (M154026)

This is to certify that I proof read and edited Mr Kelvin Henry Usanga's PhD thesis entitled: INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIVENESS TO STUDENT SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN TEACHERS'COLLEGES IN ZIMBABWE.

Yours Sincerely

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Selah.

DEDICATION

To my mother, Angela Ndadini Ziki Zirabada, who has stoically weathered the vicissitudes of life.

ABSTRACT

Sexual harassment persists in higher education with deleterious consequences for both individuals and institutions. The persistence of the vice foregrounds, in the context of scant literature, the need for increased research focus on understanding and strengthening institutional prevention and response efforts. Accordingly, this study, guided by a socio-ecological driven four-factor theory of sexual harassment, sought to meet this research need. The study utilised a qualitatively driven sequential explanatory mixed methods design to estimate the prevalence of sexual harassment, assess institutional tolerance for sexual harassment, examine institutional responsive strategies to sexual harassment in the teachers' colleges studied, and explore students and lecturers' perceptions on the effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies. A cross-sectional survey and a multisite case study were conducted in the respective quantitative and qualitative strands of the study. Survey data were collected using a self-report questionnaire from a total random sample of 598 comprising 88 lecturers and 510 students. Confidence intervals were constructed and chi-square tests were performed on the quantitative data. The case study qualitative data were collected through face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, and qualitative document analysis. Qualitative analysis involved data coding, constant comparison, content analysis, and thematic analysis. At an estimated prevalence rate of at least 40%, largely perpetrated by male lecturers on female students, sexual harassment was found to be ubiquitous across the 5 colleges studied with prevalence rates higher in some colleges than in others. Campus climate was found to be sexual harassment tolerant despite anti-sexual harassment rhetoric and implementation of institutional responsive strategies. Additionally, the study established widespread scepticism about the effectiveness and authenticity of institutional prevention and responsive strategies to sexual harassment. The study recommends that teachers' colleges appoint non-academic staff to case management structures and support services, and prioritize the development, adoption, and robust implementation of comprehensive zero-tolerance policies on sexual harassment.

Key words: *sexual harassment, cross-sectional survey, multisite case study, sequential explanatory mixed methods design, campus climate, four-factor theory of sexual harassment*

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AU	African Union
C1	College 1
C2	College 2
C3	College 3
C4	College 4
C5	College 5
FFI	Face-To-Face Interview
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FHLS	Family Health and Life Skills
GH	Gender Harassment
IHLs	Institutions of Higher Learning
MMR	Mixed Methods Research
OTSHI	Organisational Tolerance for Sexual Harassment
QDA	Qualitative Document Analysis
RO	Research Objective
RQ	Research Question
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SAYWHAT	Students And Youth Working on Reproductive Health Action Team
SC	Sexual Coercion
SED	Sequential Explanatory Design
SEQ	Sexual Experiences Questionnaire
SH	Sexual Harassment
SSH	Student Sexual Harassment
TC	Teachers' College
USA	Unwanted Sexual Attention

<center>**CHAPTER I**</center>

<center>**INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**</center>

1. 0. Introduction

The study sought to examine institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment (SSH) in teachers' colleges (TCs) in Zimbabwe. This involved establishing the prevalence rate of sexual harassment (SH) in the TCs, perceptions of institutional tolerance for and examining institutional prevention and response strategies in combating SH. The study examined zero-tolerance policies and strategies which exist and are implemented in TCs, and how they are communicated to institutional stakeholders who include the student body, lecturing staff, and college administrators. Additionally, the study sought to assess students and lecturers' perceptions on the effectiveness of institutional zero-tolerance policies, strategies, and practices as experienced in TCs in Zimbabwe. The chapter discusses the background to the problem, the statement of the problem, the significance of the study, and the delimitations of the study. Furthermore, the chapter also considers the limitations of the study and the definitions of key terms.

1. 1. Background to the study

In 1994, Zindi established, in a seminal study, rampant student sexual harassment (SSH) in TCs in Zimbabwe. Subsequent studies (Chireshe & Chireshe, 2009; Dhlomo et al., 2012) and media reports (Butaumocho, 2017; Gonye, 2021; Magenya, 2012; Nyakanyanga, 2017; Takaza, 2020) have corroborated Zindi's findings. No study, however, has sought to examine institutional responsiveness to SSH in Zimbabwean IHLs to date or to link SH prevalence to institutional climate. This study, therefore, is hinged on the postulate that very little is known about institutional responsiveness to SSH and about institutional climate for SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. This is so because, firstly, victims of SH rarely file complaint reports which makes it difficult to gauge the magnitude of the problem (Dhlomo et al., 2012; Shumba & Matina, 2002). The

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non-reporting of SSH, therefore, means there is no documentation of the problem and this absence of problem documentation creates the illusion that TCs are free of SSH. As such, TCs, as document driven institutions, do not perceive themselves as obliged to respond to a non-existent problem.

Secondly, with a battered and bruised status, the teaching profession in Zimbabwe has, in recent years, become unappealing to highly qualified post-secondary students. Poor working conditions that include poor remuneration for teachers and the dim prospects of employment after graduation have resulted in more able students avoiding TCs like the plague. In response, TCs are increasingly lowering their entry requirements to stay afloat. Consequently, mediocre students and others not so mediocre now increasingly find their way into TCs. Upon enrolment in TCs, these students' academic challenges do not diminish but persist. Such students are at heightened risk of sexual victimisation for they are dependent on their lecturers for the 'successful' completion of their studies (Kur, 2012). Power differentials between students and lecturers that manifest in the former's dependency on the latter increase the "possibility for institutionally-enabled manipulation of students by those upon whom they are intellectually dependent" (Whitley & Page, 2015, p. 39). Student vulnerability and victimisation is, therefore, accentuated in highly structured institutional environments characterised by power differentials between lecturers and students (Aguilar & Baek, 2020; Bloom et al., 2021; Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Crittenden et al., 2018; Dhlomo et al., 2012; Eller, 2014; Joseph, 2015; Stabile, 2018; Whitley & Page, 2015). TCs are an example of such highly structured institutions in which power asymmetries exist between a student body that is predominantly female and a faculty that is largely male (Bakari & Leach, 2009; Dhlomo et al., 2012; Shumba & Matina, 2002).

A college population of predominantly female students and male lecturers in constant interaction with each other "provides opportunities for behavioral deviance to occur thus resulting into sexual harassment" (Namaganda et al., 2021, p. 6). This is especially so in a heterosexual, patriarchal, and sexist culture. In such a culture, and consistent with the sex-role

spill over theory, female students are perceived as sex objects first and as students second (Kabat-Farr & Cortina, 2013; Lopez et al., 2009; O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998). Accordingly, when they enter college, predatory and lecherous lecturers perceive them as prey for sexual victimisation. The circumstances of female students who constitute about 74%[1] of students enrolled in Zimbabwean IHLs (Mashininga, 2020) worsen when such students are not academically gifted. This, of course, should not be interpreted to mean that only students who are academically less gifted or who are female are sexually victimised. Every student, irrespective of ability and gender, is prone to victimisation but being female (Aguilar & Baek, 2020; Bovill et al., 2019; European Parliament, 2019; Lorenz et al., 2019) and academically less gifted, among other factors, aggravates vulnerability to sexual victimisation (Kur, 2012).

Despite media and research reports alleging rampant quid pro quo SSH, little is known about both the magnitude of and virtually nothing about institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. It is this gap in the literature that this study sought to plug.

The absence of national laws and policies that proscribe SH is evidence that SH is not regarded seriously in Zimbabwe (Matsikidze, 2017; Students And Youth Working on Reproductive Health Action Team (SAYWHAT), 2013). Accordingly, students who experience SH in institutions of higher learning (IHLs) take it in their stride as part of college life and perpetrators think they are entitled to sexually harass students (Bakari & Leach, 2009). This sense of entitlement to sexually harass students is reflected in sexist statements such as *'mbudzi inodya payakasungirirwa'* (the he-goat nibbles on the grass within the radius of its tether). The import of this statement is that lecturers have no option but to quench their sexual appetites on students around them. Statements such as these betray a sexist culture that not only increases the likelihood of perpetration but also condones, legitimates, normalises, trivializes, and dismisses SH (Avendaño, 2018; Bragason, 2016; Harris et al., 2018; Phipps, 2020; Sojo et al., 2016).

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[1]2020 enrolment statistics obtained from the five TCs sampled for this study indicate that 79% and 21% of the student population in the five colleges are females and males respectively. *See* Table 4.2

Quid pro quo SH, therefore, occurs when lecturers pursue sexual gratification from students through sexual bribery and coercion or through consensual sexual relationships. However, Crittenden et al. (2018) observe that, given power differentials between faculty and students, the distinction between consensual sexual relationships and SH is weak. Accordingly, Goldner (2018, p. 238) observes that "the pleasure of sexual harassment is that "consent" is coerced, that is, it is "consent" under duress". While there seems to be a preoccupation with quid pro quo SH in TCs in Zimbabwe, it is important to note that SH encompasses much more than quid pro quo harassment. Quid pro quo SH often co-occurs with other forms of SH that include gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention. These other forms of SH deserve as much research and media attention as quid pro quo SH because they are often precursors to sexual coercion.

While there is scant attention on SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe, there is focused attention on this problem elsewhere in the world. This is especially so in the developed world where there is a rich research tradition on SSH in IHLs. A watershed development in the history of SH is the #MeToo campaign that started in October of 2017 in the United States of America. #MeToo has not only demonstrated the ubiquity of SH but has also resulted in calls for increased and more focused attention on SH across sectors and across the globe (Aggarwal & Brenner, 2020; Brown, 2019; Eckert & Steiner, 2018; Fernando & Prasad, 2018; Johansson et al., 2018; Krook, 2018). For example, Sweden, in the aftermath of the #MeToo movement, directed IHLs to "highlight and make visible their preventive work to counteract sexual harassment" (Swedish Research Council, 2018, p. 10). Similarly, Stockdale et al. (2020) observed that #MeToo shattered the silence that provided a protective membrane around SH and accentuated the need for action to address the scourge. While made in Sweden and the United States of America, the call to institute, highlight and make visible preventive efforts is relevant to other countries too since SH is a global problem. Accordingly, this study took up this challenge in that it sought to make visible and to evaluate the efficacy of institutional responsive strategies to SSH in TCs in

Zimbabwe. This task was particularly important because, to the knowledge of the researcher, there is virtually nothing known about institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. The knock-on effect of #MeToo is that it reminded institutional stakeholders in education and other sectors of their obligation to combat SH through prevention strategies and practices (Eckert & Steiner, 2018; Nimri et al., 2020). Accordingly, existing strategies for containing the problem have come under increased scrutiny with a view to update and revise these so that institutions respond more effectively to SH. While existing strategies for containing SH in IHLs are known in most developed countries and a few African countries, the strategies that exist in TCs in Zimbabwe are not known. Whether prevention strategies exist or not in TCs in Zimbabwe is a matter of speculation and this study sought to shed light on the existence or non-existence of institutional responsive strategies to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. This task is a pertinent follow-up to previous studies that have recommended that TCs in Zimbabwe institute preventive measures, punitive sanctions for perpetrators, and protection for victims (Mapuranga et al., 2015, Shumba & Matina, 2002).

It has also become pertinent, given the persistence of SH, to understand institutional responsiveness to SH to inform evidence-based institutional preventive and response practices. Understanding institutional responsiveness has become an important task given that SH is a prohibited sex-based discriminatory practice that violates fundamental human rights and freedoms as enshrined in the 1948 United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, international and regional conventions, national constitutional provisions, and institutional policies. Nevertheless, not all constitutions have provisions that clearly address SH in the same way. Similarly, not all IHLs have policies and strategies that specifically address SH. Efforts to forbid, prevent and remedy SH take different forms and shapes in national constitutions and institutional practices (Lee & Wong, 2019). For instance, in the Czech Republic, anti-discrimination laws address SH (Vohlídalová, 2015) while Title IX specifically addresses SH in the United States of America (Koss et al., 2015; Marshall et al., 2014; Zapp et al., 2021). The

same obtains in IHLs. Kayuni (2009), for example, bemoans the absence of a legal definition of SH in higher learning in Malawi. This absence is paradoxical given that Malawi's Constitution and the Employment Act prohibit sex discrimination. While the Malawian constitutional landscape is like that of Zimbabwe, some IHLs in Zimbabwe have taken it upon themselves to institute zero-tolerance policies and strategies. For example, the Women's University in Africa has a comprehensive zero-tolerance policy (Women's University in Africa, 2010).

SH seriously impedes women's enjoyment of rights and freedoms on a basis of equality with men (UN, 1979). Okeke (2011) contends that SH is ubiquitous in education across the globe despite specific institutional responsive strategies such as policies, grievance procedures and other practices in place to address it in IHLs campuses in many developed countries. Through "patriarchal normalisation and dismissal of sexual harassment and violence" (Phipps, 2020, p. 232), IHLs remain fertile grounds for SH perpetration despite recognition of the deleterious effects of SH and increased efforts to contain it (McCartan & Brown, 2019). Consequently, SH is considered a pervasive educational hazard that pollutes college campuses and turns them into toxic environments in which the safety and welfare of students is under constant threat (Hill & Silva, 2005; Huertaet al., 2006; Joneset al., 2013). IHLs are, therefore, reneging on their moral and, sometimes, legal obligation to create and provide conducive study environments for their diverse student populations (Bennett et al., 2007; University Grants Commission, 2013). More importantly, SH violates the ideals "of equality, dignity and the ability to live, work and study without fear of harassment" (University Grants Commission, 2013, p. 1) that are at the core of IHLs.

Research has established that SH triggers harmful effects in IHLs (Bursik & Gefter, 2011). For example, targets or victims of SH in IHLs respond to harassment by, among other behaviours, avoiding the harasser, absenting themselves from lectures, changing tutors, supervisors or academic discipline that have been shown to result in distress, poor study results and sometimes

in dropping out of college altogether (Radde, 2018; Taiwo et al., 2014; Vohlídalová, 2015). In fact, Molly (2011) argues that SH, as both a physical and psychological attack, can potentially ruin the academic performance of targets or victims, compromise their completion rates, and leave scars that may persist well into life after college.

The need to prohibit, prevent, and redress SH is, therefore, pressing if equality of access and opportunities, in education, between the sexes remains a valued pursuit. Consequently, the media and the political sphere keep exerting pressure on IHLs to adopt preventive and responsive strategies to sexual violence on college campuses (Clay et al., 2019). Thus, it is important to critically examine SH to appreciate its complexity in order to respond to it effectively (Merkin & Shah, 2014). As Jiang et al. (2015) note, the harmful consequences of SH and its persistence in organisations make it imperative to understand institutional practices for preventing, prohibiting, and redressing it. This study is one such effort to understand institutional zero-tolerance policies and practices in TCs in Zimbabwe with a view to contributing towards the creation of safe and healthy campus environments.

To understand and appreciate institutional zero-tolerance policies and strategies, it is important to understand the international, regional, and constitutional frameworks that provide context to institutional policies and practices. International and regional conventions impose obligations and provide legislative direction on signatory countries to prevent, protect against, investigate, punish, and provide redress for SH against women (Thaweesit & Boonmongkon, 2009). A key obligation is the requirement that countries and institutions develop effective systems that address the causes and consequences of SH of women and ensure that women who experience SH have access to effective remedies. International conventions that seek to address SH include the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).

On the African continent, regional conventions include The African Charter on Human and People's Rights (ACHPR) which upholds and guarantees continental citizens' rights to

education and exhorts nation states to go beyond just recognizing the provisions of the charter but to realize the provisions of the charter within their jurisdictions by enacting laws and policies that translate the charter into lived realities for the people of Africa (AU, 2003). This call recognizes the importance of turning rhetoric into action. The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo protocol) imposes an obligation on state parties to protect women from all forms of abuse, including SH in schools and other educational institutions and provides for sanctions against the perpetrators of such practices (AU, 2003). In addition, the Maputo protocol encourages state parties to adopt and implement appropriate measures to protect women from sexual violence - which includes SH - and to provide appropriate remedies for victims of abuse (AU, 2003). These conventions and protocols attest to international and regional efforts to address SH as a practice that violates fundamental human rights as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Institutions are in a better position to institute policies and practices in prohibiting, preventing, and remedying SH when there are constitutional provisions and statutory bodies that obligate them to do so (Thomas-Card & Eichele, 2016). For example, in the United States of America, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, prohibits sex-based discrimination in IHLs receiving federal funding (Koss et al., 2015; Marshall et al., 2014; Zapp et al., 2021). Title IX, however, does not provide guidance on implementation and enforcement of SH policies (Marshall et al., 2014). The United States of America Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights, a statutory body, is mandated with overseeing the implementation and enforcement of the various anti-SH constitutional provisions in education. In 2011, the Department issued a Dear Colleague Letter (DLC) in which it reminded educational institutions of their responsibility in addressing SH as directed by the provisions of Title IX (Koss et al., 2015). The DLC describes how institutions should respond once a report of SH is received. Koss et al. note that there is a scramble by institutions to align their practices with the DLC requirements in fear of losing federal financial support. While it is important to have

constitutional directives that compel IHLs to adopt zero-tolerance policies and prevention practices, such external pressures may lead to the development of a culture of compliance in which institutions preoccupy themselves with compliance at the expense of prevention work (Marine & Nicolazzo, 2017).

In the European Union, the European parliament and the European commission have issued a series of directives that criminalize discriminatory practices including SH. For example, Directive 2002/73/EC sought to streamline anti-discrimination laws across the EU and to promote the equal treatment of men and women. In so doing, the directive specified and prohibited SH as discriminatory practice in employment and other sectors such as education (European Commission [EC], 2012; European Parliament and the European Council, 2002). Further to this, Commission Recommendation 92/131/EEC on the protection of the dignity of women and men at work (1992) offers a code of practice on measures to combat SH in the workplace. The code of practice emphasises the use and importance of policies, enforcement procedures, and training for employees in responding to SH (Gomes et al., 2004). Additionally, Article 8*a* of Directive 2002/73/EC compels member states to set up institutions "for the promotion, analysis, monitoring and support of equal treatment of all persons without discrimination on the grounds of sex" (European Parliament and Council, 2002, p. 5). The Equal Opportunity Commission (EOC) of 1975 is an example of such a body. Despite its proscription, however, SH remains pervasive across sectors in the European union (EC, 2012). This puzzling persistence of SH is indicative of a complex social problem that continues to defy any treatment developed against it.

Decades of research suggest that SH remains a concern in IHLs despite zero-tolerance policies and practices in some institutions. For example, Hill and Silva (2005) established, from research in America, that nearly two-thirds of college students experience some type of SH. Evidence from their research seems to suggest that on a campus of 10,000 undergraduate students, about 6,000 students will be harassed. However, less than 10 percent of these harassed students tell a

college or university employee about their experiences and an even smaller fraction officially reports to a Title IX officer (U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 1997; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009). They further allege, despite the existence of anti-SH laws and policies, the existence of a hostile and chilly climate for female students particularly in those disciplines that are traditionally male dominated. However, they do not set out to establish why promulgated policies and procedures have not achieved the desired effect of significantly reducing or eliminating SH. The puzzling persistence of SH could be a signal that existing policies and mechanisms for addressing SH are, to some extent, inadequate and ineffective or that their implementation is flawed in some respects (Mohamed et al., 2014; Robotham & Cortina, 2019). For instance, Slagter and Forbes (2009) allege that organisations do not expend enough resources to address harassment and discrimination because harassment and discrimination are not perceived as organisational but individual problems.

In the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), the declaration and the provisions of the 2008 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development guide the development of anti-SH laws and policies. The protocol gives a comprehensive definition of SH as:

Any unwelcome sexual advance, request for sexual favour, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of a sexual nature, or any other behaviour of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offence or humiliation to another whether or not such sexual advance or request arises out of unequal power relations. (p. 9)

Countries that are signatory to the protocol pledged to adopt and implement gender sensitive educational policies and programmes that address gender stereotypes in education and gender-based violence (SADC, 2008). The SADC protocol on gender and development enjoined member states to "enact legislative provisions, and adopt and implement policies, strategies and programmes which define and prohibit sexual harassment in all spheres, and provide deterrent sanctions for perpetrators of sexual harassment" (SADC, 2016, p. xvi).

Commitment to the provisions of the protocol has differed from country to country in the SADC region. In the *Foreword* of the *Gender and Development Monitor 2016* report, the SADC Executive Secretary, Dr. Stergomena Lawrence Tax, bemoans the lack of effective implementation of the 2008/Maputo protocol in the wake of observations that "the great potential of our men and women is still to be released through the effective implementation of the Protocol" (SADC, 2016, p. iii). In South Africa, for instance, Act No. 17 Protection from Harassment Act, 201I (Republic of South Africa, 2011) explicitly defines SH and protects students from SH by educators. Consequently, Joubert et al. (2011) claim that most IHLs in South Africa have SH policies in place. Despite this and other provisions in South Africa, the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) notes that sexual violence (including SH) is prevalent in South African schools (The Centre for Applied Legal Studies & Cornell Law School' Avon Global Centre for Women and Justice and International Human Rights Clinic, 2014). The legal framework in neighbouring Zimbabwe is, however, glaringly different. There are concerns about the constitution being inadequate in defining and proscribing SH even though there is a constitutional commitment to gender equality and non-discrimination on the grounds of sex and gender, and concerns about deficiencies in the enforcement of an already inadequate constitution (Monando, 2017; Matsikidze, 2017; SAYWHAT, 2013). SH is mentioned as an unfair labour practice in the Labour Act (28:01) and as an act of misconduct in the public service regulations, SI 1 of 2000 (Matsikidze, 2017). However, SAYWHAT (2013) reports that despite the absence of constitutional provisions, some IHLs have developed own policies and procedures aimed at addressing SH. For example, the Women's University in Africa (WUA) preamble to the University's SH policy reads:

WUA affirms that sexual harassment is a violation of the fundamental rights, dignity and integrity of a person and that it undermines the advancement of learning, dissemination of knowledge, research and productive work and thus is committed to ensure the

establishment of institutional mechanisms for the prevention of sexual harassment within the university community (p. 2)

In an environment where institutional policies and practices are discretionary, the pertinence of highlighting and making visible institutional responsive strategies in prohibiting, preventing, and redressing SSH is apparent. The importance of this study, therefore, ought not be underestimated.

Mohamed et al. (2014) are of the conviction that schools and universities can eliminate SH if they have clear and effective policies in place for the purpose of its prevention. Institutional policies and practises against SH, as has been shown earlier, are best informed and driven by constitutional provisions and guidelines that mandate and compel institutions to adopt preventive, prohibitive and redressal mechanisms of dealing with SH. For instance, institutional policies and practices of federally funded institutions in the United States of America are obligatory of constitutional provisions such as Title IX of the 1972 Educational Amendments Act. In many countries of the world, constitutional provisions mandating and compelling academic institutions to adopt and implement policies and practices against SH are absent and this absence creates a situation where institutions have no constitutional obligation to institute policies and adopt anti-SH practises. In such instances, the adoption and implementation of anti-SH policies and practises remains an institutional discretionary practice and accounts for variability in institutional responsive strategies (Lee & Wong, 2019). For example, some schools and universities in Malaysia have adopted policies and procedures against SH even though there are no legal requirements for schools and universities in Malaysia to have a specific in-house policy and procedure in dealing with cases of SH (Mohamed et al., 2014). A case in point is the University Malaya (UM) which, in 2008, issued a hand book titled 'Code of Practice on the Prevention and Handling of SH Cases in the University' and created an SH Complaint Bureau with powers to investigate, take appropriate measures against the harasser, and provide help to victims in handling SH incidents (Mohamed et al., 2014). Without

constitutional provisions guiding IHLs on the adoption of zero-tolerance policies and practices, it becomes difficult to understand what institutions are doing to combat SH and to hold them accountable. In such environments, constant scrutiny of institutions and their practices becomes a civic duty. This study is thus a demonstration of civic responsibility.

In the absence of or where policies, grievance procedures are compromised, a tolerant organisational climate exists in which SH complaints are not taken seriously, filing a complaint increases the risk of revictimisation and retaliation, and that appropriate punishments will not be meted out on perpetrators (Broad et al., 2018; Sojo et al., 2016). For example, Herovic et al. (2019) note that the absence of policies and grievance procedures breeds uncertainty in targets of SH on how to report when they are sexually harassed. Such uncertainty discourages reporting. Furthermore, policies and grievance procedures perceived as "inaccessible, burdensome and unlikely to change the situation" (Broad et al., 2018, p. 420) result in target or victim reluctance to file a formal complaint. Such a climate makes stakeholders think that an organisation is tolerant to SH. To lend weight to this, Willness et al. (2007) concluded, from a meta-review, that organisational climate had the strongest relationship with SH of all the antecedents they tested. Since research conclusions indicate that organisational climate has a strong relationship with SH, it is significant to understand those institutional factors that facilitate SH perpetration. It is also equally important to understand institutional policies and strategies for prohibiting, preventing, and remedying SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. This task is particularly important given that Zimbabwe does not have constitutional provisions that mandate TCs to adopt and implement zero-tolerance policies and strategies.

1. 2. Statement of the problem

SSH is an endemic and detrimental educational problem in institutions of higher learning (IHLs) (Bloom et al., 2021; Dykstra-DeVette & Tarin, 2019; Ending Sexual Harassment and Violence in Third Level Education [ESHTE], 2019; Joseph, 2015; Marks & An, 2019; McCartan & Brown, 2019; Phipps, 2020; Sabri et al., 2019; University Grants Commission,

2013; Sivertsen et al., 2019) that continues to defy "attempts at prevention through policy and training initiatives" (Suresh et al., 2014, p. 29). Accordingly, Hippensteele and Pearson (1999, p. 48) observe that "it is yesterday's news that sexual harassment is a serious concern in academia". Documenting the persistence of SH is no longer useful except as a regurgitation of what is already in the public domain. Research, therefore, they argue, should now focus "on prevention training and institutional responsiveness" (p. 50).

SH reportedly has detrimental effects on both individuals and institutions (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Bureau de coopération interuniversitaire, 2017; Harris et al., 2018; Holland et al., 2020; Lorenz et al., 2019) that threaten "the health and safety of campus community members and impede the missions of post-secondary institutions" (Allan et al., 2019, p. 32). Accordingly, IHLs need to take "swift and decisive action" (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017, p. 168) in addressing SH. The realization of IHLs' moral and, at times, legal obligation to ensure healthy learning spaces rests on their ability to prohibit, prevent, and redress SH (Clay et al., 2019; Long & Hubble, 2018; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018; Tredinnick, 2020; Wurtele et al., 2019). Extant literature suggests that clear and effective institutional zero-tolerance policies can contribute significantly to the elimination or diminishment of SH in IHLs (Mohamed et al., 2014). However, evidence from across the globe indicates that SH remains pervasive and persistent despite constitutionally driven policies and strategies in IHLs (Marshall et al., 2014; Ollo-López & Nuñez, 2018; Rubino et al., 2018).

Compared to many other jurisdictions, circumstances in Zimbabwe are rather different. For instance, while Zimbabwe is a signatory to international and regional conventions that obligate her to legislate against SH, her constitution, it is observed, still lacks specific laws that proscribe SH in other fields outside the labour market (US Embassy in Zimbabwe, 2020). Despite this handicap, Matsikidze (2017) notes that some constitutional provisions can be interpreted as providing protection against SH. However, there are no constitutional provisions that compel

IHLs to adopt SH prevention policies or strategies. Accordingly, adopting policies, grievance handling procedures, and providing support services remains a discretionary practice for IHLs in Zimbabwe. A constitutional environment that does not compel IHLs to adopt zero-tolerance SH policies and practices and does not hold IHLs accountable is likely to result in IHLs that do not have zero-tolerance policies and practices or IHLs that adopt policies and practices for window dressing purposes. In the absence of or where policies, grievances procedures are compromised, SH tolerant organisational climates flourish (Sojo et al., 2016).

Despite research documentation of SH prevalence (Chireshe & Chireshe, 2009; Dhlomo et al., 2012), IHLs' zero-tolerance policies and strategies remain largely obscure and unknown in Zimbabwe. Thus, Mapuranga et al. (2015, p. 25) recommend "the urgent need for university policies on sexual harassment, stiff preventive laws on offenders and clear protection of victims of sexual harassment" in Zimbabwean IHLs. Similar calls were made by the UN Resident Coordinator at a dialogue meeting held at the University of Zimbabwe (Tapfumaneyi, 2019) and the Zimbabwe Gender Commission Chief Executive **(**Tonde, 2020**).** Understanding what IHLs are doing or not doing is fundamental to understanding institutional responsiveness to SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. This task is urgent given media claims of rampant quid pro quo harassment in Zimbabwean TCs (Mapuranga et al., 2015) and the deleterious effects of SH on victims. Responding effectively to SSH is, therefore, a pressing task if IHLs are to ensure the safety and protection of students.

1. 3. Research objectives

The overarching research objective (RO) of this study was to:

> Examine institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment (SSH) in Zimbabwean TCs.

In pursuit of examining institutional responsiveness to SSH in Zimbabwe TCs, the quantitative phase of the study sought to:

RO1: Measure the prevalence of SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe through:

a. Estimating the proportion of respondents who have ever witnessed, heard about, or experienced some form of SH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

b. Establishing if the prevalence of SH is associated with gender in TCs in Zimbabwe.

c. Finding out if the prevalence of SH is associated with respondent status in TCs in Zimbabwe.

d. Determining if the prevalence of SH is associated with college in TCs in Zimbabwe.

RO2: Measure institutional tolerance for SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe through:

a. Estimating the proportion of respondents who perceive institutional climate in TCs in Zimbabwe as tolerant to SSH.

b. Finding out if perception of institutional tolerance in TCs in Zimbabwe is associated with gender.

c. Establishing if perception of institutional tolerance is associated with respondent status in TCs in Zimbabwe.

d. Determining if perception of institutional tolerance is associated with college in TCs in Zimbabwe.

In pursuit of examining institutional responsiveness to SSH in Zimbabwe TCs, the qualitative phase of the study sought to:

RO3: Examine TCs policy and strategic responsiveness to SH in Zimbabwe.

RO4: Explore the efficacy of institutional responsive strategies in addressing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

1.4. Research questions

The following research questions (RQs) guided the quantitative phase of the study:

RQ1: What is the prevalence of SH in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe?

i. What is the proportion of respondents who have ever witnessed, heard about, or experienced some form of SH?

ii. What is the association between gender and perception of SH prevalence?

iii.   What is the association between respondent status and perception of SH prevalence?

iv.   What is the association between college and prevalence of SH?

RQ2: What is the lecturer and students' perception of institutional tolerance for SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe?

i.   What is the proportion of respondents who perceive the climate in TCs as tolerant to SSH?

ii.   Is there an association between perception of institutional tolerance and gender?

iii.   Is there an association between perception of institutional tolerance and respondent status?

iv.   Is there an association between college and perception of institutional tolerance for SSH?

The qualitative strand of the study was guided by the following RQs

RQ3: How are teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe preventing and responding to SSH?

RQ4: How do students and lecturers perceive institutional mechanisms for addressing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe?

1.5. Significance of the study

This study makes significant contributions to both theory and practice. This section thus discusses study contributions to institutional responsiveness to SSH in IHLs and illuminates the responsive strategies currently deployed by IHLs and their effectiveness in addressing lecturer perpetrated SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

1.5.1. Theoretical significance of the study

Sojo et al. (2016) note that comprehensively addressing institutional tolerance for SH in a meta-analysis requires further study of the phenomenon. This suggests the need for more research on organisational tolerance for SH. This study is, therefore, a response to calls for further research in this area. In responding to this call, the study contributes to theory building in SH research. Buchanan et al. (2014) also acknowledge that research on ending SH has largely focused on

either the responsibility of targeted individual victims to confront and report their harassers or on characteristics of male perpetrators while research on the role of organisations in responding to SH through training and policy implementation is still small. Salin (2009) makes similar observations and bemoans what appears to be the deliberate ignoring of and the consequent thinness in research on organisational responsiveness to SH. Additionally, Moore & Mennicke (2020, p. 1) claim that "the connection between the university climate and perpetration of sexual harassment on college campuses has not been explored". These claims make it imperative to augment literature on institutional responsiveness to SSH. This is particularly so for research that evaluates current SH prevention strategies is almost non-existent (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Perkins & Warner, 2017; Zapp et al., 2021) while literature on contextual factors that explain prevalence is also scant (Moylan & Javorka, 2020). Thus, this study provides the necessary and required knowledge expansion on institutional responsiveness to SSH and the connection between climate and SH perpetration in IHLs. The study is, therefore, an important block in knowledge construction on institutional responsiveness to SSH in IHLs by studying institutional responsive strategies in TCs in Zimbabwe. In making this important contribution, the study responds to exhortations to enhance the identification and understanding of SH prevention and intervention strategies (Adinew & Hagos, 2017; Fitzgerald, 2017).

In addition, SH research in IHLs in Zimbabwe has largely focused on the prevalence and persistence of the phenomenon (Chireshe et al., 2009; Dhlomo et al., 2012) and no known empirical study from Zimbabwe has attempted to understand the established prevalence in the context of institutional practices. Therefore, exploring institutional anti-SH-policies and strategies is critical for no peer reviewed studies known to the researcher exist on these aspects of SH in IHLs in Zimbabwe. This study, therefore, sought to fill this void in knowledge on institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

1.5.2. Practical significance of the study

The study is also of practical significance for meta-inferences from this study may significantly

contribute to the promotion of safe and healthy campus climates by unearthing institutional responsive strategies and practices that work best in reducing or eliminating SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe (see 8.4.2). In doing this, the study directly responds to a call by Moore and Mennicke (2019, p. 10) that studies "explore the efficacy of currently used and alternative victim support services to promote resources that have been empirically tested and validated" in IHLs.

More importantly, this study may empower campus administrators to adopt strategies that are likely to result in the establishment of safe and healthy campus climates that promote the well-being and health of all stakeholders regardless of gender differences. Empowering campus administrators is critical given that the greater challenge that institutions face is of the "inadequacy and ineffective measures to curb prevalence of sexual harassment" (Mohamed et al., 2014, p. 484) because they "are unclear about how to deal with issues of sexual harassment" (University Grants Commission, 2013, p. 2). The significance of this study lies in its potential to provide the clarity required for institutions to put in place adequate and effective measures to prohibit, prevent and redress SH. The study thus advances social justice and seeks to inspire social change within TCs in Zimbabwe (McCauley et al., 2019). Concerns with social justice and social change are consistent with the transformative agenda of qualitatively driven research and research anchored on paradigmatic pragmatism.

This study into institutional responsiveness to SSH is also of practical significance given that SH is a taboo topic in IHLs on the African continent and elsewhere (Okeke, 2011; Serisier, 2017). This silence is conspicuous by the dearth of robust research from Africa on SH in IHLs. It is, therefore, of research and social significance to demystify SH and move it from the obscure periphery to the centre of discourse in IHLs. This research, therefore, presents one such opportunity, as Johansson et al. (2018, p. 419) put it, to "break the culture of silence" on SH in IHLs in Zimbabwe. This is of importance given that silence perpetuates SH by both inhibiting reporting and providing a protective sheath of silence around perpetrators (DeLaet & Mills,

2018; Ford & Ivancic, 2020). Accordingly, putting SH on the discursive agenda is important for "when the silence is broken, the presence of violence against women in the university is revealed" (Duque et al., 2013, p. 281). This study, therefore, seeks to break the cocoon of silence that shields perpetrators and inhibits targets/victims from reporting incidences of SH. In making SH a subject of public discussion, universities and colleges may be spurred to treat SH with the seriousness it deserves and other researchers may be motivated to research on SH in IHLs.

1.6. Limitations

The major limitations associated with this study include challenges associated with the transferability of research findings from this multiple site mixed-methods study to other sites. This is particularly so given that SH is a context and experiential bound phenomenon. Accordingly, that which obtains in the institutions studied here may not necessarily reflect what is obtaining in other IHLs in Zimbabwe. Additionally, the sensitive nature of the phenomenon under study may attract low uptake by study participants. Zindi (1994) reported similar challenges in his research on SH at one Teachers' College in Zimbabwe. The response rate is generally not encouraging in research on SH. This challenge was greatly minimised through inviting, for the quantitative baseline survey, more respondents than dictated by the sample size. Therefore, the researcher initially power calculated the sample size at 3% margin of error and 95% confidence level. This produced a sample size of 754. The sample for the study was finally calculated at 3.5% margin of error and 95% confidence level to give a sample size of 590. This allowed the researcher to work with a healthy allowance of 164 extra survey respondents than were ultimately required. The net effect of this was that the researcher had more respondents (+/-30) than required from each case site. Additionally, questionnaires were self-administered and completed in the presence of the researcher. Resultantly, the return rate was almost always 100%. However, while self-administering questionnaires and waiting to collect them after completion almost always ensured a 100% return rate, it did not guarantee that respondents completed all the questionnaire items. Some questionnaires were returned virtually blank or so

incomplete that they could not be used for research purposes. These were eventually discarded. After the culling process, the researcher still achieved a 100% response rate.

A more serious limitation was time. The outbreak of covid-19 delayed data collection by over 6 months as colleges closed indefinitely in March of 2020 as a measure to contain the spread of Covid-19. In these months, data collection was stalled. When colleges reopened in October of 2020, the researcher administered the survey instrument and could not do much more within the October 05 to December 18 2020 term as the initiation of the qualitative phase was dependent on the completion of data analysis of the quantitative phase. The analysis of quantitative data was only completed well after the 18th of December 2020. Accordingly, qualitative data collection could only be done when colleges reopened in January. The January term was an unprecedented short term (4th of January to the 26th of February 2021) that was designed to allow final year students to sit for their terminal examinations. Only final year students returned to colleges for this term to sit for their end of programme examinations. This left the researcher with very limited time in which to collect qualitative data. This was especially so given that colleges had indicated that it would be desirable to collect the data before the commencement of examinations. Thus, the data collection procedures were dictated by time constrains and covid-19 regulations, and could not be implemented following the idealized way of collecting qualitative data. For instance, time constrains did not allow the researcher to hold an interview session, transcribe the interview, analyse it, and then return to the field for the next interview. Doing so would have seriously impacted on the number of interviews that could be had. Instead of following the idealized procedures of collecting qualitative data, the researcher innovated. Thus, instead of transcribing and analysing interviews soon after a session, the researcher took breaks between interviews to replay the audio recordings and note down important insights that required further exploration in subsequent interviews. This allowed the researcher to move from one interview to the next with pace that resulted in the conduct of a

substantial number of face-t-face interviews (FFIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs) per case site required for achieving thick description of the phenomenon under study.

Covid-19 also made some information rich participants inaccessible. This was particularly the case with lecturer participants in case site 2. Lecturer availability at college was limited. It was difficult to commit such potential participants to an interview. Some cited covid-19 fears as reason for unavailability. To compensate for this, more FGDs were held with students in case site 2 than in case site 1, and more FFIs with lecturers than FGDs with students were held in case site 1. Ultimately, the desired level of saturation was attained in both case sites.

1.7. Delimitations

This multiple-site mixed methods study was limited to an exploration of institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. The study was conducted in two adjoining provinces in the east and south of Zimbabwe. Three of the colleges are state while two are church run institutions. Additionally, four of the institutions offer diplomas in education (primary) and one offers a diploma in education (secondary). Field work was conducted between September of 2020 and February 2021.

The study focused on institutional policies and strategies designed to prevent, prohibit, and redress SH. A cross-sectional survey of the five TCs in Zimbabwe was carried out to measure SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH. This was followed by a qualitative multi-site study of two TCs. Established prevalence ranking of colleges from the initial cross-sectional survey was the basis for selecting colleges for inclusion in the qualitative phase of the study. Consequently, 2 colleges with the highest prevalence rates were purposively drawn into the qualitative sample. This was consistent with mixed methods dictates that the findings of the initial quantitative study inform sampling for the second qualitative phase of the study (Fetters, Curry & Creswell, 2013).

1.10. Research assumptions

Research assumption 1

SH is prevalent in TCs in Zimbabwe (Chireshe et al., 2009; Dhlomo et al., 2012)

Research assumption 2

SH thrives in campus climates that are tolerant of SH (Willness et al., 2007; Estrada et al., 2011; Gill, 2013)

Research assumption 3

Institutional responsive strategies are either absent or poorly implemented in TCs in Zimbabwe (Mapuranga et al., 2015; SAYWHAT, 2013).

Research assumption 4

Victims/targets of SH do not readily file formal complaints with colleges (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 1997).

1.11. Concept clarification

Institutional responsiveness

Denotes the cultivation of an institutional climate that, among other initiatives, reduces the occurrence of SH through taking SH complaints seriously, responding to SH swiftly, and negatively sanctioning SH (Banyard et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2018).

In this study, institutional responsiveness related to institutional actions in response to and in managing SH.

Sexual harassment

any unwelcome sexual advance, request for sexual favour, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of a sexual nature, or any other behaviour of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offence or humiliation to another whether or not such sexual advance or request arises out of unequal power relations (SADC, 2008, p. 9).

In the context of this study, SH was behaviour of a sexual nature directed at another individual

or group of individuals that the individual or group of individuals found offensive and unwelcome.

1.12. Structure and outline of chapters

The study consists of eight chapters that build on each other into a coherent thesis. The contents and focus of each chapter are briefly highlighted below.

Chapter One: introduction and background to the study

Chapter one details the background to the study, the statement of the problem, research objectives and guiding research questions, significance of the study, delimitations, and limitations.

Chapter Two: Theoretical framework

The chapter discusses the integration of Bronfenbrenner's social ecological framework with O'Hare and O'Donohue's Four-Factor theory to create an ecological driven Four-Factor theory that functions as the theoretical framework used to conceptualise institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

Chapter Three: Review of related literature

The review of related literature chapter reviews extant literature on institutional responsiveness to SH.

Chapter Four: Research methodology

The methodology chapter discusses and justifies methodological choices and decisions. It discusses the philosophical underpinnings of the study's methodology, the MMR research approach, the sequential explanatory design (SED), research population, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection instruments and data collection procedures, reliability and validity of the study, data analysis plan and the ethical considerations.

Chapter Five: Quantitative data presentation, analysis, and discussion

This chapter presents, analyses, and interprets quantitative and qualitative data generated from the initial quantitative phase and the subsequent qualitative phase of the study.

Chapter Six: Qualitative data presentation, analysis, and discussion

The chapter presents, analyses, and interprets qualitative data generated through FFIs, FGDs, and QDA.

Chapter Seven: Discussion of meta and expanded inferences

This chapter integrates the quantitative results and qualitative findings to arrive at meta-inferences on institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. Additionally, the chapter discusses the qualitative findings that expanded on the quantitative results in order to achieve completeness in understanding institutional responsiveness to SSH.

Chapter Eight: Summary, conclusions, and recommendations

The chapter summarises the major findings of the study and draws conclusions based on these findings. In addition, the chapter makes recommendations based on study findings and conclusions.

1.13. Chapter summary

Chapter I of this study highlighted the pertinence of conducting this study. This involved demonstrating in the background and the statement of the problem that SH is a harmful practice that is detrimental to the safety and health of students. Such a demonstration justifies the need to understand what IHLs are doing in terms of policies and practices to eliminate or reduce the incidence of SH on campuses. Additionally, the introductory chapter also discussed the limitations and delimitations of the study. Having introduced and discussed the background to the research problem in this chapter, chapter II presents the socio-ecological driven four-factor theory of SH as the theoretical framework on which this study is anchored.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0. Introduction

The preceding chapter discussed the background to the study, the statement of the problem and the significance of the study. The chapter demonstrated that SH is a pervasive discriminatory practice that has turned college campuses into havens for sexual victimisation. This chapter, therefore, presents the theoretical framework relevant to understanding institutional responsiveness to SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. The study integrated theoretical ideas from SH, sexual violence, and developmental psychology domains in developing an appropriate theoretical framework. The study, therefore, integrates O'Hare and O'Donohue's Four-Factor theory of SH with Bronfenbrenner's social ecological framework to identify and organise SH risk factors and responsive strategies across the social ecology.

2.1. Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework is indispensable to empirical inquiry for it justifies the research undertaking, directs the research process, and illuminates the phenomenon under study (Adom et al., 2018; Imenda, 2014; Ocholla & Le Roux, 2011; Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009; Yamauchi et al., 2017). In precise terms, a theoretical framework "guides and provides coherence to empirical inquiry" (Yamauchi et al., 2017, p. 11). Thus, in the absence of a theoretical framework, a study drifts and misses its intended mark for it lacks the necessary sign posts to guide it (Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009).

A sound and relevant theoretical framework makes it possible to "better define the problem, understand the multiple levels of its etiology, utilize effective interventions to affect behavior change, and further the likelihood of success in a variety of settings" (Clay et al., 2019, p. 686). Given that "most social phenomena are complex and linked to multiple bodies of knowledge that belong to different disciplines" (Jabareen, 2009, p. 50), integrated theoretical frameworks are required to explain and comprehend complex social phenomena (Adom et al., 2018;

Jabareen, 2009; Yamauchi et al., 2017). Accordingly, this study adopted an ecological four-factor theory that integrates Bronfenbrenner's social ecological theory with O'Hare and O'Donohue's Four-Factor theory of SH in explaining institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. This chapter demonstrates the soundness and relevance of the ecological four-factor theory of SH to this study.

This study adopted a theoretical framework that integrates Bronfenbrenner's social ecological framework from the field of developmental psychology with O'Hare and O'Donohue's Four-Factor theory of SH from the field of SH research. Integrating the Four-Factor theory of SH with the social ecological framework is consistent with the research philosophy of pragmatism that informs this study. Pragmatism encourages an eclectic approach to research that allows the adoption, from disparate research fields, of theories and methods of utility value in addressing a research problem (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015).

It is judicious, from the outset, to acknowledge that the social ecological framework has undergone extensive revision, refinement, and development since its origin in the late 1970s. Considering these changes to the framework, Rosa and Tudge (2013) encourage researchers to state with certainty the version of Bronfenbrenner's social ecological framework that they anchor their studies on in order to avoid theoretical confusion and incoherence. Accordingly, to avoid theoretical confusion, Bronfenbrenner's early version of the social ecological framework provides the necessary anchor required for this study. This framework makes it possible to understand SH risk factors across the multi-levels of the ecological framework. A comprehensive understanding of SH risk factors and the interaction between and among them is indispensable to the formulation, timing, function and evaluation of institutional intervention and responsive strategies. The intention is to use the generated knowledge to empower TCs in Zimbabwe to create enabling and secure environments for students. Creating and providing enabling and secure environments conducive for work and study regardless of gender and

sexual orientation is both an obligation and a mandate for IHLs (Bennett et al., 2007; Long & Hubble, 2018; Smith & Freyd, 2013; Wurtele et al., 2019).

SH is a public health problem that falls within the realm of sexual violence (Dills et al., 2016). Sexual violence is complex and multifaceted and, as such, responsive programmes and strategies need to reflect this complexity and multi-layering of sexual violence (Campbell & Chinnery, 2018; Clay et al., 2019; Kapila, 2017). Consistent with the pragmatic philosophy that anchored this study, the study borrowed and integrated theoretical ideas from SH, sexual violence, and public health prevention research fields to develop a relevant theoretical framework capable of capturing the complexity and multifaceted nature of SH, and informing the development, timing, and function of institutional responsive strategies. Hence, the study integrated O'Hare and O'Donohue's four-factor theory of SH with Bronfenbrenner's social ecological framework to conceptualize, explain and understand SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. In this respect, the study achieved theoretical integration required to achieve a robust mixed methods study (Bartholomew & Lockard, 2018; Doyle et al., 2016; Green et al., 2015; Guetterman & Fetters, 2018; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015). Before discussing the social ecological framework and the four-factor theory, it was prudent to explore the development of SH theoretical thinking over the years to appreciate the relevance of the adopted theoretical framework in the context of theoretical thinking and tradition in SH research and in the context of this present study.

2.2. Overview of theoretical orientation to sexual harassment research

SH theoretical thinking has evolved significantly over the years since SH became a recognised social problem warranting research interest. In the early years, isolated factor theories guided SH research. These isolated factor theories include the natural or biological theory, the socio-cultural theory, the sex-role spill over theory, and the organisational theory of SH. Though still in use today, isolated factor theories increasingly find themselves marginalised and relegated to the periphery of SH research in favour of multiple level theories that acknowledge the

complex system of intersecting and interacting variables in SH perpetration and victimisation (Shanker et al.,2015; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013). Isolated factor theories are heavily criticised for inadequacy and simplicity in developing a comprehensive understanding of SH risk factors and in informing the development, timing, and function of effective prevention or responsive programmes (The American College Health Association (ACHA), 2016; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013).

2.2.1. The Natural or Biological theory of sexual harassment

Amongst the early theories developed in SH research is the natural or biological model. The theory explains SH based on several assumptions. These assumptions include the acknowledgement of the existence of a natural and mutual sexual attraction between men and women with men having a more powerful sex drive than women that makes men initiate sexual relationships (McDonald & Charlesworth, 2016; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013; Tangri et al., 1982). The theory bases SH on the natural attraction of men and women, with the ultimate outcome of creating a sexual relationship (Butler & Schmidtke, 2010; Ford & Ivancic, 2020; Kapila, 2017; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013). Resultantly, the theory propagates the perception that though crude, SH is nontoxic romantic pastime, normal, and appropriate conduct between men and women (Botha, 2016; Moradeke, 2014). Men, because they supposedly have a stronger sex drive than women, are more inclined to behave in a sexually assertive manner, which female targets may construe as unwanted and unwelcome, thereby leading to SH (Kapila, 2017; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009).

The theory is criticised for lessening the burden of responsibility for SH on perpetrators because SH is perceived as natural and biological and is thus beyond their control (Butler & Schmidtke, 2010). Additionally, the theory absolves organisations of some of their responsibilities for if attraction is the basis of SH behaviour, then organisational actions will do little to reduce SH (Butler & Schmidtke, 2010). Accordingly, institutions that perceive SH as a natural extension of the attraction between men and women are not likely to take measures to address SH.

Furthermore, the natural or biological theory does not recognise and acknowledge SH at the margins. SH at the margins or atypical harassment refers to that harassment that does not fit the traditional male harasser-female victim description such as harassment of men by men or the harassment of men by women (Bovill et al., 2019; McDonald & Charlesworth, 2016). Accordingly, the theory does not consider the effects of harassment on an individual or his or her organisation and, therefore, it does not recognise the need for procedures to deal with it (Joubert, 2009). By not factoring in other multi-level variables in its explanation of SH, the theory is inadequate in examining SH risk factors and in informing robust and effective intervention or responsive strategies. Accordingly, the natural or biological theory was an inappropriate anchor for this study because of its inadequacy in capturing the complexity and multi-layering nature of SH. Next, in the search of a relevant and appropriate theory on which to anchor this study, the researcher considers the sex-role spill over theory.

2.2.2. The sex-role spill over theory of sexual harassment

Developed by Gutek and Morasch (1982), the sex-role spill over theory advances a gendered perspective of SH. Theory holds that the placing of individuals into male and female groups allows the viewing of such individuals through gendered lenses. Hence, gendered perceptions that inform behaviour towards individuals of a particular gender and sex are developed (Kabat-Farr & Cortina, 2013; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013). This initial gender framing is a powerful determinant of behaviour towards a particular gender and thus influences social interactions (Ridgeway, 2009). The sex-role spill over theory suggests that men hold role perceptions of women based on their traditional role in each culture (Kapila, 2017; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013). These traditional role expectations include the nurturing role (as mother), the sex-object role, and helper role (as wife). Thus, men perceive women in their gender roles over and above their work role when women take jobs outside of their traditional gendered roles and spheres of influence that leads to SH (Gutek and Cohen, 1987; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009). The gendered perceptions that men develop guide their interactions with women. SH is, therefore,

a consequence of men in the work place and in college settings viewing women in ways consistent with their gendered role as sex objects (Lopez et al., 2009).

While the theory enables an understanding of the gendered perceptions that account for SH perpetration, it is deficient because of a sole and narrow focus on gender perceptions as critical determinants of behaviour towards a particular gender. Such a narrow focus excludes other important variables in SH perpetration such as organisational climate and victim resistance. Resultantly, the sex-role spill over theory cannot inform the development of robust and effective institutional responsive strategies to SH since strategies informed solely by the sex-role spill over theory are likely to address a single gender variable at the expense of other important variables such as organisational climate. Such a narrow focus cannot lead to the formulation of effective responsive strategies. Accordingly, the sex-role spill over theory could not provide the necessary anchor required for this study even though it introduces a critical variable in understanding SH. A more appropriate theory on which to anchor this study would require the integration of the sex-role spill over theory with other isolated factor theories. Such an integrated theory would capture the complexity and multifaceted nature of SH and be more useful in the development of responsive strategies and in informing the timing and function of intervention strategies.

2.2.3. The socio-cultural theory of sexual harassment

The socio-cultural theory is a widely-used theory in SH research. Informed by critical feminism, the socio-cultural theory examines broader patterns of discrimination, power, and privilege in explaining SH (Kapila, 2017; McLaughlin et al., 2012). Sex-based inequalities are thus at the core of socio-cultural explanations of SH. Resultantly, SH is a manifestation, reproduction, and re-enactment of the much larger patriarchal system in which men constitute the dominant group (Moma, 2015; North, 2016; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013; Vohlídalová, 2015). SH, then, is an assertion of masculinity and a form of social control by men to entrench the subordination of women (Diehl et al., 2018; Mellgren et al., 2018; Menon et al., 2009). The socio-cultural

theory, thus, situates SH in the larger context of patriarchal domination. This was significant for this study because it would have enabled the researcher to look for causes in the ingrained patterns of the patriarchal status quo that characterises the Zimbabwean society. While offering important insights into SH, the theory remains inadequate because it does not capture 'all' the variables necessary for capturing the complexity and multifaceted nature of SH. For example, the theory fails to explain the harassment of men by women or harassment of workers from the same gender who are supposed to be similar products of socialisation (Joubert, 2009).

An approach to understanding SH that integrates the natural or biological model, the sex-role spill over, and the socio-cultural theory would thus enable a better understanding than one that solely relies on one theory. Such an approach would be more theoretically sound if it added the organisational model of SH to the already discussed theories.

2.2.4. The organisational model of sexual harassment

The organisational model is yet another theory that offers a singular and peculiar approach to understanding SH. The theory examines the work or study organisational environments to unearth those factors likely to promote the occurrence of SH. These factors include the existing hierarchical authority relations, structures within organisations, and the general organisational climate (Kapila, 2017; Okoroafor et al., 2014; Rubino et al., 2018; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013). The organisational model was critical for this study because it provides a model for understanding environmental and organisational factors that predispose individuals to perpetrate SH. IHLs campuses are typical organisational environments defined by hierarchical teaching relations that lead to power imbalances between those in authority and subordinate figures (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Vohlídalová, 2015). In IHLs, power tilts in favour of faculty members and the potential for abuse of power in harassing the less powerful members of a college community such as students is real (Joseph, 2015; Whitley & Page, 2015) for SH is "steeped in power relations" (Clair et al., 2019, p. 1). As Stabile (2018, p. 480) observes, the huge power differential between faculty and students heightens "the possibilities for coercive

behaviors and ties students' hands and prevents them from reacting adequately" (Vohlídalová, 2015, p. 308). Though critical in helping build an understanding of SH, the organisational model is deficient because it focuses on one aspect of analysis - the organisational environment - at the expense of other equally critical considerations such as the perception of women as sex objects and the socio-cultural beliefs that give rise to SH. As a result, this theory and the others discussed before it is, in isolation, inadequate for this study because each achieves a partial understanding of a complex and multifaceted phenomenon such as SH.

SH theorizing and research, therefore, has largely sought to understand SH from an isolated factor approach despite the occurrence of SH within a complex system of intersecting and interacting variables (Shanker et al., 2015). Thus, theories that advance an isolated factor approach are inadequate in developing a comprehensive understanding of complex and multidimensional SH risk factors and in informing the development, timing and function of prevention or responsive programmes (The American College Health Association (ACHA), 2016; Dills et al., 2016; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013). Understanding and responding to SH, therefore, requires a social ecological framework that simultaneously considers the effect over time of individual, situational, and organisational factors on the interaction between targets and perpetrators of SH (Exner-Cortens & Wells, 2017; Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1985; Hong & Garbarino, 2012; World Health Organisation, 2012). Such an approach helps clarify the interacting and intersecting nature of the factors that influence SH incidents (Shanker et al., 2015).

Within SH research, the four-factor theory offers a multi-level analysis of SH that considers the interaction and intersection of different variables at different levels in the perpetration of SH. The four-factor theory is, for that reason, consistent with the social ecological framework and that consistency places the theory in a better place to offer a comprehensive explanation of complex and multidimensional SH risk factors and to inform the development, timing, and function of intervention strategies (Nauman & Abbasi, 2014; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013).

Accordingly, the social ecological framework integrated with the four-factor theory provided the conceptual anchoring required for this study.

Situating the study within the ecological framework requires following Elder et al.'s (2007) exhortation to integrate other models and theories into ecological frameworks to provide specificity for selected fields of research**.** Since the domain for this study was SH research, the study integrated the four-factor theory of SH with the social ecological framework to create an ecologically driven theoretical framework for this study. The four-factor theory is the most applicable SH theory for integration with the social ecological framework because it recognizes the intersection and interaction of variables located at different social ecological levels in the perpetration of SH. For instance, the four-factor theory recognizes the importance of individual factors, socio-cultural factors, gender factors, and organisational factors in SH perpetration. These factors are contained in the four factors necessary for SH perpetration which, according to the four-factor theory, include: the motivation to harass, the overcoming of internal inhibiting factors, the overcoming of external inhibiting factors and the overcoming of victim resistance. In this respect, the four-factor theory captures the complexity and multi-layering of SH risk factors at different levels of the ecological framework.

Therefore, integrating the four-factor theory with the social ecological framework produced a theoretical framework capable of adequately capturing the complexity and multi-layering of SH necessary for informing the development, timing, and functioning of robust and effective institutional responsive strategies. The discussion this far has suggested the fit between the four-factor theory and the social ecological framework that makes integration of the two theories possible. A detailed discussion of the social ecological framework and the four-factor theory of SH follows. After this, the discussion demonstrates how the four-factor theory of SH, compared to other SH theories, best suits integration with the social ecological framework. An integrated theoretical framework of the four-factor theory with the social ecological framework provided the best potential for explaining complex and multi-layered SH risk factors and informing the

development, timing, and function of IHLs responsive strategies in preventing and redressing SH.

2.3. The social ecological framework of human development

The social ecological framework originates from the field of developmental psychology. In its field of origin, the term, ecology, denotes the study of the interrelationships between organisms and their environments (Stokols et al., 2013). The framework explains human development as occurring within an ecological environment through the interaction between the individual and multiple layers of the individual's environment or context (Eriksson et al., 2018; Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Stokols et al., 2013; Vélez-Agosto et al., 2017). Human development thus is a result of the interplay between individual factors, the ecological systems or layers and the interactions between and within the ecological systems or layers (Eriksson et al., 2018; Kamenopoulou, 2016). The framework emphasizes the relationship between nature and nurture in determining the process of human development. Consequently, social ecologists understand human development as a process involving interaction between innate biological and psychological traits with ecological or environmental factors (Eriksson et al., 2018).

The framework identifies and isolates multiple ecological or environmental layers that the individual interacts with and that influence human development. During the theory's formative years, the ecological layers comprised the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem and the macrosystem. These ecological levels or layers are situated according to their proximity to the individual (Bowen, 2016; Christensen, 2016; Hong et al., 2016) with the microsystem being the layer closest to and the macrosystem being the most distant from the individual. With refinement and development, Bronfenbrenner later added the chronosystem to account for the influence of the time factor in human development.

The microsystem is that innermost ecological environment immediate to the individual or the environment in which the individual is situated (Christensen, 2016; Kamenopoulou, 2016; Krishnan, 2010). As the most proximal setting in which an individual is situated, the

microsystem presents the individual with opportunities for face-to-face interactions with agents of socialization (Christensen, 2016; Houston, 2017; Rosa & Tudge, 2013). It encompasses that which an individual experiences in each setting. For the developing child, the microsystem may consist of such environments as the home, childcare, and playground. Accordingly, the microsystem forms the immediate and earliest influence on the child (Krishnan, 2010).

Next to the microsystem and further from the individual than the microsystem is the mesosystem. The mesosystem consists of the relations or connections among two or more microsystems in which the developing person actively participates (Houston, 2017; Krishnan, 2010; Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Further from the developing individual and coming after the mesosystem lies the exosystem. Mutual influence exists between the exosystem and the individual in shaping human development even though the developing individual does not actively participate in it since they are not situated in it (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Beyond the mesosystem and further away from the developing individual than the exosystem lies the macrosystem.

The macrosystem encompasses the institutional systems of a culture or subculture, such as the economic, social, education, legal, and political systems (Houston, 2017; Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Watson, 2017). An overarching and enveloping belief system or ideology defines the macrosystem (Christensen, 2016; Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Watson, 2017). In a latter refinement, Bronfenbrenner added the chronosystem to account for changes within the individual and the ecological environment over time (Christensen, 2016).

Owing to the important insights on the interplay between the ecological environment and innate individual biological and psychological traits in explaining human development that a social ecological framework offers, Golden and Earp (2012) recommend that social ecological frameworks guide public health practice. Resultantly, public health studies across research fields adopt and adapt the social ecological model to identify violence risk factors and to propose intervention strategies, their timing and function (Barner et al., 2018; Campbell et al.,

2009; Eriksson et al., 2018; Exner-Cortens & Wells, 2017; Garcia, 2014; Kamenopoulou, 2016; Oliveira et al., 2018; SIDA, 2015). Studies in the sexual violence domain adapt Bronfenbrenner's ecological framework to a four-level framework consisting of the individual, the relationship, the community, and the societal level (Dickson & Willis, 2017; SIDA, 2015; Whitaker &Savage, 2014). For example, the Centre for Disease Control (CDC) uses a four-level social ecological model to promote understanding of the potential effect of violence prevention strategies. Similarly, SIDA (2015) also uses a four-level ecological level to understand gender-based violence.

The use of the framework in this study was, therefore, consistent with contemporary practice in public health and sexual violence research. For example, Oliveira et al. (2018) used the social ecological framework in a study assessing reported cases of sexual and gender-based violence, causes and preventive strategies in asylum reception facilities in Europe. In addition, Barner et al. (2018) adapted the ecological framework in a study of intervention strategies in the field of human trafficking. In their study, they used a social ecological framework to map ecological layer specific interventions in human trafficking. In another study, Decker et al. (2018) adapted the framework to understand interpersonal violence and suicide prevention and response. In this study, the ecological framework was the basis for mapping existing intervention strategies onto their respective ecological layers. Similarly, Decker and Littleton (2018) used the ecological framework in a study of sexual revictimisation among college women.

In the specific research field of SH, several studies adapted the ecological framework to understand SH risk factors and ecological layer specific interventions. In one study, Garcia (2014) used the social ecological framework to study bullying and SH perpetration among middle school students. In another study, Campbell and Chinnery (2018) also demonstrated the use of a social ecological framework in a rapid review of what works in preventing and responding to SH in the workplace. Golden and Earp (2012) also used a social ecological framework to analyse the targets of interventions and intervention activities in a literature

review of health promotion intervention. In their review, they used social ecological levels that included the intrapersonal, interpersonal, institution, community, and policy levels in place of the micro, meso, exo and macro systems associated with the original ecological framework developed by Bronfenbrenner. Against these adapted levels, they listed the intervention activities and the changes that the interventions targeted. For instance, at the intrapersonal ecological level, intervention activities included education and training aimed at changing knowledge of intervention, participants' perceptions, and attitudes. In addition to these studies, Dills et al. (2016) report that the Centre for Disease Control (CDC) uses a four-level social ecological framework for informing the development, timing, function, and evaluation of SH interventions. The four levels include the individual, the relationship, the community, and the societal level. In yet another study, Dickson, and Willis (2017) also use a four-level ecological framework in a survey of prevention activities in New Zealand. Golden and Earp's (2012) ecological levels that include the intrapersonal, interpersonal, institution, community and policy levels were adopted for this study because they captured the important variables that were critical for this study. Following in the tradition of Golden and Earp, this study used an ecological framework comprising the intrapersonal, the interpersonal, the institutional, and the community ecological levels.

Golden and Earp's (2012) recommendation that public health practice be guided by social ecological models is significant for SH is a complex and multifaceted public health issue. SH, falling within the ambit of sexual violence, is so complex and multifaceted a public health issue that understanding and explaining it requires a framework that considers the intersection and interaction of multiple SH risk factors operating at both the individual and the multiple layers of the ecological environment (Hong & Marine, 2018). For instance, understanding SH perpetration requires understanding the perpetrator's motivation to harass, the factors that lead a perpetrator to overcome internal and external inhibitors, and to overcome the victim's resistance (O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998). As a result, an ecologically driven theoretical

framework offers a comprehensive appreciation of sexual perpetration risk factors. Additionally, the development of robust and potentially effective SH responsive designs needs to reflect this complexity and multi-layering of sexual violence (Clay et al., 2019; Fitzgerald, 2017; Kim et al., 2016). Accordingly, the adoption and adaptation of an ecologically driven framework was relevant to this study and was consistent with contemporary research practice in SH research.

The ecological framework is a multi-level perspective that makes possible a systematic examination of both causes and potential solutions to violence from the individual to the systems level (Cramer & Kapusta, 2017; Golden & Earp, 2012; Oliveira et al., 2018; Sabri et al.,2019; Schölmerich & Kawachi, 2016). Cramer and Kapusta (2017) regard the social ecological framework as a four-tier framework for organising risk and protective factors, which then inform corresponding prevention strategies. For example, the ecological framework makes it possible to identify SH risk factors at the individual, microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem and macrosystem levels. The identification and grouping of SH risk factors at each level then informs the formulation of interventions and response strategies appropriate at each level and across levels of the ecological framework (Finigan-Carr et al., 2018). For example, Barner et al. (2018) used a social ecological framework that they named the Ecological model of human trafficking intervention to map ecological layer specific interventions in human trafficking. This is critical because intervention and response strategies can only be appropriate and effective for each ecological level if their design considers the risk factors associated with each level of the ecological framework (Barner et al., 2018; Logie et al., 2014; Schölmerich & Kawachi, 2016).

Social ecological frameworks present ecological layers for consideration in the identification and organisation of important risk factors appropriate for diverse areas of research (Elder et al.,2007). Accordingly, the social ecological framework is a theoretical and analytical framework that provides multiple layers such as the individual, the micro, meso, exo and macro

systems of the social ecology where risk factors lie without explicitly prescribing the risk factors to consider (Christensen, 2016). As a result, the framework merely offers guidance on where to locate important variables and how to organize them. In this respect, the framework functions as a template on which different researchers can factor in details relevant to diverse research fields. In this way, the framework is not prescriptive, and is thus adaptable to other research fields beyond the field of human development in which it originated (Bone, 2015; Christensen, 2016). In this study, the framework was adapted from the field of human development to SH research.

The Social ecological framework recognizes individuals as embedded within larger social systems and describes the interactive characteristics of the individual and the environment that underlie complex social problems (Barner et al., 2018; Golden & Earp, 2012). Human behaviour, therefore, results from the interaction between individual attributes (knowledge, values, and attitudes), social influences that include the people with whom individuals associate, the organisations that individuals belong to, and the communities in which they live. It, therefore, was beneficial to study SH from a social ecological framework that assumes the existence of multiple levels of influence that are interactive and reinforcing in the perpetration of SH (Golden & Earp, 2012; Schölmerich & Kawachi, 2016). On one hand, such an approach provided an enriched understanding of how SH is perpetrated and sustained within and across the various subsystems and, on the other hand, it helped in identifying promising points of intervention (Campbell et al., 2009; Cramer & Kapusta, 2017; Garcia, 2014). This was critical in understanding perpetration and in understanding which institutional strategies work best with which risk factors.

Figure 2.1 presents Bronfenbrenner's social ecological framework developed in the field of human development in 1979.

Figure 2.1.

The Socio-Ecological Framework
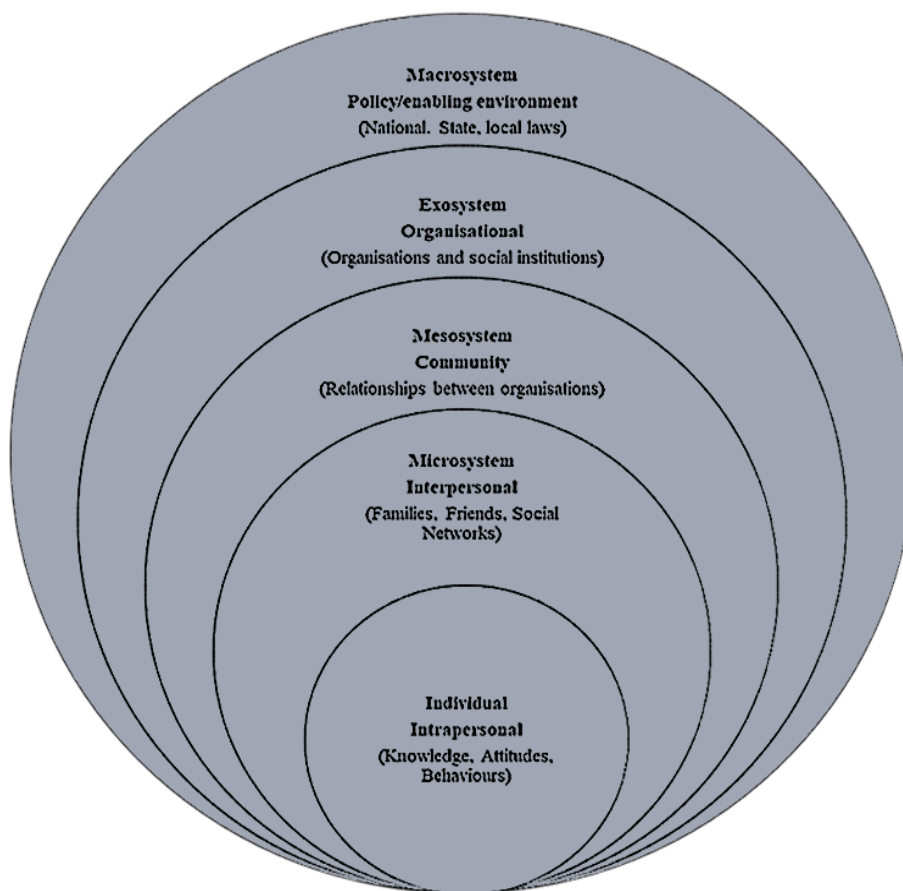
Adapted from Decker et al., (2018). An integrated public health approach to interpersonal violence and suicide prevention and response. *Public Health Reports, 133*(1-suppl), 65S-79S. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033354918800019

Having discussed the social ecological model and shown its usefulness in understanding institutional responsive strategies to SSH, the discussion now considers the four-factor theory of SH and demonstrates that the four-factor theory offers, within SH research, a theory that can be successfully integrated with the social ecological framework in understanding SH and developing SH responsive strategies in TCs in Zimbabwe.

2.4. The four-factor theory of sexual harassment

The four-factor theory emerged within SH research in response to the inadequacies of isolated factor theories that had dominated SH theorizing prior to its emergence. In some respects, the four-factor theory is an eclectic and multidimensional approach that combines ideas from the

natural or biological, sex-role spill over, sociocultural, and organisational theories of SH into one comprehensive theory (Botha, 2016; O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998) that recognizes that "there is no single cause for and/or perpetration" (Oliveira et al., 2018, p. 2).

O'Hare and O'Donohue (1998) developed the four-factor theory of SH as a composite theory incorporating all the isolated factor theories that had been used to explain SH before. The theory offers a multifaceted and multi-layering explanation of SH that cuts across the intrapersonal, interpersonal, institution, community, and policy levels that this study adopted from Golden and Earp (2012). The four-factor theory achieves a multi-layered and multifaceted ecological explanation of SH through allowing the organisation of SH risk factors under four categories that include the motivation to harass, overcoming internal inhibitions, overcoming external inhibitions, and overcoming victim resistance. The theory suggests that SH occurs because of the interaction and satisfaction of the four factors on different levels of the social ecology. That is, SH occurs when a motivated individual overcomes internal inhibitions, external inhibitions, and victim resistance. Projected onto Golden and Earp (2012)'s ecological levels, the motivation to harass and the overcoming of internal inhibitions equate to the intrapersonal level, the overcoming of external inhibitions can be spread across the institution, community and society levels of the ecology, and the overcoming of victim resistance equates to the interpersonal level. It is, however, important to note that the motivation to harass can also straddle different levels of the ecological model such as the institution, community, and society levels. Sundaresh and Hemalatha (2013) argue that four factors are necessary for SH to take place - motivation to harass, the overcoming of internal inhibitive forces that may discourage one from committing acts of SH, the overcoming of external resistive forces, and the ability of the harasser to overcome the resistance of the victim.

2.4.1. Factor 1: Motivation to harass

The motivation to harass addresses those factors that motivate an individual to perpetrate SH. The theory holds that motives for SH often include a perpetrator's need for power and

dominance, the perpetrator's need for control, and the perpetrator's sensitivity to a victim's physical attractiveness with sexual advances being an overt expression of these needs for power and of sexual attraction (Mellgren et al., 2018; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009). The motivation to harass also addresses explanations of SH advanced by several isolated factor theories of SH such as the natural or biological theory, the sex-role spill over theory, the sociocultural theory, and the organisational theory of SH.

Sexual attraction as a motive for SH echoes the natural or biological theory of SH. SH occurs when targets of courtship view sexual advances as unwelcome and unwanted (Kapila, 2017; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009). Since men usually initiate courtship because they supposedly have a stronger sex drive than women, they are more inclined to be sexually assertive and targets of their sexual attention may interpret their assertiveness as SH (Kapila, 2017; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009). For that reason, SH is a commonplace demonstration of natural sexual attraction between women and men (Botha, 2016). SH, therefore, manifests when individuals seek sexual relationships and gratification from people who are disinterested in their sexual overtures. A study by Nauman and Abbasi (2014) lends weight to sexual attraction as a risk factor at the personal level by noting that sexually attractive women are at high risk of harassment victimisation. Additionally, participants in a study of women farm workers of Mexican origin indicated that women with a stereotypical feminine physique were more vulnerable to SH (Kima et al., 2016). This lends weight to the sexual attraction risk factor at the intrapersonal level. A stereotypical feminine structure increases sexual attractiveness and attracts male attention leading to SH as men pursue such women as sexual partners. However, Haruna's (2014) study did not establish a positive correlation between physical attractiveness and SH but a strong association between being decently and indecently dressed with SH. Similarly, Synovitz and Byrne (1998) established, from a study of university women in the United States of America, association between provocative dressing and susceptibility to sexual victimisation. Chukwudi and Gbakorun (2011) also found, from a study at Nasarawa State

University in Nigeria, that provocative dressing increases undergraduate students' chances of being sexually harassed.

In addition to SH being a result of sexual attraction, another variable internal to the perpetrator is the need for control. This variable echoes the critical feminist socio-cultural theory of SH. According to this variable, "sexual harassment is a mechanism of power that reinforces men's dominant position over women" (Mellgren et al., 2018, p. 263). As a result, a culturally ingrained need to assert their masculinity and to exert control over women in order to entrench patriarchal control and domination over women motivates male perpetration of SH (Diehl et al., 2018; Menon et al., 2009). The need for control as motivation for SH perpetration enables the examination of the socio-cultural source and drivers of this need. An institution can exploit knowledge and understanding of the source and drivers of the need for control to inform the development, timing, and function of intervention strategies. Additionally, knowledge and understanding of the sources and drivers of the need for control can inform evaluation of the effectiveness of responsive interventions by determining their appropriateness in addressing the underlying motivation for SH.

Related to the need for control is the need for power as a motivation for SH perpetration. The need for power reflects the organisational theory of SH. This variable was important to this study since the study was organisational or institutional bound to TCs in Zimbabwe. Power and authority are key organisational drivers of SH (Kapila, 2017; Okoroafor et al., 2014; Rubino et al., 2018). IHLs campuses are typical organisational environments defined by hierarchical teaching relations that lead to power imbalances between those in authority and subordinate figures. In IHLs, power tilts in favour of faculty members and the potential for abuse of power in harassing the less powerful members of a college community such as students is real (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Joseph, 2015; Stabile, 2018; Whitley & Page, 2015). Power and authority possessed by individuals with a proclivity to harass facilitates their abuse of that power and authority to harass the less powerful members of organisations as a demonstration

and exercise of their power (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Hong & Marine, 2018). Power differentials between lecturers and students thus increase the "possibility for institutionally-enabled manipulation of students by those upon whom they are intellectually dependent" (Whitley & Page, 2015, p. 39). Additionally, power relations that drive SH may also contribute to the silence around and underreporting of this vice (Joseph, 2015; Morley, 2011). Consequently, effective institutional responsive strategies ought to, among other things, dilute the power that lecturers have over students or, at the least, ensure that there are mechanisms for checks and balances so that lecturer power may not be abused in sexually harassing students. The motivation to harass factor was critical for this study because it enhanced the understanding of risk factors at the intrapersonal level of the social ecology. Therefore, institutions can use knowledge and understanding of the underlying motivations for harassment gained from factor 1 of the four-factor theory to develop appropriate responsive interventions that target the motivations for harassing at the intrapersonal level of the social ecology. Such knowledge and understanding are also critical for the timing of interventions. The correct timing of interventions enhances their effectiveness. Furthermore, institutions can also use the gained knowledge and understanding to identify the appropriate targets for interventions. Proper development and timing of interventions enhances intervention effectiveness.

2.4.2. Factor 2: The overcoming of internal inhibitions

Factor 2 deals with the perpetrator's ability to overcome internal inhibitions against SH. These factors are related to a potential perpetrator's understanding of the illegalities involved in harassment, the immoral and unethical nature of harassment behaviours, and the ability to imagine what a victim might be experiencing when the victim is being sexually harassed (Theocharous & Philareto, 2009). Individuals whose internal inhibitions are weak are more likely to perpetrate SH compared to individuals whose internal inhibitions are strong. Effective institutional responsive strategies should, therefore, seek to strengthen internal inhibitions in individuals. While the overcoming of internal inhibitions is largely contained in the

intrapersonal layer of the ecological model adapted for this study, the strengthening of internal inhibitions is the function of factors that lie in several other levels of the ecological framework. For example, institutional responsive strategies such as policies and training or education are critical in strengthening internal inhibitions. A zero-tolerance policy that categorically states intolerance to SH within an institution, for instance, builds and reinforces internal inhibitions by affirming the illegality of SH within an institution. In addition to this, effective implementation of the zero-tolerance policy, the seriousness with which complaints are handled, and the sanctioning of perpetrators all contribute to strengthening internal inhibitors through communicating to the institutional community and would be harassers that SH is not tolerated within the institution. Knowledge of factor 2 of the four-factor theory is useful in identifying institutional strategies whose function is to strengthen internal inhibitors.

Further to this, institutional interventions such as education and bystander training also strengthen internal inhibitions in several ways. At one level, education and bystander training enhance knowledge about SH that may raise awareness about the immoral and unethical nature of harassment. Awareness of the immoral and unethical nature of SH contributes to harassment management by discouraging perpetration. Additionally, education and bystander training may increase empathy with victims by teaching institutional members about the deleterious effects of SH. The more empathetic an institutional community becomes, the less likely members are to perpetrate SH (Diehl et al., 2014; Moore & Mennicke, 2020). Furthermore, institutional members with a high empathy level are also likely to engage in proactive bystander interventions.

Knowledge and understanding of internal inhibitors are important for informing institutional responsive interventions to SH whose function is to strengthen those internal inhibitors. For example, training programmes that challenge patriarchal norms and values that drive ambivalent sexism contribute significantly to reductions in incidents of SH by cultivating the perception of SH as both immoral and unethical. In the same vein, institutions adopt, refine,

and strengthen zero tolerance policies to raise awareness about the illegality of SH. Furthermore, knowledge and understanding of the internal inhibitors can inform the evaluation of institutional interventions. For instance, the effectiveness of education and training interventions is measurable based on the extent to which training content, materials and activities address ambivalent sexism, build empathy, and increase knowledge about the illegality of SH. The strengthening of inhibitors is indicative of the effectiveness of education and training.

2.4.3. Factor 3: The overcoming of external inhibitions

Factor 3, overcoming of external inhibitions, focuses on the perpetrator's ability to overcome external inhibitions against SH. External inhibitive forces include organisational and environmental variables such as organisational procedures for handling SH complaints, professionalism, gender ratio, privacy at work place and socio-cultural variables like sexist attitudes (Ollo-López & Nuñez, 2018; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009). Put together, these factors constitute the organisational climate or the situational factors that facilitate SH perpetration. An organisational climate reflects the perceived risk associated with lodging an SH complaint, the possibility, and the availability of sanctions for harassers, and the seriousness with which complaints are treated by both the organisation and the complainant's colleagues (Pina & Gannon, 2012). Accordingly, organisational climate and workplace environment significantly contribute to understanding the conditions necessary for SH perpetration (Herovic et al., 2019; Willness et al., 2007). In a meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of workplace SH, Willness et al. (2007) concluded that, of all the antecedents they tested, organisational climate positively correlated with SH. An organisational climate can facilitate or inhibit SH (Butler & Schmidtke, 2010; US Equal Opportunities Commission, 2016). On one hand, an institutional climate tolerant of SH creates a hostile environment that becomes a fundamental predictor of increased prevalence of SH (Hersch, 2015; Johansson et al., 2018; Knapp, 2015). On the other hand, an organisational justice climate intolerant of SH inhibits the

perpetration of SH (Foster & Fullagar, 2018; Rubino et al., 2017). Effective and judiciously implemented institutional responsive strategies significantly contribute towards organisational intolerance for SH. This was particularly significant in informing this study in that it addressed study objectives of exploring students and lecturers' perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH. Accordingly, understanding those factors that build and strengthen external inhibitors made it easy to identify such factors from the collected data.

Organisational climate includes the job-gender context that consists of the gender ratio (the population distribution between men and women in an institution) and the nature of the job duties. Job-gender context may be a predictor for SH perpetration though its effect size is considered small (Rubino et al., 2017; Willness et al., 2007). Gendered behaviour, cultural symbols of masculinity, male superiority, and sexual bravado, the devaluation of women, aggression and risk taking generally characterize male dominated or masculine institutions (Haas & Timmerman, 2010). These characteristics of male dominated or masculine institutions create conditions necessary for SH perpetration. Accordingly, studies demonstrate that women who work or study in a predominantly male environment or in traditionally stereotyped masculine work and study environments are more at risk of victimisation compared to those in environments characterised by gender balance (Kim et al., 2016; Willness et al., 2007).

Another important institutional variable in SH perpetration is the extent to which an institution exhibits professionalism. There is consensus among researchers that SH is more pronounced in institutions characterised by general mistreatment of institutional members. For instance, in a study of the US military, Wood and Toppelberg (2017) concluded that professional misconduct by Officers who sometimes sexually harass and assault subordinates endorses similar acts by service members under their command. This implies that junior members in an organisation adopt unprofessional, unethical, and improper conduct of those in positions of leadership (Knapp, 2015). The net effect of this is the creation of an institutional climate characterised by incivility that normalises rude, disrespectful, or condescending behaviour. Incivility increases

opportunities for harassing behaviour for SH and incivility co-occur (Robotham & Cortina, 2019). An organisational climate characterised by incivility makes it impossible to recognise SH as offensive and discriminatory which, in turn, aggravates SH perpetration (Robotham & Cortina, 2019; Thomas, 2015).

Related to professionalism, as a predictor of SH within an institution, is institutional implementation of policies and handling of SH complaints. The effectiveness and fairness with which an institution implements policies and enforces grievance-handling procedures creates perceptions about institutional justice. Foster and Fullagar (2018) note that if an institution appropriately sanctions employees for incivility, antisocial conduct is less likely to occur. However, reporting systems considered "inaccessible, burdensome and unlikely to change the situation" (Broad et al., 2018, p. 420) increase targets/victims' reluctance to file complaints. The extent of implementation is a good measure of the effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies. This was critical for this study because it informed the study on how to measure the effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies.

Research indicates that effective and fair implementation of organisational policies and grievance procedures creates an organisational justice climate that is intolerant to SH (Rubino et al., 2017). The implementation of organisational policies and procedures inextricably links to organisational leadership. The commitment that leaders display in the implementation of policies and enforcement of procedures sends important signals to organisational members about the organisational climate (Knapp, 2015). For example, Knapp (2015) established from a study that leadership in the organisation studied accentuated SH by not taking SH reports seriously and by engaging in SH acts themselves. Thus, the way that leaders interpret and respond to SH is critical for cultivating an organisational culture that is tolerant or intolerant of SH (Hart et al., 2018). Accordingly, leaders who prioritise and emphasise SH cultivate a culture of intolerance while leaders who deemphasise and downplay SH create a tolerant and permissive culture. Similar conclusions were arrived at by Johansson et al. (2018), from a study

of SH in the Swedish forestry sector, that leadership failure to acknowledge and deal with SH demonstrates a failure to deal with both the reported perpetrators and the organisational culture that engenders SH. Leadership failure is also a function of passive leadership and Lee (2018, p. 594) notes that "when working under a passive leader, both men and women are more likely to experience sexual harassment". Fair and equitable implementation of policies and procedures creates an organisational justice climate that makes employees feel valued and shapes employees' conduct toward one another (Rubino et al., 2017). Rubino et al. established that an organisational justice climate, perceived at both the individual and group levels, leads to reported decreases in incidents of SH. Similarly, Foster and Fullagar (2018) report that a just climate encourages reporting of harassing behaviours and reduces harassment incidents. However, a climate that is not fair and effective in implementing policies and procedures and in handling SH complaints discourages victims from reporting and accentuates SH perpetration (Broad et al., 2018; Knapp, 2015). In such circumstances, victims suffer from institutional betrayal (Rosenthal et al., 2016; Smith & Freyd, 2013). For instance, participants in one study noted that the absence of anti-harassment policies, clear reporting procedures, and supportive leadership increased the risk of SH (Kima et al., 2016) and discouraged reporting (Herovic et al., 2019).

Furthermore, sexism creates a sexualised environment that heightens the likelihood of SH (Bragason, 2016; Harris et al., 2018; Sojo et al., 2016). A sexist ideology gives birth to and nurtures attitudes, beliefs and myths that deny, legitimate, and justify, through victim blaming, violence against women (Harris et al., 2018; Herrera et al., 2016; Page et al., 2016; Sakallı-Uğurlu et al., 2010; Wood & Toppelberg, 2017). In sum, sexism breeds "patriarchal normalisation and dismissal of sexual harassment" (Phipps, 2020, p. 232) and propagates "a culture that shames and blames women who report harassment" (Avendaño, 2018, p. 246). The normalisation and trivialisation of SH cultivates a culture of impunity about sexually violent and coercive behaviours (Ali et al., 2015; Chafai, 2017; Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016).

These myths, designed to raise harassment tolerance levels, include beliefs such as self-victimisation, that women enjoy acts of violence, that these acts are only committed by mentally deranged men, or that women exaggerate their reports are common to all women (Herrera et al., 2017). For example, several studies demonstrate that sexism leads to victim blaming and tolerance of SH (Sakall-Uğurlu et al., 2010; Toker & Sümer, 2010).

Sexism leads to a negative evaluation of women who do not conform to the dominant sexist ideology by confronting their harasser compared to women who do not confront the harasser (Ali et al., 2015; Herrera et al., 2014; Herrera et al., 2017; Hill &Marshall, 2018). Sexist myths, beliefs and attitudes normalise SH making it near impossible to recognise SH as a social problem and thus incapacitate organisational responsiveness (Hennekam &Bennett, 2017; Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016; The Restaurant Opportunities Centers United Forward Together, 2014; Whitley & Page, 2015). For example, faced with a situation of unwanted sexual attention, most participants in a study thought the woman would perceive herself as coming closer to fitting a man's image of an ideal partner and not necessarily regard the unwanted attention as SH (Herrera et al., 2017). In fact, the study established that women who scored high on acceptance of sexist myths and beliefs gave less importance to incidents of harassment. In another study conducted in the creative industry of the Netherlands, many participants perceived SH as a normal and tolerated practice despite it being uncomfortable (Hennekam & Bennett, 2017). Such normalisation of harassment leads to underreporting which in turn makes it difficult for institutions to detect and deal with SH (Broad et al., 2018; Thomas, 2015).

The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2016) reports that workplaces that are isolated and offer privacy facilitate the perpetration of SH. Such private workspaces that include office spaces for institutional faculty members present individuals with a propensity to harass and perpetrate SH. In such spaces, harassment occurs behind walls, closed doors and in isolated and secluded places away from bystanders. A study of women farm workers indicated that

working in remote and isolated locations, such as orchards far from co-workers, increases women's vulnerability to SH (Waugh, 2010).

2.4.4. Factor 4: The overcoming of victim resistance

Factor 4 considers the ability of the perpetrator to overcome victim resistance to harassment. Critical factors that facilitate perpetrator overcoming of victim resistance include the victim's job status, victim's sex role, emotional stability of the victim, the victim's familiarity with complain procedures (O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998; Sundaresh & Hemalatha l, 2013).

Regarding victim's job status, studies demonstrate that individuals in less powerful positions as either workers or students are more likely to report SH than those who hold more favourable organisational positions (Cantalupo& Kidder, 2018; Harris et al., 2018; Herovic et al., 2019; Jacobs et al., 2015; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016). Baker (2010) notes that minority women clustered in subordinate positions experience heightened SH in university fields dominated by men or traditionally regarded as masculine such as the physical sciences. In fact, the unequal distribution of formal power within an institution is a necessary precondition for SH (Baker, 2010; Butler & Schmidtke, 2010; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013; Wynen, 2016; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016). Apart from formal power that comes with the occupation of institutional positions, individuals also wield social power that stems from belonging to a majority gender grouping within an institution (Butler & Schmidtke, 2010). Research participants often cite men in managerial or supervisory positions as perpetrators (Jacobs et al., 2015; Shanker et al., 2015). For example, Cantalupo & Kidder (2018) claim that power differentials between academic professors and graduate students increase the risk of harassment for graduate students. Similarly, a study in the creative industries in the Netherlands indicates that women of low status within institutions are also likely to be more tolerant of sexually harassing behaviours from higher-status males (Hennekam & Bennett, 2017). Lower status within an institution makes women vulnerable to sexual exploitation and coercion in anticipation of perceived

benefits that come with quid pro quo harassment (Hennekam & Bennett, 2017; Kima et al., 2016). Additionally, the lack of organisational experience, including knowledge about reporting procedures and knowledge of what behaviours constitute SH, has also been established to increase vulnerability to SH in organisational settings (Herovic et al., 2019). Sexual harassers exploit this vulnerability to prey on impressionable and inexperienced young employees. However, extant literature also indicates the existence of contra power SH in which individuals with formal authority are in fact more often the target of SH (Wynen, 2016). Therefore, irrespective of job status, women are potential targets of harassment.

In a nutshell, Ollo-López & Nuñez, (2018, p. 185) conclude that "isolated women, with low organisational status or power, and working in hostile environment are the most prevalent victims of SH". Thus, Eckert and Steiner (2018, p. 485) report that "young, inexperienced, relatively powerless women, who are likely to be impressed by, and even reliant on, powerful men" are often easy targets for harassers in organisations. Given this, institutional responsive strategies should target empowering and capacitating the resistance of potential victims such as students in a college setting. Factor 4 of the four-factor theory was thus important to this study because it facilitated the identification and classification of those responsive strategies that empower and capacitate victim resistance. Knowing the objective of strategies that seek to empower and capacitate victim resistance made it possible to assess the effectiveness of such strategies.

Overcoming the victim's resistance also requires perceiving and treating the target in ways consistent with their sex role more than their occupational role (O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998). This variable overlaps with sexist attitudes and conforms to sex-role spill over theory of SH. Accordingly, a female worker or a student in a male dominated environment is perceived and treated, primarily, as a woman and secondly as a worker or a student (Kim et al., 2016; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009). The target's sex-role takes precedence over their work or occupational role. Consequently, men in the institutions treat and behave towards women in the

same institutions in ways consistent with their feminine stereotype as sex objects (O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998; Kabat-Farr & Cortina, 2013; Lopez et al., 2009). Treating and behaving towards women within an institution in ways that are consistent with their sex-role as sex objects gives rise to SH.

The four-factor theory, as has been demonstrated, presents opportunities for a cross-cutting or intersectional approach to understanding SH risk factors that is a prerequisite for successful prevention of SH (McCartan & Brown, 2019; Oliveira et al., 2018; Vivolo et al., 2010). The theory is cross cutting in that it presents and organises SH risk factors at the intrapersonal, the interpersonal, the institutional and the societal levels. In essence, it organises SH risk factors across the social ecology. A cross-cutting approach allows program developers to address risk factors at multiple levels of the social ecology that stretch from the individual, relational, community and society levels (Oliveira et al.,2018). The four-factor theory thus presents opportunities for understanding the complex and multi-layering of SH risk factors. Understanding the complexity and multi-layering of SH risk factors is critical for informing the development, timing and function of effective SH intervention strategies and programmes (Oliveira et al., 2018; Rubino et al., 2018; Sabri et al., 2019; Swedish Research Council, 2018). Furthermore, through delineating SH inhibiting factors, the four-factor theory opens avenues for strengthening those factors at different layers of the social ecology that inhibit SH perpetration. Figure 2.2 presents The Four-Factor theory

Figure 1.2

The Four-Factor Model of Sexual Harassment
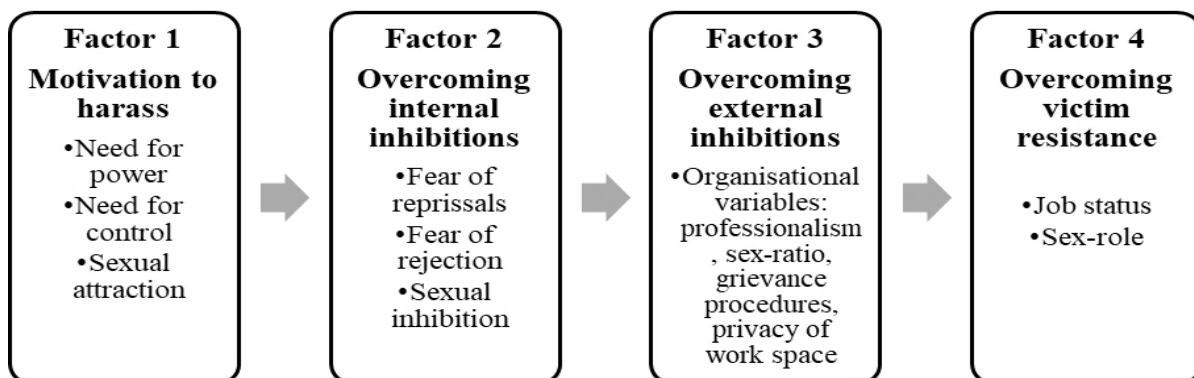
O'Hare, E. A., & O'Donohue, W. (1998). Sexual harassment: Identifying risk factors. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 27*(6), 561–580. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1018769016832

The importance of the four-factor theory in directing an organisation to SH risk factors is critical to the development, timing and function of effective and relevant institutional intervention and responsive strategies. These SH risk factors include the motivation to harass, the perpetrator's overcoming of internal inhibitors, the perpetrator's overcoming of external inhibitors, and the perpetrator's overcoming of victim's resistance. These factors cut across the social ecology in that they address risk factors at the intrapersonal, interpersonal, institutional, and societal levels. Accordingly, the four-factor theory captures the complexity and multi-layering of SH necessary for a comprehensive appreciation of SH risk factors. Thus, as a composite theory, the four-factor theory informs the development, timing, and function of institutional responsive strategies better than the isolated factor theories of SH. Conversely, the theory permits the classification of institutional responsive strategies according to the risk factors they address. The application of the theory to this study made it evident to analyse and classify institutional responsive strategies according to the risk factors they addressed. This permitted the appreciation of which institutional strategies addressed which underlying risk factors and, at the same time, perceive those risk factors that were being ignored if there were any such factors being ignored.

The theory best informs the development, timing, and function of institutional responsive strategies in several ways. Firstly, the theory highlights those risk factors that institutional strategies ought to focus on at all levels of the social ecology framework adapted for this study. The ecological levels adapted for this study include the intrapersonal, interpersonal, institutional and society levels. At each of these ecological levels, the four-factor theory identifies the risk factors and thus directs intervention developers to those aspects that need addressing in the prevention of SH. Secondly, the theory suggests entry points for interventions. By organising risk factors according to the ecological levels, the theory directs developers of interventions as to which evidence-based interventions are appropriate for which risk factors at each level of the social ecological framework and when to deploy such interventions. For example, institutions should deploy SH awareness education immediately and regularly after freshmen join an institution (California State Auditor, 2014). Bringing such interventions towards the end of a cohort's final year in college would be too late to impact on students' campus lives. Thirdly, the four-factor theory offers potential for evaluation of responsive strategies. Evaluation of intervention strategies involves measuring their success against reductions in or weakening of risk factors that the theory presents. For example, reductions in sexist attitudes reflects the success of SH training. Without a knowledge of the risk factors, it would be difficult to measure the success or otherwise of intervention strategies.

2.5. Integrating the four-factor theory with the social ecological framework

At this point, the discussion turns to the integration of the four-factor theory with the social ecological framework. As has been stated before, Bronfenbrenner's social ecological framework is a template that can be adapted to suit the specificity of a particular research field. This study transposes the four-factor theory of SH onto the social ecological framework to develop an understanding of complex and multi-layered SH risk factors across the multiple layers of the social ecology. Successful transposition involves disentangling and rearranging the SH risk factors of the four-factor theory in such a way that they correspond to and converge

with the intrapersonal, interpersonal, institutional, and societal levels of the social ecology adapted for this study. However, the complexity, multi-layering, interactional and intersectional nature of risk factors makes it difficult to tie down risk factors to a single layer. For instance, while some factors may lie at the interpersonal level their origin may lie at the societal level. Thus, risk factors at more distant layers from the individual may accentuate or minimise risk factors at the intrapersonal/personal level of the social ecology. It is thus critical to understand the interaction and intersection of risk factors that may, on the surface, appear to belong to different layers of the social ecology. Accordingly, an intervention strategy may work across several levels of the institutional social ecology.

2.5.1. Four-factor theory convergence with intrapersonal level of the social ecology

To this end, factor 1 (motivation to harass) and factor 2 (the overcoming of internal inhibitors) of the four-factor theory correspond to and converge with the intrapersonal level of the ecological level because they are risk factors that reside within the individual harasser (Cogin & Fish, 2007.). Motivation to harass factors, on one hand, include the individual's need for power, for control, and sexual attraction to the target of harassment. On the other, the overcoming of internal inhibitors includes such factors as fear for reprisals, fear of rejection and sexual inhibition.

While some of these risk factors lie within the individual, their origin lies in other layers of the social ecology. For example, the perpetrator's need for power and control motivations originate in a patriarchal ideology that has its origins in the societal level of the social ecology. In the same vein, internal inhibitors such as fear of reprisals stem from an institution's adoption of a zero-tolerance to SH and to the effective implementation of institutional grievance procedures and the sanctioning of SH perpetrators. Accordingly, addressing these risk factors at the intrapersonal level would require strengthening those factors at other levels that serve to reinforce internal inhibitors. For instance, strengthening and effectively implementing SH policies and grievance procedures may reinforce the internal inhibitor related to fear of

reprisals. Thus, effectively dealing with intrapersonal risk factors may require going upstream to address these risk factors at the source levels of the risk factors on the social ecology. This highlights the complexity, multi-layering, interactional and intersectional nature of SH risk factors.

Having shown that factor 1 and factor 2 of the four-factor theory converge with and correspond to the intrapersonal level, the discussion now turns to consider factors of the four-factor theory that converge with, and correspond to the interpersonal level of the social ecology.

2.5.2. Four-factor theory convergence with interpersonal level of the social ecology

In the context of this study, some aspects of factor 3 and factor 4 of the four-factor theory converge with the interpersonal level of the social ecology. The interpersonal level relates to interactions between persons within institutions. That is interactive relations between and among lecturers and students in the TCs.

Aspects of factor 3 of the four-factor theory that converge with the interpersonal level of the social ecology includes organisational variables such as professionalism, sex ratio and sexist attitudes. These variables reflect and influence interpersonal relations between and among institutional members such as faculty members and students in the context of this study. These organisational variables interact to shape interpersonal interactions within an institution and to encourage or discourage the perpetration of SH.

Professionalism affects interpersonal interactions and may or may not accentuate SH. Research indicates that SH thrives in institutions characterised by general mistreatment of institutional members. Unprofessional conduct by institutional leaders is picked up and modelled by subordinates in the institution and affects the quality of interpersonal interactions. For instance, in a study of the US military, Wood & Toppelberg (2017) concluded that professional misconduct by Officers who sometimes sexually harass and assault subordinates endorses similar acts by service members under their command. Unprofessional conduct coalesces into an institutional climate characterised by incivility that normalises rude, disrespectful, or

condescending behaviour. Incivility increases opportunities for harassing behaviour for SH and incivility occur together. Additionally, unprofessional conduct may birth institutional networks of complicity that offer protection to harassers and silence victims (Cunningham et al., 2021). These networks are key in explaining the puzzling persistence of SH in institutions despite the presence of responsive strategies in those institutions.

Sexist attitudes constitute part of an organisational culture that shapes patterns of interpersonal interaction within an institution that facilitate the perpetration of SH. Ambivalent sexism functions to normalise SH through perceiving it as trivial, isolated, and personal, or as universal, natural, or biological behaviours (Judd & Easteal, 2013). Ambivalent sexism consists of benevolent and hostile sexism. On one hand, hostile sexism involves the negative evaluation of women who do not conform to the dominant sexist ideology by confronting their harasser compared to women who do not confront the harasser (Ali et al., 2015; Herrera et al., 2014; Herrera et al., 2017; Hill. & Marshall, 2018). On the other, benevolent sexism rewards women who conform to the dominant sexist ideology and to the feminine stereotype. Thus, women who score high on acceptance of sexist myths and beliefs perceive SH as normal and trivial (Hennekam & Bennett, 2017; Herrera et al., 2017).

2.5.3. Four-factor theory convergence with the institutional level of the social ecology

Converging with the institutional level of the social ecology are some risk factors that constitute factor 3 (overcoming of external inhibitors) of the four-factor theory of SH. These factors include professionalism, existence and implementation of grievance procedures, sex ratio, privacy of workspace and sexist attitudes. Research indicates that effective and fair implementation of organisational policies and grievance procedures creates an organisational justice climate that is intolerant to SH (Rubino et al., 2017). The implementation of organisational policies and procedures is an organisational leadership function. Leader commitment to implementation of policies and enforcement of procedures sends important signals to organisational members about the organisational climate (Knapp, 2015). In fact,

institutional climate reflects the type of leadership in an organisation as Sadler et al. (2018, p. 255) note that "a leader sets the organisational tone for their unit by the way they act or what they tolerate and condone". Fair and equitable implementation of policies and procedures creates an organisational justice climate that makes employees feel valued and shapes employees' conduct toward one another (Rubino et al., 2017). They further established that an organisational justice climate, perceived at both the individual and group levels, leads to reported decreases in incidents of SH. However, a climate that is not fair and effective in implementing policies and procedures and in handling SH complaints discourages victims from reporting and accentuates SH perpetration (Broad et al., 2018; Knapp, 2015).

In addition to the adoption and implementation of grievance procedures, the sex ratio in a workplace is a variable of the four-factor theory that also resides in the institutional layer of the social ecology adopted for this study. The sex ratio refers to the population distribution between men and women in an institution. Studies demonstrate that women who work or study in a predominantly male environment or in traditionally stereotyped masculine work and study environments are more at risk of victimisation compared to those in environments characterised by gender balance (Kima et al., 2016; Willness et al., 2007). Gendered behaviour, cultural symbols of masculinity, male superiority, and sexual bravado, the devaluation of women, aggression and risk taking generally characterize male dominated or masculine institutions (Haas & Timmerman, 2010).

Another important institutional variable in SH perpetration at the institutional layer of the social ecology is the extent of professionalism within an institution. Institutions characterised by general mistreatment of institutional members accentuate SH. For instance, in a study of the US military, Wood & Toppelberg (2017) concluded that professional misconduct by Officers who sometimes sexually harass and assault subordinates endorses similar acts by service members under their command. This implies that junior members in an organisation adopt unprofessional, unethical, and improper conduct by those in positions of leadership (Knapp,

2015). The net effect of this is the creation of an institutional climate characterised by incivility that normalises rude, disrespectful, or condescending behaviour. Incivility increases opportunities for harassing behaviour for SH and incivility occur together. Organisational climates characterised by incivility make it impossible to recognise SH as offensive and discriminatory (Thomas, 2015).

Another risk factor at the institutional layer from the four-factor theory relates to the privacy of workspaces. The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2016) reports that workplaces that are isolated and offer privacy facilitate the perpetration of SH. Such private workspaces that include office spaces for institutional faculty members present individuals with a propensity to harass to perpetrate SH. In such spaces, harassment occurs behind walls, closed doors and in isolated and secluded places away from bystanders.

2.5.4. Four-factor theory convergence with the society level of the social ecology

Finally, sexism, which pervades the four-factor theory, converges with the societal level of the social ecology framework. Sexism is an overarching patriarchal ideology that differentiates men and women based on gender and socially prescribes behaviours and expectations appropriate for each gender (Herrera et al., 2017). This sexist ideology gives birth to and nurtures attitudes, beliefs and myths that deny, legitimate, and justify, through victim blaming, violence against women (Page et al., 2016; Sakallı-Uğurlu et al., 2010). Taken together a sexist ideology encourages the development of a culture of impunity about sexually violent and coercive behaviours that normalises SH (Ali et al., 2015; Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016).

Figure 2.3 presents the transposition of the four-factor theory onto the social ecological framework. This integration follows the examples of domain specific ecological models that have preceded this study. Such studies include, for example, Decker and Littleton's (2018) study on sexual revictimisation among college women and Decker et al's. (2018) study on interpersonal violence and suicide prevention and response. In both studies, the authors adapted and applied the socio ecological model to the specific domains of their research interest

Figure 2. 3

Transposition of the Four-Factor Model of Sexual Harassment onto The Socio-Ecological Framework

Socio-ecological determinants of sexual harassment derived from the Four-Factor-Theory

Factor 1: Socio-Cultural Variables
-Patriarchal Culture
-Ambivalent sexism

Factor 3: Overcoming external inhibitors
-Organisational variables: professionalism, sex ratio, grievance procedures, privacy of workspace
-Socio-cultural variables: sexist attitudes

Factor 3: Overcoming external inhibitors
-Organisational variables: professionalism, sex ratio, grievance procedures, privacy of workspace
Factor 4: Overcoming victim resistance
-job status, sex-role

Factor 1: Motivation to harass: need for power, need for control, sexual attraction
Factor 2: Overcoming internal inhibitions: fear of reprisals, fear of rejection, sexual inhibition

Community Level

Organisational/ Institutional Level

Interpersonal/ Relational Level

Individual/ Intra-personal Lavel

Institutional prevention and response strategies

-SH awareness campaigns
-National laws and policies

-SH policy
-grievance procedures
-SH training
-tertiary intervention

-SH policy
-SH training
-bystander interventions

-SH policy
-SH training
-Psychotherapy
-Counselling

Adapted fromDecker et al., (2018). An integrated public health approach to interpersonal violence and suicide prevention and response. *Public Health Reports, 133*(1-suppl), 65S-79S. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033354918800019

In this model, factor 1 and 2 (motivation to harass and overcoming internal inhibitors) of the four-factor theory align with the individual level of the social ecological model. Factor 4 (overcoming victim resistance) aligns with the relational or interpersonal level of the social ecological model. Factor 3 (overcoming external inhibitors) also aligns with the organisational level of the social ecological model.

Aligning the four factors of the four-factor theory to the social ecological model provides clarity in the identification of SH risk factors at each level of the social ecological model. Clarity in the identification of SH risk factors at the intrapersonal, interpersonal, institutional, and societal layers of the social ecology informs the development, timing and function of institutional intervention and responsive strategies appropriate for each level of the social ecology. As a result, the social ecological model of SH presented here indicates the appropriate intervention and responsive strategies for each level of the social ecological model. The model was thus fundamental to understanding institutional responsiveness to SH in two distinct ways. On one hand, the model made it possible to anticipate the institutional responsive strategies in the colleges studied. On the other hand, it enabled the evaluation of the appropriateness of the timing and function of institutional SH responsive strategies.

2.6. Chapter summary

This chapter discussed and justified the theoretical framework relevant to understanding institutional responsiveness to SH. A relevant theoretical framework offers insights into SH risk factors and is useful in suggesting the timing and function of responsive strategies. Justifying the selected theory required discussing several SH theories and dismissing them as inappropriate in capturing the complexity and multi-layering nature of SH. Accordingly, developing a relevant theoretical framework for this study involved borrowing and integrating ideas from SH, sexual violence, and developmental psycho-social domains. The study, therefore, integrated O'Hare and O'Donohue's four-factor theory of SH with Bronfenbrenner's social ecological theory. The adapted theoretical framework allows the organising of SH risk

factors according to the level at which they manifest on the social ecology. Such an organisation of risk factors enables the development, timing, function, and evaluation of institutional responsive strategies to SH. The theoretical framework discussed in this chapter informs the review of literature in the chapter that follows. To that end, the next chapter reviews literature related to this study in order to situate this study in existing literature.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.0. Introduction

The previous chapter presented the theoretical framework adopted for this study. This chapter builds on the preceding chapter by reviewing literature on institutional responsiveness to SH. A literature review is a concise examination and discussion of evidence in a particular research field (Bolderston, 2008). It thus forms an important aspect of research without which impactful research is impossible (Randolph, 2009). Literature review demonstrates that the researcher is aware of research developments in the chosen area of study. The review of related literature also helps contextualise the present study by bringing out how the current research study fits in with extant research. If competently done, a literature review should be able to justify the significance of the present study and show that the present study leads to the generation of new knowledge. This chapter begins with a review of SH prevalence. This is followed by a review of perceptions of institutional climate, institutional responsive strategies, and perceptions on the effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies.

3.1. The prevalence of sexual harassment in IHLs across the globe

The ubiquity of SH across Institutions of Higher Learning (IHLs) is well established and its prevalence well documented across the globe (Dykstra-DeVette & Tarin, 2019; Marks & An, 2019; Phipps, 2020; Suresh et al., 2014; University Grants Commission, 2013). In this section, SH prevalence studies are reviewed. It is worthwhile to note that while there is extensive literature to review from the developed world on SH in IHLs, there is a dearth of such literature from Africa except for countries like Nigeria and Ethiopia. SH, for now, seems not to have attracted much research interest in Africa for it is considered a sensitive and taboo topic (Kayuni, 2009) that most are not willing to engage with. Prevalence studies across the globe predominantly adopt a cross-sectional survey approach that involves the administration of a structured questionnaire and the use of descriptive and inferential statistics to estimate SH

prevalence in studied populations. Additionally, the studies either exclusively focus on female or both male and female students. This review is organised based on whether studies exclusively focus on female or both male and female students.

Studies with an exclusive focus on female students have established high SH prevalence rates of SH victimisation among female students in IHLs. One such study by Fasting, et al. (2014) compared the SH of students in sporting departments of universities across 3 countries in the EU (Greece, Norway, and Czech) in sport and educational settings. Respondents reported having experienced more SH from males in education (38%) than in sport (34%) with coaches (18%) being more of the perpetrators than lecturers (17%) by a percentage point. Importantly, the study by Fasting et al highlights the ubiquity of SH across social contexts which suggests that SH pervades all facets of social life. Similarly, a cross-sectional survey of 351 Italian University women by Romito et al. (2017) established that 146 (41.8%) had experienced SH in the year preceding the study. Of those who had experienced SH, 15.5% reported having experienced sexual coercion, 23.7% gender harassment, 22.4% cyber harassment, and 15.7% had experienced severe forms of harassment. The study did not, however, indicate who the perpetrators were. An important contribution of this study is its demonstration that SH prevalence rates decrease with harassment severity. Additionally, the study also incorporates new forms of technologically facilized SH such as cyber harassment. In this way, the study augments traditional conceptualisation of SH.

In the UK, The National Union of Students (NUS) conducted an online national survey of female students' experiences with sexual violence including SH in IHLs between August 2009 and March 2010. A total of 2058 responses were received. The size of the sample used for the NUS study increases the validity of findings from the study and it meets recommendations for studying large sample sizes (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018). A key finding was that 68% of the women respondents had experienced one form or the other of SH. Women (65%) in the study reported verbal SH as the most prevalent form of SH

experienced on campus. In total, 3833 incidents of verbal harassment were reported by 1210 of the respondents. Of verbal harassment behaviours, the behaviours most experienced included "making sexual comments and sexual noises that made the respondent feel uncomfortable" (NUS, 2011, p. 12). Additionally, 34% of the respondents in the NUS survey indicated that they had experienced one or the other of behaviours categorised as physical SH while 8% had experienced sexual coercion.

In the United States of America (US), Yoon et al. (2010) established, from a study of 422 female participants drawn from two (one predominantly Caucasian and the other historically black) universities in the Southeast of the US, that 97% (374/410) of the study participants had experienced at least one sexually harassing event. The most prevalent harassment type was gender harassment (94%), followed by unwanted sexual attention (92%), and then sexual coercion (43%). Data were collected through the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) that was reported to have alpha reliability levels of .935 and .938. Chi-square tests and independent sample t-tests were performed on the data. The significance of this study lies in its use of a standardised and established instrument. This is important for comparing results with results from studies that utilised the same instrument and also in informing instrument choice in this present study.

Studies with an exclusive focus on female students have also documented high prevalence of SH in IHLs on the African continent. For example, a cross-sectional study of 295 female students carried out at Ebonyi State University in Nigeria by Ogbonnaya et al. (2011) established high prevalence rates of SH with 108 (36.7%) of the participants reporting that they had experienced SH at least once on campus. Out of this, 35 (32.4%) were forced sexual intercourse while 73 (67.6%) were other forms of unwanted sexual contact including indecent touching, romance, and kisses. Survey data were collected using a structured questionnaire and the data were analysed using Epi-Info software package version 3.5.1 (2008 edition). Analysis involved computation of the chi-square statistic of significance with the significance value set

at $p \leq 0.05$. Sill in Nigeria, Geidam et al. (2010) also established high prevalence rates of sexual coercion in a university setting in Maiduguri, Nigeria. Based on questionnaire data from a cross-sectional survey of 400 female students, Geidam et al. (2010) established a 51.3% prevalence rate of sexual assault which is a more severe form of SH falling under the category of sexual coercion.

Studies from East Africa have established prevalence patterns like those documented in West Africa. For instance, a cross-sectional survey of Jimma University in Ethiopia by Mamuru et al. (2015) established that the prevalence rates of physical, verbal, and nonverbal SH at the University were 78.2% (n=301), 90.4% (n=348) and 80.0% (n=308), respectively. 3.5% (n=15), 6.6% (n=36), and 3.8% (n=16) of respondents indicated that lecturers were responsible for physical, verbal, and nonverbal SH respectively. Findings from the study were based on data collected through a structured questionnaire from a statistically determined random sample of 385 female student respondents from across faculties at the university. The collected data were subjected to chi-square analysis, and multiple regression analysis. This particular study brings to the fore challenges with multiple conceptualisations of SH which makes it difficult to compare results from studies that adopt different conceptualisation of SH. The study by Mamuru et al used the physical, verbal, and non-verbal typology while other studies use the tripartite model of SH consisting of gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion. To enhance comparability between studies, it is important that studies adopt the same conceptualisation of SH. Another study at the same University on female students by Kassahun (2009) indicated that 50% of the participants had experienced one form of act or behaviour that is considered SH. Tora (2013) also conducted a cross-sectional survey of female undergraduate students at Wolaita Sodo University in Ethiopia. A statistically calculated sample of 345 was generated. Collected data were subjected to descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. 18.7% of the respondents reported having experienced verbal harassment. Additionally, 23.4% reported having experienced attempted rape while 8.7% experienced completed rape. 24.2%

indicated that they had experienced physical harassment. The drawback about this study is that it did not ask students about their experiences at university alone but about their experiences even before enrolling with the university. This makes it difficult to estimate SH prevalence within the university setting. In another cross-sectional study of 484 regular female Wolaita Sodo University students from Ethiopia, Adinew and Hago (2017) report that 16.2% of the studied sample had experienced SH in the year in which the study was conducted. An important thread in the studies reviewed this far is the use of the cross-sectional survey design in estimating SH prevalence in the IHLs studied. The consistent use of the cross-sectional survey design is an important precedent that supports the adoption of the same design in this present study.

Studies in IHLs in Zimbabwe have also documented shocking rates of SH prevalence. For instance, Munondo (2017) notes that a Female Students' Support Network baseline survey conducted in tertiary institutions in Zimbabwe established that 98% of the female students encounter SH in one way or the other with male lecturers as the major perpetrators of SH in tertiary institutions. These findings are consistent with findings by Dhlomo et al. (2012) who also concluded, from a study of an unnamed IHL in Zimbabwe, that 31% of the research sample indicated that they had experienced some form of SH. Of the SH type, almost half of the sampled students (46%, 63) reported that they had experienced gender harassment. Almost a third of the respondents (29%, 39) had been inappropriately touched. 22% of the respondents reported being subtly threatened with retaliation for not being sexually cooperative and 15% had experienced sexual bribery. The sample consisted 136 female students who were selected following the principles of systematic random sampling. The sampled students completed a sexual experience questionnaire (SEQ). The generated data were statistically analysed using descriptive statistics. A reliance on descriptive statistics is the major weakness of this study because conclusions cannot be based on descriptive statistics alone.

Studies that exclusively focus on female students miss the nuance and perspective offered by studies that incorporate the perspective of male students and faculty members. Studies that exclusively focus on women perpetuate the perception that SH is a female thing. Such studies lack completeness and comprehensiveness.

Studies that have focused on both female and male students also report high prevalence rates of SH in IHLs. For instance, a study of the SH of graduate students at a large, Pacific–Northwestern public university in the US established that over one third of female graduate students had been sexually harassed by a professor or a staff member (Rosenthal et al., 2016). The sample consisted of 539 (324 female, 201 male, 13 genderqueer or transgender, and 1 unspecified). Measures included the Sexual Experiences Survey-Revised. Study findings indicated that female graduate students were 1.64 times more likely to have experienced at least 1 of the 18 SEQ items from faculty or staff (38.3%) compared to male participants (23.4%). Additionally, 38.2% female and 23% male graduate students had experienced SH at the hands of faculty. The most reported harassment behaviours included sexist or sexually offensive language, gestures, or pictures (59.1%), with 6.4% involving unwanted sexual attention, 4.7% involving unwanted touching, and 3.5% involving subtle or explicit bribes or threats. The strength of this study lies in its incorporation of the perspective of both male and female students and faculty members. The adoption of the SEQ in this study highlights the importance of the SEQ as an established instrument in SH research. Its adoption in this present study is thus informed by prior research.

In another study of SH experiences among 108 graduate students in the US, Lorenz et al. (2019) established an overall prevalence rate of 86%. Of the 86% who reported having experienced some form of harassment, 88% were female and other individuals who self-identified as female. Faculty members were mainly identified as perpetrators of harassing behaviours. Frequently experienced forms of harassment included sexist gender harassment (82%) and crude gender harassment (60%). Unwanted sexual attention (42%) and electronic harassment (22%) were the

third and fourth frequently experienced harassing behaviours. The least experienced form of harassment was sexual coercion (17%). The inclusion of new forms of SH such as electronic harassment is an important contribution of this study. This new form of SH is categorised as electronic SH in this study and as cyber harassment in other studies. Such anomalies in categorisation require that conceptualisation of new forms of technologically facilitated SH be streamlined to facilitate comparability between studies.

These findings are consistent with findings by Cantor et al. in a 2015 American Association for Universities (AAU) commissioned campus climate survey of the University of Arizona. Cantor et al. (2015), in their report on the University of Arizona, report that 52.7% of student survey participants reported having experienced some form of SH. Many students (42.3%) reported experiencing inappropriate comments about their body, appearance, or sexual behaviour and 32% experienced sexual remarks, or insulting or offensive jokes or stories. Of the students who indicated having experienced SH, female students (62.4% undergraduate and 54.1% graduate students) reported having experienced SH more than male students (45.9% undergraduate and 32.6% graduate students). On one hand, more undergraduate students (94.1% of female undergraduates and 93.3% of male undergraduates) than graduate students (82.1% female graduate and 86.6% male graduate) indicated that the harasser was a student. On the other hand, more graduate students (24.4% female and 18.7% male graduate) than undergraduate students (7% of female and 6.6% of male undergraduates) reported the harasser to be a faculty member. The differences in SH experiences between undergraduate and graduate students with respect to perpetrators highlight the importance of contact time between a potential perpetrator and a would-be victim in SH perpetration. Accordingly, graduate students reported faculty members as SH perpetrators more than undergraduate students because of extended contact time between graduate students and faculty members than the contact time between undergraduate students and their lecturers. The more extended the contact time, the more likely SH perpetration and victimisation is to occur.

Furthermore, Cantor et al. (2019) report, in an AAU commissioned campus climate survey of Stanford University, that overall, 46.8 % of student participants in the climate survey at Stanford University indicated that they had been victims of SH since enrolment at the University. More students (30.5%) reported experiencing insulting or offensive sexual remarks or jokes, slightly above a third of the students (38.2%) indicated having experienced inappropriate comments about their or someone else's body, appearance, or sexual activities, about a fifth of the students (16.3%) reported having heard sexual things or had someone wanting them to talk about sexual matters against their will, 5.6% indicated being subjected to offensive sexual remarks to or about them through social or on-line media, and 9.8% had someone continually ask them out or to have sex even after saying "no''. Female students reported having experienced SH more (37.0% of undergraduate and 26.3% graduate) than male students (13.0% of undergraduates and 8.1% graduate). About 9 out of 10 respondents (89.3%) reported that the harassers were fellow students. 4.3% of undergraduates and 22.2% graduate students indicated that the harasser was a faculty member or instructor.

In the Oceania region, The Australian Human Rights Commission [AHRC] (2017) established, from a national cross-sectional survey of a sample of 30,930 (14,227 male, 16,267 female) university students, that 21% of students had been sexually harassed in a university setting in 2016. Furthermore, the survey showed that "women were almost twice as likely as men to have been sexually harassed in a university setting in 2016" (AHRC, 2017, p. 34). Accordingly, of the students (21%) who reported having been harassed in 2016, 25% were female and 15% were male. Additionally, many of the students (71%) who reported having been harassed indicated that the harasser was male. These findings confirm the male harasser and female victim dyad. The forms of SH that were mostly experienced included inappropriate staring or leering (14%), sexually suggestive comments or jokes (11%), and intrusive questions about an individual's private life or physical appearance (9%). On the lower end, the least common forms of SH experienced were unwelcome touching, hugging, cornering, or kissing (7%),

inappropriate physical contact (5%), and sexual gestures, indecent exposure, or inappropriate display of the body (5%). About three-quarters (68%) of the students who had been harassed identified the harasser as a student from their university while approximately a tenth (7%) identified the harasser as a university faculty member.

In Asia, prevalence rates conform to established world patterns. For example, Endut et al. (2011) carried out a study in Malaysia at the Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). The study sample consisted of 369 male and female undergraduate students at three campuses of the university. Respondents completed a survey questionnaire. The study established that 75.1 % of the sampled students had experienced SH at least once. Of the 75.1% students who reported having experienced SH, female students (173, 62.5 %) reported having experienced SH more than male students (104, 37.5%). The survey data were analysed using SPSS 17 software. Similarly, in India, the trend remains the same with a multi-method study documenting SH prevalence rate of 68.3% among female respondents and interviewed faculty members suggesting "that sexual harassment occurs on a daily basis" (Das, 2015, p. 37). The study sample comprised 600 students and 80 faculty members. The student component of the sample responded to a questionnaire that consisted of both open and closed ended items. The faculty members were interviewed. The strength of the study lay in the incorporation of both quantitative and qualitative data in one study that enhanced the validity of study findings.

Studies of both female and male students in IHLs in Africa also report high prevalence rates of SSH. In one cross-sectional study of female students from five IHLs in Osun state of Nigeria, Taiwo et al. (2014) established a 97% respondent awareness about occurrence of SH. The study sample consisted 2500 male and female students selected through random sampling. Respondents completed a structured questionnaire that had a reported Cronbach's alpha of r=0.79. The study established disturbing prevalence of sexual coercion in the form of rape (75%), and moderate rates for unwanted physical contact (15%) and offer of sex for marks (10%). 98.8% of respondents indicated that lecturers were the main perpetrators. In another

study, Imonikhe et al. (2011) concluded from a cross-sectional survey of several IHLs in Edo state of Nigeria during the 2009/ 2010 academic year that the prevalence and range of SH is extensive in Nigerian institutions. The survey sample of 400 was randomly selected. The sample comprised 100 male students, 100 female students, 120 male lecturers, and 80 female lecturers (200 students and 200 lecturers). In the study, both students and lecturers reported very disturbing prevalence rates of harassing behaviours with sexual comment content jokes and gestures (94.5% lecturers and 99% students); touched, grabbed or punched in a sexual way (95% lecturers; 97% students); leaned over or cornered (82% lecturers; 92% students); receiving sexual notes or pictures (89% lecturers; 97 students); pressured to do something sexual other than kissing (95.5% lecturer; 93.5% students); intentionally brushed up against in a sexual way (97% lecturer; 92.5% students); had your way blocked in a sexual way (80% lecturers; 88.5% students); had clothing pulled in a sexual way (92% lecturers; 95% students); had clothing pulled off or down (75% lecturers; 85% students); forced to kiss someone (76% lecturers; 69% students); and had sexual message written about you on public walls (80% lecturers; 85% students).

A descriptive survey of university students' experiences with SH at the University of Lagos and Lagos State University by Abe (2011) established gender differences in experience of SH. More females than males in the study reported having experienced some form of SH. Experiences according to harassment type showed that 85% and 81% of female and 23% and 4% of male respondents had experienced physical and verbal harassment respectively. The sample consisted of 400 randomly selected students evenly split between males and females from the faculties of education of the University of Lagos and Lagos State University. Data analysis was in the form of simple frequency percentages. The data analysis is the major weakness of the study for conclusions cannot be based on descriptive statics in the form of simple percentages. Norman et al. (2013) also studied a sample of 409 medical students enrolled in 4 public medical schools in the Accra, Cape Coast, Kumasi, and Tamale regions of Ghana. 394 of the sampled

students responded to a structured questionnaire and the remaining 15 participated in interviews. The study established that female students (61%) were more likely to be harassed than male students (39%). Harassing behaviours that were most reported included sexual bribery and unwanted sexual comments or jokes.

Findings from South Africa are consistent with findings from other regions in Africa. Oni et al. (2019) conducted a cross-sectional study of 338 resident students in one IHL in the Limpopo province of South Africa. The sample was statistically determined. The sampled students responded to a survey questionnaire and chi-square tests of significance were conducted on the generated data. More female student respondents (25.3%) than male students (17.3%) indicated that they had personally experienced unwanted touching while slightly more male students (36.5%) than female students (35.5%) reported having witnessed unwanted touching. More female students (18.4%) than male students (12.2%) indicated that they had experienced unwanted sexual advances. Again, slightly more females (39.2%) than males (37.4%) had witnessed sex-related jokes at the university. There were no significant gender differences in the number of students who indicated having experienced sexual coercion for 10.8% of males and 10,2% of females reported having been personally coerced into a sexual relationship. About a fifth of both female (18.6%) and male (18.6%) students reported having observed other students being subjected to sexual coercion. There were marginal differences between female (74.2%) and male (70.5%) students who reported being aware of sexual coercion at the university. About a twentieth of both males (5.1%) and female (5.4%) reported having been intimidated into submitting to unwanted sexual advances in return for marks. Additionally, no significant differences were found between males (75.0%) and females (76.3%) in reporting awareness of sexual bribery. Findings from this study indicate that female and male students' experiences of SH at the university are almost similar. While the study reports on SH experiences of students at the university studied, it is silent on who the harassers are. The study thus does not address a fundamental question related to students' experiences with SH in IHLs.

It only seems logical that a study on prevalence of SH should equally report on the perpetrators of the harassing behaviours.

Shumba and Matina (2002) conducted a multi-method study into students' experiences with SH in an unnamed IHL offering the diploma in education in Zimbabwe. Data were collected from a random sample of 82 students (61, 74% female and 22, 26% male) through a semi-structured questionnaire, document analysis, and face to face interviews. Sample size determination was not described and justified. Most of the sampled students (20/22, 90% male and 48/61, 79% female) indicated that male lecturers sexually harass female students. Of the sampled female students (40/61, 66%) reported that lecturers had requested sexual favours from them. The strength of the study lay in soliciting data from both male and female students using multiple methods. However, the data were analysed through descriptive statistics and conclusions cannot be based on descriptive statistics.

The studies reviewed demonstrate the prevalence of SH in HEIs across countries. Also common to these studies is the finding that SH is a phenomenon mainly experienced by female students within IHLs even though male students also report experiencing SH (Foster & Fullagar, 2018; Omorogiuwa, 2018). Additionally, males are consistently shown as perpetrators of harassment as students and as lecturers. Furthermore, reviewed studies are consistent in demonstrating that gender harassment is the most prevalent form of harassment followed by unwanted sexual attention, and then sexual coercion. To some extent, the high prevalence of SH in the studies reviewed may point to tolerant and permissive institutional climates. Accordingly, institutions have a responsibility to institute and implement responsive measures directed at addressing SH on campuses. Another significant observation from the reviewed studies is methodological differences in in studying SH across studies. These differences render it difficult to compare results from different studies. For example, there exists differences in instrumentation and analysis procedures between studies. It is, therefore, important to do away with these methodological differences in order to arrive at results that are comparable between studies.

3.2. Institutional tolerance for sexual harassment in IHLs

Institutional tolerance denotes institutional practices and processes or the absence of such practices and processes that create a campus climate permissive of SH perpetration (Perez-Larrazabal et al., 2019). Accordingly, the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2018, p. 46) contends that "the greatest predictors of the occurrence of sexual harassment are organisational". This means that institutional or contextual factors account for SH more than individual perpetrator or victim factors (Willness et al., 2007). Thus, the context matters in accounting for SH within IHLs.

Institutional tolerance serves, on one hand, to protect perpetrators and encourage them to harass with impunity. On the other hand, it accentuates the vulnerability of those groups at risk of victimisation. SH tolerant institutions increase the vulnerability of those at risk through nurturing the perception that it is risky to formally report harassing behaviours, trivialising reports of SH, and not taking the reporting victim seriously, denying victims access to functional institutional support systems or not having those support systems in place at all, and not sanctioning perpetrators. In tolerant climates, Whitley & Page (2015, p. 36) observe, women's accounts of SH "tend to be widely discounted and disbelieved". Thus, SH thrives in tolerant institutional climates whose defining features include "inadequate organisational policies and procedures, managerial rationalisation, and inertia" (Ollo-López & Nuñez, 2018, p. 177). Successfully dealing with SH would require transforming an institutional climate so that it becomes intolerant to SH.

Hulin et al. (1996) developed three variables useful in measuring organisational tolerance for SH. These variables include the perception of risk associated with filing a harassment complaint, the perception of the seriousness with which an institution would handle the report

of SH, and the perception of the extent to which an institution would appropriately sanction a reported perpetrator. Based on these three variables, they developed the Organisational Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (OTSHI) as a measure of institutional tolerance for SH or a measure of campus climate regarding SH. A campus climate in which members perceive it risky to file a formal harassment complaint, that the institution will not treat the complaint and the complainant seriously, and that the institution will not sanction the perpetrator appropriately enables SH perpetration and aggravates the vulnerability of campus community groups such as students. Accordingly, "risks to individuals who report SH, lack of sanctions against offenders, and/or the perception that reporting SH will not be taken seriously" (Working Group report to the Advisory Committee to the NIH Director [ACD], 2019, p. 5) are characteristic of SH tolerant climates.

3.2.1. Perceptions of risk in filing a harassment complaint with college

SH remains underreported in IHLs with reporting rates established to be as low as 3% (Social Science Research Lab [SDSU], 2019), 12.2% (Massachusetts Institute of Technology [MIT], 2019), 5.6% (Holland & Cortina, 2017) and 10.3% (University of Illinois, 2015). In a national survey of Australian universities, the Australian Human Rights Commission (2017) reported that 94% of SH and 87% of sexual assault victims did not file a formal complaint with their university. There is thus irrefutable research evidence that SH is, indeed, an underreported phenomenon. Among the reasons for SH underreporting is the risk associated with reporting or, as Sabir et al. (2018, p. 1) describe it, "perceived costs of reporting". In institutions where campus community members perceive it as risky to file an SH complaint, victims tend not to report or to underreport incidents of SH to campus offices. Underreporting thus creates silence around SH and makes it a difficult problem to detect (Delaet & Mills, 2018). The downside of underreporting is that institutions exploit underreporting in claiming that SH is either a non-existent or peripheral problem that does not merit institutional attention.

Risk of filing a harassment complaint includes victim fear of retaliation from offending lecturers or their associates. The potential for retaliation is accentuated in an IHL environment in which SH is dismissed, normalised, and trivialised (Aguilari & Baek, 2020; Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017; Holland & Cortina, 2017) and in which power differentials between lecturers and students skewed in favour of the former are huge (Bloom et al., 2021; Cantalupo& Kidder, 2018; Crittenden et al. 2018; Dhlomo et al., 2012; Joseph, 2015; Stabile, 2018; Whitley & Page, 2015; Eller, 2014; Namaganda et al., 2021; Vohlídalová, 2015). Risk of retaliation is commonly cited by students as a barrier to harassment reporting (Broad et al., 2018; Holland & Cortina, 2017; Namaganda et al., 2021; Vohlídalová, 2015). For example, 22% of student respondents in a 2017 AAU commissioned survey of 27 universities in the United States of America indicated that reporting harassment would be followed by retaliation thus making it risky to report (Cantor et al., 2017). Fear of retaliation was also reported in a campus wide survey of the University of Arizona. Survey results indicate that 25.4 % of the student respondents suggested that reporting a perpetrator would be followed by retaliation (Cantor et al., 2015). The potential of retaliation thus dissuades harassment victims from filing a complaint with university.

The fear of retaliation can be significantly reduced if institutions guarantee adequate safety and protection for reporting students. While 22% of respondents in the 2017 Cantor et al. survey reported fear of retaliation, 67.3% of respondents in an Ohio State University climate survey indicated that they were confident that the university would protect reporting students from retaliation (Ohio State University, 2017). Perception of risk of retaliation thus varies with institution depending on the level of protection that an institution extends to reporting students. In some institutions the risk of retaliation perception is very high while in others it is not. Additionally, perception of retaliation also varies with gender. Earlier research has demonstrated that female students are more likely than male students to report fear of retaliation. For example, in a University of Arizona survey, more female (27.7%) than male

(23%) undergraduate students at the University of Arizona were likely to report that a complaint of SH would be followed by retaliation (Cantor et al., 2015). Accordingly, female students, possibly because they are at heightened risk of victimisation and thus are more likely to experience the risks associated with reporting, are more likely than male students to perceive it as risky to file a formal harassment complaint with college.

Additionally, perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint is heightened when a university's grievance procedures and its grievance resolution processes are viewed as unlikely to result in an impartial investigation and a satisfactory resolution of a complaint (Namaganda et al., 2021; Sabir et al., 2018). A compromised and ineffective grievance procedure exposes reporting students to revictimisation and retaliation. For instance, grievance procedures in which case management personnel double up as lecturers may make it difficult for such lecturers to be impartial in cases involving other lecturers (Namaganda et al., 2021). If the risk is greater than perceived benefits of reporting, then a climate tolerant to SH is engendered (Idowu & Yahaya, 1993) and underreporting becomes an institutional norm. An institutional climate that engenders underreporting inadvertently extends protection to perpetrators and, in so doing, it increases opportunities for harassment perpetration (Decker & Littleton, 2018). Accordingly, some student victims of SH in IHLs indicate that they do not file complaint reports with their institutions because they lack confidence in their institution acting judiciously on their complaints. A 2019 campus climate survey by Johns Hopkins University established that about 22% of the students indicating not having filed a report with the university had not done so because they lacked confidence in the university acting on their reports with fairness. Similar reasons for not reporting were established in a climate survey of the University of Utah in which reasons for not reporting included fears that nothing would be done (23%), fears of retaliation (16%), and fears about confidentiality (16%) (University of Utah, 2019). In another survey, almost half (42.2%) of the student respondents indicated that they were not confident that the university would act on the perpetrators of harassment (Loui et al., 2019) while 16.8% of

students who did not report to a university office at New York University indicated that they had not reported because they did not think that the university would do anything about their reports (National Campus Climate Survey, 2016). Qualitative findings from a study by Sabir et al. (2018, p. 6) also found that "participants were overwhelmingly negative about the likelihood of anything positive coming from a report to university authorities". Ineffective grievance procedures thus contribute towards building a student perception that it is risky to file harassment complaints with universities. Once the perception that it is risky to file a harassment complaint with college or university crystalises, student reporting of SH plummets.

Perception on institutional fairness in handling harassment complaints varies with university. For example, Bystrynski and Allen (2017) carried out a campus climate survey of the University of Illinois in which 86% of the respondents indicated that the university would be fair in handling a grievance report. Other surveys have established low student confidence in the university conducting a fair investigation. In one such study, 44.9% of survey respondents indicated that the university would conduct a fair investigation (Loui et al., 2019). Accordingly, more than half of the survey respondents did not perceive the university as likely to conduct a fair investigation. Research evidence demonstrating institutional variations in perception that an institution would handle complaints fairly validates observations that it is institution specific conditions that engender perceptions about institutional tolerance or intolerance to SH. Additionally, perception that an institution would conduct a fair and transparent investigation has been shown to vary with respondent gender, and by extension, respondent's risk of victimisation. Those at heightened risk of victimisation are more likely to hold a low perception of the university likelihood to conduct a fair investigation. Accordingly, one campus climate survey established that more male (42.8% undergraduate, 58.7% graduate) than female students (28.8% undergraduate, 42.2% graduate) were likely to perceive that the university would conduct a satisfactory and fair investigation (Bystrynski & Allen, 2017). Not only does perception of institutional climate vary with respondent gender, it also varies with respondent

status as either victim or perpetrator. For example, Moore and Mennicke (2019) report from secondary analysis of online survey data obtained from 2248 students who responded to a primary survey in which 579 studentsofa south-eastern university in the UK identified as either perpetrators or victims of SH through a filtering process. Secondary analysis of the data indicated that students who identified as victims had lower-level perceptions of their university climate compared to those students identified as perpetrators.

Perception of risk not only depends on the extent to which the grievance procedures guarantee fair investigations but also on the extent to which the grievance process guarantees victim privacy and confidentiality (Bystrynski & Allen, 2017; Holland & Cortina, 2017; Sabir et al., 2018). Procedures that do not guarantee victim privacy and confidentiality accentuate the risk associated with harassment reporting. A climate survey conducted at University of Illinois also established that 81% of all students (80.5% of women, 85.0% of men) held the perception that the University would respect the privacy of an SH complainant (University of Illinois, 2015). A campus that is not perceived as extending adequate protection and support to victims, Lay (2019) notes, communicates to those at heightened risk of victimisation that

> Their experiences are not important, that they are not worthy of being safe in their workplaces, that their word is questionable, and that any repercussions of harassment are their own personal problems. Everything in the process says "Go away" to those who report (p. 159).

Questioning the credibility of victim reports of harassment and lumping on them the burden of proof makes it risky for victims to report SH (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017; Sabir et al., 2018).

Studies that gauge campus climate on the African continent are rare. In one rare study, Molla & Cuthbert (2014, p. 770) note, from a qualitative study of women's experiences in two public universities in Ethiopia, that "there is both a lack of protection against, and appropriate disciplinary responses to, the sexually hostile encounters [students] face on campus." The lack

of protection for victims and university reluctance to appropriately sanction perpetrators, they note, create an environment that, on one hand, disempowers SH victims from reporting and, on the other, encourages persistent SH perpetration. Under such circumstances, the university environment tacitly protects harassers and becomes a haven for sexual predation while being hostile to student victims of SH.

Research evidence suggests that universities and colleges are fraught with risks for reporting SH to university. The risks associated with victim reporting account for SH underreporting which has two adverse consequences. On one hand, underreporting creates the illusion that SH is a peripheral or a non-existent institutional problem requiring little, if any, institutional attention. Underreporting is thus conveniently used to justify institutional inaction. On the other hand, underreporting drives further perpetration for harassers have nothing to fear given that they almost always never get reported for harassment perpetration. The multiple risks associated with SH reporting contribute towards the creation of an SH tolerant institutional climate that is facilitative of SH perpetration.

3.2.2. Perceptions on likelihood of a sexual harassment complainant being taken seriously

Several campus climate surveys indicate that the perception of campus community members on the likelihood of IHLs treating a student complainant of SH or a complaint of harassment seriously. Variations in this perception have been established between universities in several surveys with one survey of multiple campuses in the United States of America establishing that the percentage of students who perceive it as highly likely for their university to do so ranged from a low of 46% to a high of 77% (Cantor et al., 2017).

Campus climate surveys reporting this include a survey of the University of Illinois. 87% of the survey respondents indicated that the university would treat grievance reports seriously (Bystrynski & Allen, 2017). Similarly, results from a climate survey at Ohio State University indicated that about 70% of respondents perceived the university as likely to treat an SH complaint seriously (Ohio State University, 2017). Other campus surveys have not

established as high a proportion of respondents indicating confidence that a university would treat an SH report seriously. In one such study, Omorogiuwa (2018) established that lack of confidence in university responsiveness to SH discouraged student victims from reporting. Despite this, the perceptions in the other surveys remain positive and high. Examples of these surveys include an AAU commissioned campus climate survey of Stanford University. Cantor et al. (2019) report that 67.2% of the students at Stanford University hold the perception that it was extremely likely that the university would take a harassment complaint seriously. In another 2017 Cantor et al. survey of 27 universities, aggregated data indicated that 63% of student respondents reported that the university would take a harassment complaint seriously. These survey results indicate that survey respondents across institutions perceive it as likely that a university would treat a harassment complaint or complainant seriously. However, treating a complaint or complainant seriously is no guarantee that the university would appropriately sanction a lecturer reported for student SH nor does it mean that such a university has low risks associated with filing a harassment report. Accordingly, it is the interplay between perception of risk, perception of the seriousness with which a report will be treated, and perception of the likelihood of an offending lecturer being appropriately sanctioned that creates perception of institutional intolerance to SH.

Campus climate survey results indicate statistically significant gender differences in perception that a university would treat a harassment complaint or complainant seriously. Respondents at high risk of victimisation consistently hold low perceptions of the likelihood that a university would treat a harassment complaint seriously than those respondents not at high risk of victimisation. Accordingly, males are more likely than females to perceive a university as likely to treat a harassment complaint seriously. For example, Cantor et al., (2019) reports that 70.7% of male (70% undergraduate, 81.2% graduate) compared to 48.1% of female (48.1% undergraduate, 64.4% graduate) respondents perceived it as highly likely that a student complaint would be taken seriously by the universities surveyed. The finding on gender

variation in perception of likelihood with which an institution would treat a harassment complaint seriously is corroborated by other survey results such as climate survey results on Ohio State University. The results indicate that male (78.3% undergraduates, 76.7% graduate and professionals) were more likely than female students (62.4% undergraduates, 64.6% of graduate and professionals) (Ohio State University, 2017). Similar gender variations were recorded in a survey of the university of Manitoba with more male (88%) than female students (76.3%) indicating that the university would take a harassment complaint seriously (Peter et al., 2019). Thus, those population segments at low-risk than those at high risk of victimisation tend to perceive the university as likely to treat a harassment complaint seriously. An explanation for this variation could be that individuals who have been victims or those at heightened risk of victimisation have perceptions built from interactions with case management structures within universities while those at low risk of victimisation lack such experiences with institutional case management structures. Additionally, survey results from the university of Manitoba also indicate the respondent perceptions differ based on who the perpetrator is. These results varied according to who was the perpetrator. Survey results show that when the perpetrator is a member of faculty the perception is low (43.3%) but high (75.0%) when the perpetrator is not faculty or a member of staff (Peter et al., 2019).

The positive perceptions that surveys have demonstrated respondents have in the likelihood of universities treating a harassment complaint seriously do not necessarily translate into increased SH reporting by students (Moylan et al., 2018). This signifies that treating a harassment complaint seriously is not a sufficient condition for stimulating reporting. It neither negates reporting risks nor does it guarantee appropriate institutional sanctioning of the reported offender. Consequently, other important conditions need also to be satisfied for an increase in reporting to be realised. These other conditions may need to consider the reasons for victim underreporting of SH. Reasons cited by survey respondents for not reporting SH include the perception that victims did not think college resources could help them, they had no desire to

stir trouble for the perpetrator, they feared retaliation, they thought they could handle it themselves, thought it was not serious enough, and they were embarrassed, ashamed, or that it would be too emotionally difficult (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017; Cantor et al., 2017, 2019, 2020; Deloveh & Cattaneo, 2017; Holland & Cortina, 2017; Mamuru et al., 2015; Namaganda et al., 2021; Sabir et al., 2018). Encouraging victim reporting also requires that institutions demonstrate to the campus community that reported perpetrators will be appropriately sanctioned.

3.2.3. Perceptions on likelihood of offending lecturer being appropriately sanctioned

Appropriate institutional sanctioning of a harassment perpetrator is an important element in building perceptions about institutional tolerance or intolerance to SH. It is considered a key factor in encouraging victim reporting of SH and in addressing SH in IHLs (Foster & Fullagar, 2018; Omorogiuwa, 2018). It is the interaction between a high perception that the institution will treat a harassment complaint seriously, a high perception that an offending lecturer will be appropriately sanctioned, and a low perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint that is likely to lead to increased SH reporting. The perception that a university or college will appropriately sanction an offending perpetrator of harassment differs with institution. In some institutions, the perception is high while in others it is low.

In one AAU commissioned campus climate survey of the University of Arizona, 45.3 % of the respondents indicated that it was highly likely that campus officials would act against the offender (Cantor et al., 2015). This suggests that more than half of the respondents perceived it as unlikely that an offending lecturer would be appropriately sanctioned. The perception that the university would take appropriate action against offenders varies with gender with male (53.1% undergraduate, 50.5% graduate) than female students (39.2% undergraduate, 34% graduate) likely to report that the university would take appropriate action. In another AAU commissioned survey of Harvard University, Cantor et al. (2015) established that students at the university have a low perception of the likelihood of the university appropriately

sanctioning perpetrators of harassment. Of the survey respondents, 32.3% indicated that it was likely that university officials would act against a reported offender. The survey results indicate that more male (34.9% undergraduate, 44.5% graduate) than female students (15.6 % undergraduate, 26.5% graduate) were likely to hold the perception that campus officials would act against a reported perpetrator. The low perceptions of student respondents perceiving it as likely that the university would appropriately sanction an offender are corroborated with findings from qualitative research. For example, Bloom et al. (2021, p. 22) established from a qualitative study in the United States of America that universities poorly responded to student SH with offending lecturers "often fac[ing] only a slap on the wrist, if there are repercussions at all". In this way, universities and colleges do not appropriately sanction offending lecturers. These low perception levels signify what DeLoveh and Cattaneo (2017) report from a study of a large mid-Atlantic university campus to be a student concern about the likelihood of the university imposing appropriate sanctions on the offender.

Similar results were obtained from a nation-wide AAU commissioned campus survey. Aggregated survey results indicate that 44.6% of student respondents drawn from 27 campuses indicated that university officials were likely to act appropriately against an offending perpetrator (Cantor et al., 2017). The 2017 survey results also indicated the existence of gender differences in the perception that the universities would act on the reported harasser. More male (54.2% undergraduate, 51.4 % graduate) than female students (37.4 % undergraduate, 33.6 % graduate) were likely to hold the perception that campus officials would act against the offender. Results from the nation-wide survey indicate a low perception that the university would act against the offender. This, somehow, is consistent with results based on crowd sourced data from several universities in the United States of America that established that respondents (34%) indicated that the universities did not act on harassment reports and 6.5% were not sure if the university had acted on reported cases. Of the survey respondents, only 9% reported that some action had been taken (Aguilar & Baek, 2020). Qualitative findings also

seem to suggest negative perceptions about the likelihood of a university appropriately sanctioning an offender. For example, Holland & Cortina (2017) found that participants in their study believed that the institution would inappropriately respond or not respond at all. One participant in the study was reported to have said that "misconduct cases get thrown out. Universities don't do shit about them" (Holland & Cortina, 2017, p. 57) Similarly, student respondents, in their submissions to a 2017 Australian Human Rights Commission survey of Australian universities, indicated that they had not filed a report with their universities because they had no faith that their university would act against the reported harasser. Some students who had filed reports indicated that their reports had been followed by institutional inaction. Students surveyed at James Cook University in Australia also raised concerns about the university either not acting on reports or not appropriately sanctioning reported offenders (Broderick, 2017). The same concerns about institutional failure to appropriately sanction offending lecturers were raised from a study of one college of education in Nigeria by Bakari and Leach (2009) who found no evidence from their study that lecturers reported for SSH were ever sanctioned.

A few studies have, however, recorded moderately high perceptions of the likelihood that the university would appropriately sanction an offender. These studies are in the minority. One such study was a survey conducted at Ohio State University. Student respondents at the university were more positive in their perception of the likelihood of the university acting against a reported offender. 55% of respondents perceived it as likely that the university would act against an offender (Ohio State University, 2017). Consistent with other campus surveys, the Ohio state university results indicate that there are gender variations in the perception that the university would act against an offender. Female students (46.3% undergraduate, 43.2% graduate) were less likely than male students (65.6% undergraduate, 60.6% graduate) to perceive it as probable that the university would sanction an offender.

3.3. Institutional prevention and responsive strategies to student sexual harassment

The persistence of SH and its documented harmful consequences demand the urgent need for robust institutional prevention and response efforts (Harris et al., 2018; Perkins & Warner, 2017; Schneider & Hirsch, 2020). Institutional responsiveness denotes the cultivation of an institutional climate that reduces the occurrence of SH through taking SH complaints seriously, responding to SH swiftly, negatively sanctioning perpetrators, and offering support and protection to victims (Banyard et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2018; McCartan & Brown, 2019). The cultivation of a climate that is responsive to SH requires the adoption and implementation of prevention and response strategies that cut across the prevention pyramid. The prevention pyramid consists of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention levels. Institutions, therefore, ought to have responsive strategies for each of the prevention levels. Fig 3.1 presents the prevention continuum of SH prevention.

Figure 3.1

Sexual Harassment Prevention Levels

Examples of interventions

Tertiary prevention

Long term response after violence has occured.

Interventions are:

1. Survivor or victim focused to prevent long term effects.

2. Offender focused to prevent repeat offending and/or escalation of harassment

Long term support for victims or survivors, indicated interventions for high-risk perpetrators who have detectable problems -Counselling services and support groups for victims or survivors, improve support services, offender treatment and monitoring, protection/safety orders

Secondary prevention

Crisis response immediately after sexual harassment perpetration and victimization

Interventions are:

1. Survivor or victim focused to amiliorate short term effects of victimization

2. Offender focused to prevent repeat offending and/or escalation of harassment

Early interventions with high-risk individuals. Crisis and advocacy support, helpline services, access to mental, legal, medical, and social support; grievance reporting procedures.

Sexual harassment occurs

Primary prevention

Violence has not yet occured

Interventions are:

1. Unversal or population based and aimed at the whole population regardless of risk.

2. Targeted-aimed at groups at heightened risk of perpetration or victimization

Interventions aim to change structures and norms that support violence against women. **Universal interventions**-Media campaigns, SH training **Targeted interventions**-Bystander training, Skills training for new community members

Prevention continuum (Target population decreases and becomes more focused as pyramid narrows)

Adapted from Ministry of Women Affairs [New Zealand], (2013). *Current thinking on primary prevention of violence against women*. Ontario: Ministry of Women's Affairs.

Even though institutional prevention and response strategies such as policies, procedures and practices cannot conclusively guarantee students' safety, they can, however, substantially minimise risk and maximise the safety and well-being of students (Wurtele et al., 2019). They

are thus imperative yet inadequate in addressing SH in its complexity (Robotham & Cortina, 2019). Prevention strategies are thus so important that their absence or poor implementation exacerbates perpetration and the vulnerability of at-risk community members. Institutional responsive strategies should thus have a tripartite focus on primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention of and response to SH.

3.3.1. Primary institutional responsive strategies to student sexual harassment in IHLs

Primary prevention strategies seek to prevent SH before its occurrence. The focus of primary responsive strategies is on policy and training that is intended to reach an entire population irrespective of risk (Evans, 2010; McDonald et al.,2016; Swedish Research Council, 2018). These strategies are preventative and not curative. Responsive strategies operating at the primary level of prevention seek to proactively deal with harassment risk factors before these find expression in perpetration and victimisation (Bell et al., 2002; Evans, 2010; Perkins & Warner, 2017; Schneider & Hirsch, 2020; Wurtele et al., 2019). In this sense, primary prevention is pre-emptive in that it is deployed with a view to forestalling perpetration and victimisation. Important strategies at the primary level of prevention include raising awareness and sensitizing institutional members about SH, and the grievance procedures to follow when one is victimised (Malhotra & Srivastava, 2016; McCartan & Brown, 2019; Schneider & Hirsch, 2020; Swedish Research Council, 2018).

Prevention efforts at the primary level function "to ameliorate the risks associated with a problem as well as promote desirable or beneficial alternatives to the problem" (Evans, 2010, p. 47). Primary prevention thus has a dual focus: a focus on the risk factors and a focus on the protective factors. On one hand, it seeks to address perpetration and victimisation risk factors by disrupting those norms and values that promote SH perpetration (Banyard et al., 2018). Examples of norms that drive SH perpetration include sexual objectification of women and "hegemonic masculinity" (Marine & Nicolazzo, 2017, p. 4). Thus, prevention efforts should focus on both perpetration and victimisation risk factors. On the other hand, primary prevention

efforts seek to encourage the adoption of those norms that nurture healthy, respectful, and positive interpersonal relationships. Examples of norms that primary prevention seeks to promote include empathy with victims or targets, prosocial interventions in risky situations, and victim reporting of SH. The focus of primary perpetration, however, should be more on perpetration for significant reductions in SH are realised when perpetration is made the focal point of intervention (DeGue et al., 2012). Institutional primary prevention efforts include the setting up of case management and support structures, institutional policies, SH training, and the development of bystander intervention programmes.

3.3.1.1. Institutional safety and support service structural systems for managing SH

Prevention efforts require basic organisational systems and structures that provide victims with "timely access to health care and support services to respond to short-term injuries, protect them from further violations, and address longer term needs" (United Nations, 2009, p. 31). These structures provide evidence that an institution acknowledges, is committed, and has readied itself to tackling SH and to ensuring the safety and well-being of students. There is no uniformity in structural systems across universities and colleges for each institution has its own unique structural systems born of the contextual imperatives of each institution. However, Boyle et al. (2017) report, from a study of 413 universities in the United States of America, that reporting of sexual violence is high in universities with institutional safety and support services. Structural systems are the most basic entry point to SH prevention. On one hand, their presence indicates institutional acknowledgement of the SH problem and communicates institutional readiness to respond to the problem and a commitment to ensuring the safety and well-being of the campus community. On the other, their absence communicates institutional tolerance for SH which disempowers victims from reporting incidences of SH (Molla & Cuthbert, 2014). San Diego State University has the Centre for Student Rights and Responsibilities, and the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) has the Office of the Dean of Students established to receive, respond to, and address SH complaints (California State Auditor, 2014).

Bystrynski and Allen (2017) report that The University of Illinois has, among other structures, a counselling centre, and the Women's Resources Centre. Latham (2018) notes that institutional structures at Tulsa University include The University of Tulsa Office of Violence Prevention, The Office of Violence Prevention, Campus Security, Student Affairs, the Alexander Health Centre, and the Counselling and Psychological Services Centre. In its campus climate survey report, Johns Hopkins University (2019) indicates that it has several institutional structures for responding to SH that include the University Counselling Centre, the Office of Institutional Equity/Title IX coordinator, and the Student Health and Wellness Centre. These institutional structures signal a commitment and readiness to respond to SH.

Though of importance, institutional structures for dealing with SH are insufficient on their own for conclusions from a meta-analysis review suggest that "there is research evidence on the lack of (efficient and relevant) case management procedures" (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020, p. 11). Structures are just structures and are only as useful as the people who work in them. Accordingly, transforming structures into effective responsive strategies requires "dedicated staff with subject matter expertise to prevent and respond to sexual assault and sexual harassment" (Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency. 2020, p. 6). A report on SH at Wits University in South Africa notes that case management personnel lack the full spectrum of expertise necessary for handling harassment cases and have not been exposed to training that addresses expertise deficits (Mothibi et al., 2013). Apart from prevention expertise, the personality of support services staff is also key for these are expected to provide "kindness, care, compassion, respect and empathy" (Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency. 2020, p. 6) to harassment victims. Institutional structures filled by officers without the requisite expertise and personality dispositions may fail to render the services that they are set up to provide or may be deemed inaccessible by victims or survivors of SH (Holland & Cortina, 2017). For instance, given the male harasser and female victim dyad, female victims would find it difficult to report to male officers because of fears that their complaints would not be taken

seriously and that they would be blamed for instigating the harassment (Marks & An, 2019). Staffing the case management and support structures with inappropriate or ill prepared personnel may lead to victim under-utilisation of care and support services. This may defeat the whole purpose of setting up such structures. Staff knowledge and expertise should be constantly upgraded through refresher courses so that they stay abreast of developments in prevention, counselling, and trauma handling.

3.3.1.2. Sexual harassment training and information services in IHLs

SH training is so important a primary prevention strategy that, in some jurisdictions such as the US, it is increasingly becoming mandatory and compulsory for IHLs to offer SH training (Bainbridge et al., 2018). Research literature recommends training as the most effective population level preventive measure against SH (Brown et al., 2017; Campbell et al., 2013; Hennekam & Bennett, 2017; O'Brien, 2018; Oliveira et al., 2018; Sabri et al.,2019; US EEOC, 2016). This is so despite concerns that SH training is merely a symbolic gesture with no demonstrable effect outcomes on the prevention of SH (Roehling & Huang, 2018). Some scholars have suggested that SH education is better than SH training. For example, Freyd and Smidt (2019, p. 489), in an editorial to the Journal of Trauma & Dissociation 2019, Vol. 20, recommend SH education instead of SH training for they observe that training "is not the most effective method for reducing and ultimately eliminating sexual harassment". The distinction between training and education, Freyd and Smidt (2019) note, is that

> training is associated with compliance and a rules-based process, whereas education is associated with complex understanding, critical thinking, and the acquisition of knowledge based on empirical research and theory development (p. 489).

Harassment training serves a dual purpose for it "aims to deter individuals from committing offenses and encourages them to report behaviors when experiencing or witnessing them" (Cheung et al., 2017, p. 535). It thus functions to discourage harassment perpetration and, at the same time, empowers would be victims and bystanders to identify SH, resist victimisation, and

report harassing behaviours. Training achieves these outcomes through raising awareness about SH, sensitising the population about its deleterious effects, disrupting norms that feed into perpetration, empowering both victims and bystanders to resist and report harassment, and fostering perpetrator empathy with the victim of SH (Bainbridge et al., 2018; Cheung et al., 2017; van Lieshout et al., 2019; Malhotra & Srivastava, 2016; Marine & Nicolazzo, 2017; Sabri et al.,2019; Wood & Moylan, 2017). Indeed, Moore and Mennicke (2019) emphasise the need to incorporate perspective taking empathy content in training programmes for this kind of content empowers perpetrators to perceive SH outcomes from the standpoint of victims. In this way, empathy with the victim leads to reduced likelihood of perpetration.

Institutionally, SH training insulates the institution from vicarious liability in the event of litigation (Roehling & Huang, 2018). An institution can defend itself against vicarious liability if it can demonstrate that it took reasonable measures, including training, in preventing SH. This is an acceptable defence in a court of law. Accordingly, institutions are motivated by both a desire to educate institutional members on SH to reduce perpetration and victimisation and a desire to avoid vicarious liability during litigation. Despite the established benefits of training at the individual and institutional level, training by itself is considerably unlikely to reduce SH in institutions (Roehling & Huang, 2018). To contribute meaningfully to SH reduction, training needs to be deployed in conjunction with other prevention strategies such as bystander intervention.

IHLs, by their nature as educational institutions, are ready made for the delivery of SH training (Zapp et al., 2021). For example, IHLs have established training facilities and, in some cases, training facilitators within their employ. This observation is reinforced by findings from a study by Amar et al. (2014) in which 47% of the respondents indicated that faculty members provided SH training. These factors make it easy for IHLs to deliver SH training. SH training delivery modes in IHLs include facilitated workshops, lectures, awareness campaigns, social marketing campaigns, orientation programmes, and online content (Garcia et al., 2011; Granskog et al.,

2018; Oliveira et al., 2018; Swedish Research Council, 2018; Zapp et al., 2021). Several studies indicate that orientation programmes are the preferred SH training delivery mode in IHLs. These studies include a 2017 Cantor et al. university wide survey in the USA in which orientation programmes were established to be the preferred mode of SH training and education delivery. A prior 2015 climate survey of the university of Arizona, by the same authors, had revealed that more than a quarter of the respondents had attended an orientation programme that included information on SH and related sexual offences. A subsequent 2019 survey of the university of Chicago by the same authors established that 92.3 percent of freshmen and 93.9% of returning students reported having received SH training at least once since arriving at the university. Similar findings that orientation programmes were the delivery mode for SH training were also established from a study of the university of Utah (University of Utah, 2019). The university of Utah offers orientation programmes that include information on SH and other sexual misconducts (University of Utah, 2019).

Apart from orientation programmes, IHLs also offer SH training and education through curriculum infusion or mainstreaming. For example, Amar et al. (2014) indicated, from their study, that SH training and education was infused into the mainstream curriculum. Mainstreaming or infusing SH training into the curriculum offers better chances of IHLs reaching an entire university population and opportunities for demonstrating the seriousness with which an IHL treats SH. Additionally, SH infusion or mainstreaming into the curriculum ensures that students and staff repeatedly encounter SH issues in their years at college. Infusion or mainstreaming is thus more beneficial compared to the orientation delivery mode in which SH training and education is delivered as a once off programme that runs for a week or two of students' first year at college. In addition to orientation programmes and curriculum infusion, SH training is also offered through institutionally organised workshops offered to students intermittently during their studies. SH trainers and educators include IHL faculty members, invited staff from community agencies, and peer educators (Amar et al., 2014).

The literature reviewed here demonstrates that SH training and education is a common SH prevention strategy in IHLs. Additionally, the literature demonstrates that orientation programmes are the preferred mode of SH training and education delivery in IHLs. Other reported delivery modes included curriculum infusion and facilitated workshops. SH training and education is deployed in conjunction with other strategies such as bystander intervention.

3.3.1.3. Bystander intervention in discouraging SH perpetration in IHLs

SH training is complimented by bystander intervention. Bystanders, witnesses to SH or potential SH situations, have choices to either support perpetration through encouraging or ignoring perpetration or intervening on behalf of the target or victim to stop perpetration (Banyard et al., 2018; Cooper & Dranger, 2018; Elias-Lambert & Black, 2016; Kettrey & Tanner-Smith, 2017; McMahon & Banyard, 2012; Miller, 2018; Zapp et al., 2021). Bystander interventions seek to empower institutional members to collectively own the responsibility of intervening in ways that discourage perpetration and offer protection to targets and victims of harassment (Kettrey & Tanner-Smith, 2017; Santacrose et al., 2019).

The bystander approach to SH prevention builds sensitivity to SH in community members in such a way that the entire community is empowered to abhor SH and is committed to behaving in ways that discourage perpetration (Banyard et al., 2018; Camp et al., 2018; Coker et al., 2019; Elias-Lambert & Black, 2016; Kettrey & Tanner-Smith, 2017; Mabry & Turner, 2016; Marine & Nicolazzo, 2017; Miller, 2018). Bystanders become individuals empowered to diffuse high-risk SH situations and to respond to SH perpetration. In this way, the bystander approach moves beyond traditional prevention approaches based on the idea that "women must protect themselves through risk reduction and self-defense strategies" (Mitchell & Freitag, 2011, p. 991) or that target potential perpetrators of SH. More importantly, the bystander approach works across primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of prevention (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). For example, Edwards et al. (2017) report, from a study, that proactive bystander intervention included school personnel discussing ways in which they take actions

before instances of SH in order to prevent them from happening in the first place. From the same study, reactive bystander actions reportedly included directly breaking up observed instances of SH and offering guidance and education to victims, perpetrators, and friends of victims and perpetrators.

Bystander intervention can either be proactive or reactive (Harlow et al., 2021). Proactive bystander intervention, on one hand, involves actions taken by individuals when there is no risk of harm to a victim. Such actions include behaviours that demonstrate a commitment to addressing SH. Proactive prevention contributes to changing social norms and attitudes that cultivate a culture of violence. Proactive bystander actions may take the form of receiving SH training or participating in activism or protests (Harlow et al., 2021). Reactive bystander intervention behaviours, on the other hand, include reacting to harassing behaviours. Such actions include speaking out when friends make jokes about SH or intervening during low-risk harassment such as catcalling. However, bystanders may choose to ignore harassing behaviours because of constraints that include the fear of repercussions for intervening especially in circumstances where the harasser wields more power than the bystander, not knowing how to intervene, and not having the necessary time to intervene for intervention may require considerable time that the bystander may not have (Edwards et al., 2017; Galdi et al., 2017). Bystanders are also discouraged by uncertainty about identifying behaviour as harassment and determining the point of intervention (Skopp et al., 2020). Such uncertainty increases bystander reluctance to intervene.

3.3.1.4. Sexual harassment policy

Training and bystander intervention programmes and strategies are often contained in and directed by an institution's SH policy (Iverson & Issadore, 2018). An SH policy is also a primary prevention strategy whose formulation and wide dissemination serves to communicate institutional intolerance for SH and is a deterrent to SH perpetration (Donais et al., 2018; Quick & McFadyen, 2017; Iverson & Issadore, 2018). Some researchers, however, perceive policies

as operating largely at the secondary and tertiary levels of prevention (Iverson & Issadore, 2018). At the secondary level, policy is a risk reduction tool employing strategies such as educating high risk community members on how to prevent victimisation, and stipulating the support services available to victims or survivors (Iverson & Issadore, 2018; Ollo-López & Nuñez, 2018). At the tertiary level, policy enunciates the resolution process for complaints and ensures that the institutional response is victim friendly and effective (Iverson & Issadore, 2018). When operating at the secondary and tertiary levels, policy provides guidance on effectively responding to and minimizing harm after sexual violence occurs (Granskog, et al., 2018; Iverson & Issadore, 2018).

Policies provide the required guidance and direction to institutional responsiveness (Lee & Wong, 2019). Sbraga and O'Donohue (2012, p. 271) succinctly capture the importance of policy when they note that "policies point to the steps the organisation will take to investigate and to remediate" SH complaints. Additionally, information provided in a policy empowers students to recognise harassing behaviours and to take appropriate steps in filing complaints if they are sexually harassed (Joneset al., 2013). Thus, Quick and McFadyen (2017, p. 287) note that "a fair and firm policy with consequential sanctions serves as a useful, importance (sic) preventive deterrent".

Policies are useful instruments in SH prevention even though they are inadequate by themselves (Bell et al., 2002; Hunt et al., 2010). For example, Naidoo and Nadvi (2013) note that laws and policy frameworks have not resulted in substantively addressing or reducing gender-based violence in south Africa. Effective SH prevention requires the use of SH policies in conjunction with other intervention strategies. Additionally, policy efficacy is constrained by several factors. These constraining factors include "the apparent gap between words and deeds" (Thomas, 2004, p. 145). A policy document is constructed from words that express an institution's intolerance for SH. The words that form the policy require actuating into action through policy implementation. Accordingly, a policy is as useful as its implementation. This

gap stems from management complacency coupled with a lack of will towards adequately financing policy implementation (Thomas, 2004). Thus, the extent of implementation is critical to the success or failure of an institutional anti-harassment policy. Norman et al. (2013) report from a study in Ghana that harassment policy effectiveness in medical school is constrained by policies not being widely circulated. Furthermore, zero-tolerance SH policies require coupling with good faith procedures to be effective in preventing SH (Gardner & Johnson, 2010). Consequently, Stockdale and Nadler (2012) note that

> policies…are only as good as the procedures that back them up and the practices in place
>
> to train organizational members how to both respond effectively to incidents of potential
>
> SH and to prevent harassment from occurring (p. 166).

Despite these challenges, an institutional policy is a key factor in institutional efforts to address SH. It is the board from which other prevention strategies spring.

3.3.2. Secondary institutional SH prevention strategies in IHLs

There is contestation in the literature regarding what constitutes secondary prevention. On one hand, are scholars who regard secondary prevention as those strategies and practices that are deployed following SH perpetration and, on the other, are scholars who perceive secondary prevention as preceding harassment perpetration (McCartan & Brown, 2019). For the latter, secondary prevention is distinct from primary prevention in that it is not population wide but targets those individuals who are at heightened risk of both perpetration and victimisation. While primary prevention seeks to prevent SH from occurring in the first place, secondary prevention targets high-risk populations to address risk factors associated with future violence (Franklin et al., 2017; McCartan & Brown, 2019). The former argues that, secondary intervention involves an immediate response after the problem has occurred and aims to prevent further perpetration and deal with short-term consequences, including the victimisation of those at risk (Hunt et al., 2010; McDonald et al., 2016; Sabri et al., 2018; Swedish Research Council,

2018). In this sense, secondary prevention is treatment and not prevention focused (Evans, 2010).

Organisational grievance procedures are the most common form of secondary prevention (McDonald et al., 2016). Grievance procedures ensure that institutions conduct timely, fair, and just investigations of reported cases of harassment in a manner that respects the rights of both the victim and the accused perpetrator (Best et al., 2010; Smith & Stone, 2018). Due process dictates that the accused person be notified of the allegations against him/her, that he/she be afforded an opportunity for a disciplinary hearing before an impartial Panel, that all evidence provided be considered, and that the accused be advised of his/her right to appeal the determination of the disciplinary hearing Panel (Honig, 2010). While grievance procedures, as a secondary prevention strategy, may be instituted and communicated, their activation into use depends on the filing of a harassment complaint (Sabri et al.,2019). Accordingly, it is important that members of a campus community be empowered to report SH so that secondary interventions can be activated. This is particularly important given research findings across cultures that victims of SH hardly ever report and utilize their institutional grievance procedures (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2012). Such empowerment is dependent on dismantling the barriers to reporting so that there is an uptake of the grievance procedures (Sabri et al.,2019). A catalogue of these barriers includes a sense of futility associated with filing a report, confidentiality concerns, burden of evidence on the reporting victim, location of reporting offices, fear of stigmatisation, fear of revictimisation, lack of confidence in the reporting structures, and incivility of support services staff (Holland & Cortina, 2017; Namaganda et al., 2021; Sabir et al., 2018).

Having grievance procedures in place is no guarantee for their use and effectiveness. It is important that confidence, trust, and faith in the grievance procedures be built if institutional members are to engage with them. These procedures should be seen to be fair and just (Butler & Chung-Yan, 2011). Accordingly, the grievance procedure should respect the rights of both

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the victim and the accused. The process of handling the grievance, the resolution of the grievance, and the way in which investigative and support service providers interact with both the complainant and the accused should all reflect justice and fairness (Butler & Chung-Yan, 2011). Confidence in the grievance procedures may be dented if a campus community perceives the grievance procedures as "determined upon concealing problems of sexual harassment and protecting male faculty and male students" (Eyre, 2010, p. 293). For example, Broad et al. (2018, p. 420) report from a study of medical students in the UK that participants perceived the grievance procedures as "inaccessible, burdensome and unlikely to change the situation". A typical grievance procedure follows the flow chart in Fig 3.2.

Figure 3.2

Grievance Handling Process Model
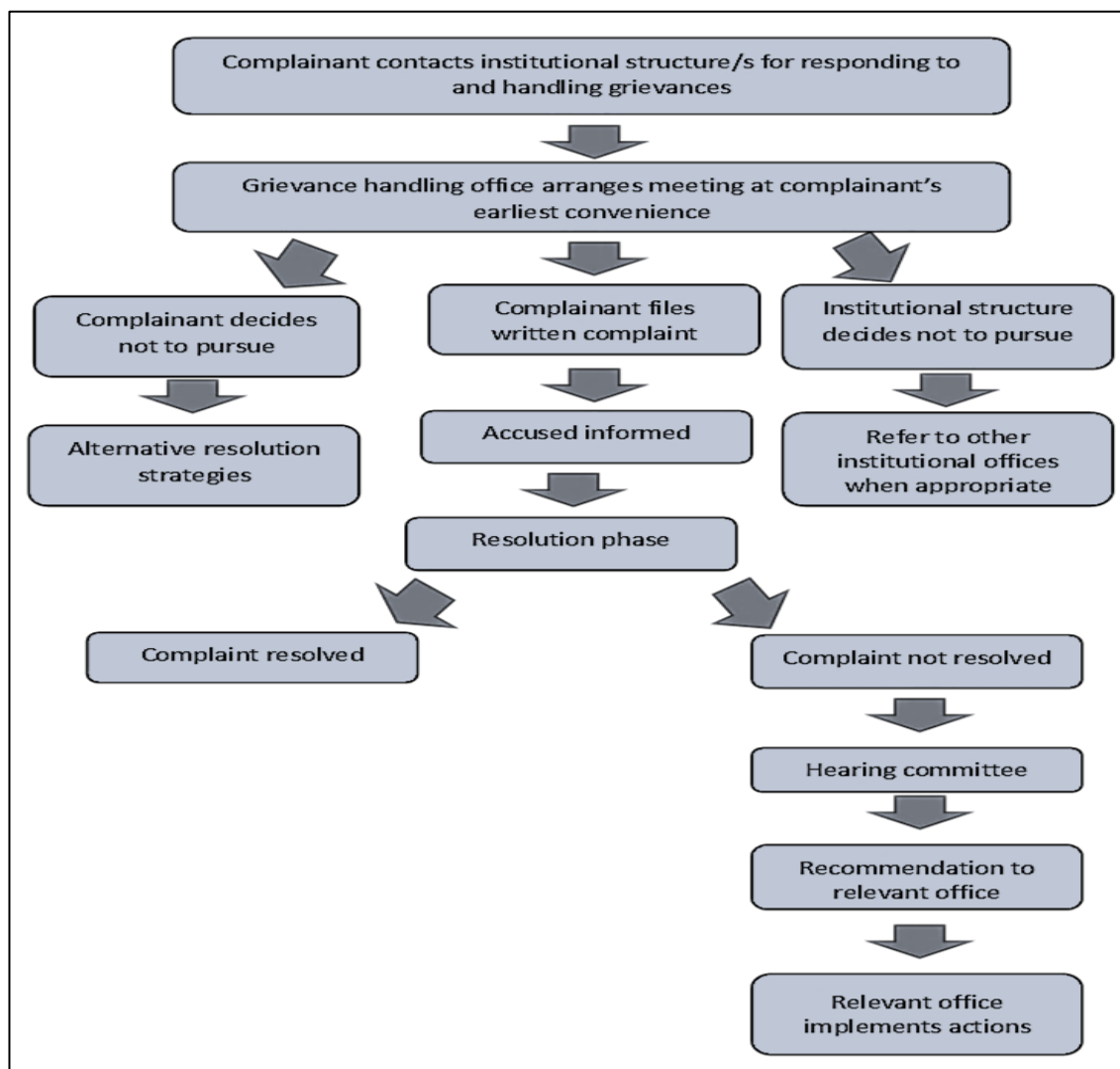
Adopted from Best et al., (2010). Preventing and responding to complaints of sexual harassment in an academic health center: A 10-year review from the Medical University of South Carolina. *Academic Medicine, 85*(4), 721-727. 10.1097/ACM.0b013e3181d27fd0

3.3.3. Tertiary institutional SH prevention and response strategies in IHLs

At the tertiary level, prevention efforts focus on the provision of assistance and support services for victims aimed at lessening the impact of the problem (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Perkins & Warner, 2017; Swedish Research Council, 2018). Interventions at the tertiary level seek to improve, in the short and long-term, physical, psychological, behavioural, and systemic consequences that follow SH (Franklin et al., 2017; McDonald et al., 2016). Frequently

employed tertiary institutional intervention strategies and support services include psychotherapy or counselling and taking victims to crisis centres or safe houses (Kirk et al., 2017).

Psychotherapy or counselling aims to bring the target or victim to terms with their experiences or to provide "restorative care" (Daniel et al., 2019, p. 357). IHLs can engage the services of full-time professional counsellors or quasi-professionals such as on-campus chaplains as sources of support for victims or survivors (Council of Nova Scotia University Presidents, 2019). For example, Lee and Wong (2019) established from a study that all but three institutions from a sample of 72 public Canadian universities offered counselling services for students. Counsellors assigned to health and counselling centres need to be multi-culturally competent when operating in a multicultural campus environment if they are to be effective (Clay et al., 2019).

In addition to psychotherapy and counselling services, IHLs also provide crisis centres or Sexual assault centres (SACs). These centres provide survivors of SH with comprehensive, multidisciplinary services that address their needs across the medical, psychosocial, and legal sectors. These services include medical care, legal advice, counselling, and safe housing, and they frequently provide referrals to any other external services that survivors may need (Holland & Cortina, 2017; Kirk et al., 2017). Crisis centres may also work in conjunction with Women's and Gender Resource Centres as essential components of victim or survivor support system on campuses (Council of Nova Scotia University Presidents, 2019).

3.4. Perceptions on the effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies

SH remains persistent and prevalent despite the formulation and implementation of the most influential policies, procedures, and training to prevent harassment behaviour (Botha, 2016; Marshall et al., 2014). This puzzling persistence and prevalence of SH has ignited debate on the effectiveness of policies, procedures and training designed to curb it. The puzzling persistence has inclined some researchers in the field of sexual violence to claim that current

prevention strategies are largely ineffective (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018; Schneider & Hirsch, 2020). In fact, current policies, procedures, and approaches focus more on symbolic compliance with the law and on avoiding liability than on SH reduction (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018). Effective institutional responsive strategies are those that are perceived as fair and just, those that engender confidentiality and anonymity, those that engender trust and confidence, and those that appropriately sanction perpetrators (Moore & Mennicke, 2020). Such strategies promote victim reporting, ensure speedy and satisfactory resolution of complaints, and offer support to victims. However, perceptions of the effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies to SH differ because the development and implementation of policies and strategies are context specific and differ from one institution to the other.

On one hand, research suggests that stakeholders perceive institutional responsive strategies favourably. For example, Jozkowski et al. (2015) conducted a cross-sectional survey of a midwestern university in the United States of America to understand students' perceptions on the importance of sexual assault training for themselves and for others in the university. Data were collected through a structured questionnaire from a sample of 252 undergraduate students. Survey findings indicated that most of the survey respondents reported sexual assault training to be of importance to them personally (88.7%) and for college students in general (97.1%). Furthermore, the study indicated that gender and age were important variables in the perception of sexual assault training importance. Accordingly, on one hand, being female and being young was associated with reporting sexual assault training importance at the personal and population level. On the other, the study established that men were more likely to perceive sexual assault training as not important to them at the personal level as well as at the population level. Perception of the importance of training is important in that if training is perceived as important, then individuals who perceive it as such are likely to take training seriously and to be susceptible to its impact on knowledge, attitudinal, and behavioural modification. Individuals who perceive

training as not important both at the individual and group level are likely to benefit minimally or not at all from training programmes. Since men largely perceive training as not important to them or the university student body at large, then training is unlikely to reduce perpetration for men are the principal perpetrators of sexual assault. Similar findings were arrived at by Cantor et al. (2017) who reported from a survey of 27 universities in the United States of America that that 27.6% of survey respondents indicated that training in the form of orientation programmes was useful. Participants in a study of IHLs in one midwestern state in the USA by Garcia et al. (2011) reported training through orientation programmes to be extremely effective in providing training on SH.

Training is also perceived as an important SH prevention strategy. Student participants in a UK study of one university by Hennelly et al. (2019) expressed the need for constant training to improve awareness in both perpetrators and victims on what is acceptable and inacceptable behaviour as well as educating the campus community on whom to approach, where to take a complaint to, and how to report. Furthermore, training was perceived as effective in developing bystander attitudes and knowledge. In this context, training addresses what the student participants perceived as "a lack of knowledge about how and to whom to report witnessed or experienced incidents" (Hennelly et al., 2019, p. 418) and deficiencies in knowledge on what constitutes SH.

In another study by Sabri et al. (2019) involving 15 students from a university in the UK, students recommended interactive and engaging training as critical to the prevention of sexual assault. However, participants noted that training could be more effective if it normalises reporting and treats sexual violence as a serious offence. Additionally, to be more effective, study participants indicated that training should equip students with knowledge of the reporting structures and the grievance procedures. Such knowledge would encourage reporting. Furthermore, it was recommended that success stories be an integral component of training. Such stories would boost confidence in the reporting structures and grievance procedures.

Participants also recommended training for student support services staff to capacitate them in handling survivors and processing complaints. Despite the perception that orientation programmes are useful, concerns about the duration of orientation programmes for first-generation students continue to be raised (John Jay College, 2019).

Regarding the effectiveness of grievance procedures, a study of UK universities by Phipps (2020) established student dissatisfaction with grievance procedures. Study participants perceived university grievance procedures as functioning to protect institutional image rather than ensuring student welfare. Consequently, grievance procedures were perceived as promoting a culture of sweeping sexual violence cases under the carpet. In so doing, grievance procedures tended to provide protection to perpetrators of violence while denying victims of institutional support. Dissatisfaction with grievance procedures was also established by Clancy et al. (2014) whose study established that over half of the respondents who filed harassment complaints indicated that they were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with the outcome of reporting harassment (N = 38/67 women and N = 6/11 men). High levels of dissatisfaction with complaint outcomes betray the ineffectiveness of grievance handling procedures.

Robertson et al. (1988) studied a sample of 311 institutions in the United States of America. Study respondents included key personnel in handling SH complaints such as affirmative action officers. Study findings point to ineffectiveness of institutional responsive strategies in that existing grievance procedures were not seen as deterrent and robust enough to discourage perpetration and to satisfactorily resolve student complaints. Consequently, study participants reported student reluctance to file complaints because of fears of retaliation and a lack of awareness of the grievance procedures. As such, many of the study participants indicated that the adoption of zero-tolerance policy (69.1%) and grievance procedures (72.9 %) had not resulted in students filing more harassment complaints. They did feel, however, that the adoption of a policy and grievance procedures had somehow resulted in reduced SH perpetration. Participants in the study, however, perceived workshops facilitated by invited

resource persons as highly effective in disseminating information about grievance procedures. Disseminating information through flyers was perceived as ineffective because such flyers were often thrown into the trash bin soon after being received. Though underused, newspaper articles and brochures were perceived as effective in information dissemination.

In another study, Peirce et al. (1997) established that over 40% of respondents were unaware of institutional SH policies or mechanisms for registering formal complaints. Above this, respondents were sceptic about complaints being taken seriously and harassers being appropriately sanctioned. Respondents also lacked trust in the complaint investigation process and were dissatisfied with the length of investigations. Based on these findings, Peirce et al. (1997) concluded that institutional policies and procedures were inadvertently discouraging the reporting of SH because their implementation did not inspire confidence in the policy and grievance handling procedures. Accordingly, a participant in a study by Marshall et al. (2014, p. 287) observed that institutional policies "try to change culture with no real consequences." In short, they are ineffective. To be effective, they argue, responsive strategies require the unwavering support of institutional leaders. The cynicism established in the study by Peirce et al. (1997) was also established by Bloom et al. (2021). Based on 21 in-depth interviews and 8 FGDs across three University of California campuses, they established entrenched cynicism about the adequacy of university systems in protecting graduate students and their anonymity following the filing of SH complaints.

Namaganda et al. (2021) established that participants in their qualitative study at a large public university in East Africa of 42 participants perceived institutional strategies as ineffective because reporting was almost always followed by institutional inaction. For example, one participant in the study is quoted as having said "I did not have evidence that he had harassed me but I have also heard that even when you report, they do not do anything so why bother?" (p. 8). Results from a university of Manitoba campus climate survey suggest that students at the university have mixed perceptions on the effectiveness of university responsive strategies

to sexual violence and SH (Sexual Violence Steering Committee University of Manitoba, 2019). Over a quarter (26.6%) of students who participated in the survey communicated a lack of trust and confidence in university responsive strategies by intimating that they did not report cases of sexual assault because they were cynical about the institution doing anything regarding their complaints. Additionally, Students who experienced SH were also more likely to indicate that the services on campus were inadequate (24.9%) than students who did not (6.5%).

Firestone and Harris (2003) studied the United States of America military to gauge perceptions of effectiveness of responses to SH in the US military. Findings from the study of 13599 military personnel seem to indicate that participants either lack trust in the policy and grievance procedures or lack an adequate understanding of the same. The unwillingness to use formal reporting channels betray perceived ineffectiveness of or dissatisfaction with the grievance procedures. Similarly, Vredenburgh, and Zackowitz (2002) established, from a qualitative study of an aerospace industry in the United States of America, that many victims who filed a formal complaint were unsatisfied with the organisational processes of handling their complaints.

Reese and Lindenberg (2004) studied municipalities in the State of Michigan. They established high satisfaction with existing policy but low satisfaction with policy implementation among municipality employees. 78% of the studied employees perceived municipal policies as fair and just. However, fewer study participants indicated that municipal policies protect complainant and accused confidentiality (60 percent and 59 percent respectively). Between 50 and 59 percent of respondents indicated some degree of satisfaction with the time taken to complete investigations, treatment of the complainant, and the complaint resolution. Accordingly, Reese and Lindenberg (2004, p. 114) concluded that "the 'devil is in the details' of policy implementation". Appropriate sanctioning of an offender is also critical in responding to SH. For instance, Nelson et al. (2007) concluded from a study of 220 students in one university in the United States of America that severe punishments such as dismissal were

viewed as more effective in both discouraging harassment perpetration and in signalling organisational intolerance for SH. Less severe punishments such as requesting an apology from the perpetrator and issuing verbal or written warnings were less effective in demonstrating institutional tolerance for SH. Such less severe punishments did not serve as strong deterrents for perpetration.

Findings from a study of 160 female undergraduate students at a large southwestern university in the United States of America by Elkins et al. (2008) indicate that participants perceive internal investigators as biased. Participants expressed the view that victims whose cases were being investigated by internal investigators should take the legal route for a satisfactory resolution of their grievance. In a mixed methods study of a Midwestern university, Holland and Cortina (2017) established that student participants did not perceive institutional case management as effective for they feared that reporting an incident of SH would lead to inappropriate consequences for themselves or that their complaints would not be believed or satisfactorily acted upon. Such fears reflect a lack of trust, familiarity, and confidence grievance procedures.

From South Africa, Joubert et al. (2011) established that study participants acknowledged the existence of policies and their effectiveness in addressing SH. Participants, however, perceived policy implementation as ineffective with limited training for academic staff on the utilization of zero-tolerance policies In another South African study, Singh et al. (2016) established, from online survey data drawn 265 students who were part of an ongoing larger study titled: "Safer Learning Environments: Addressing Gender Based Violence at Universities' of students at University of KwaZulu Natal, that students at the university perceive the university's SH policy as inadequate, poorly implemented and enforced, and has weak grievance procedures. Additionally, study participants indicated that student awareness of the university policy is limited. These findings reinforce the conclusion that clear SH policies require coupling with consistent implementation of grievance procedures if they are to effective deterrents of SH

perpetration (Hershcovis et al., 2010). While the importance of policy in responding to SH cannot be disputed, Haas et al. (2010, p. 319) concluded from a study of the Dutch police force that "implementing a comprehensive anti-SH policy alone may not be sufficient to prevent sexual harassment" in an organisation that is particularly male dominated. Zero-tolerance policies can only be successful in addressing SH when used in conjunction with other responsive strategies.

3.5. Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed and discussed literature related to institutional responsiveness to SH. The chapter reviewed literature on SH prevalence in IHLs, perception of institutional climate, institutional responsive strategies, and perceptions of effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies. The chapter that follows discusses the research methodology adopted for this study.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0. Introduction

The preceding chapter reviewed literature relevant to this study as a precursor to this chapter. The present chapter discusses the methodological considerations and decisions taken in designing and conducting this study. These considerations include the pragmatic paradigm on which this study was anchored, the mixed methods approach adopted, and the sequential explanatory design (SED) utilised in this study. Since the study adopted a qualitatively driven SED, the quantitative and qualitative strands were conducted separately but were connected at the sampling stage for the second phase of the study. When completed separately, the two strands were then integrated. Accordingly, the organisation of the chapter reflects the sequencing of the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study (see Figure 4.5). Consequently, methodological considerations and decisions pertinent to each strand of the study were discussed under sections devoted to each strand. As such, sampling procedures, instrumentation and data gathering, validation procedures, and data analysis processes were discussed separately under each strand because these differ for the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study. After this, the chapter discusses how the quantitative and qualitative strands were integrated or mixed. Following this, the mixed methods validation procedures, and the ethical considerations that guided this study are discussed.

4.1. The concept research methodology

The research methodology denotes a meticulously thought-out outline of the research process whose implementation provides satisfactory answers to the research questions. Broadly, research methodology incorporates both research methods (techniques and procedures) and the logic (the philosophical underpinnings of a research study) that provides justification for methodological and procedural choices and decisions (Jonker & Pennink, 2010; Wahyuni, 2012). Accordingly, research methodology denotes a framework of theories and principles that

rationalised research design, methods and procedure choices and decisions for this study (Jonker & Pennink,2010; McGregor & Murnane, 2010). It, therefore, describes and justifies the research choices, processes, and conduct. The research methodology thus ought to adequately answer the *what*, *how, when*, and *why* of research.

Fig 4.1 presents a flow-chart of the research methodology process in theory and as adapted for this study. The flowchart shows the major research stages and procedures, and the processes and activities at each stage of the research process.

Figure 4.1

The Research Methodology Process in Theory and as Applied to This Study
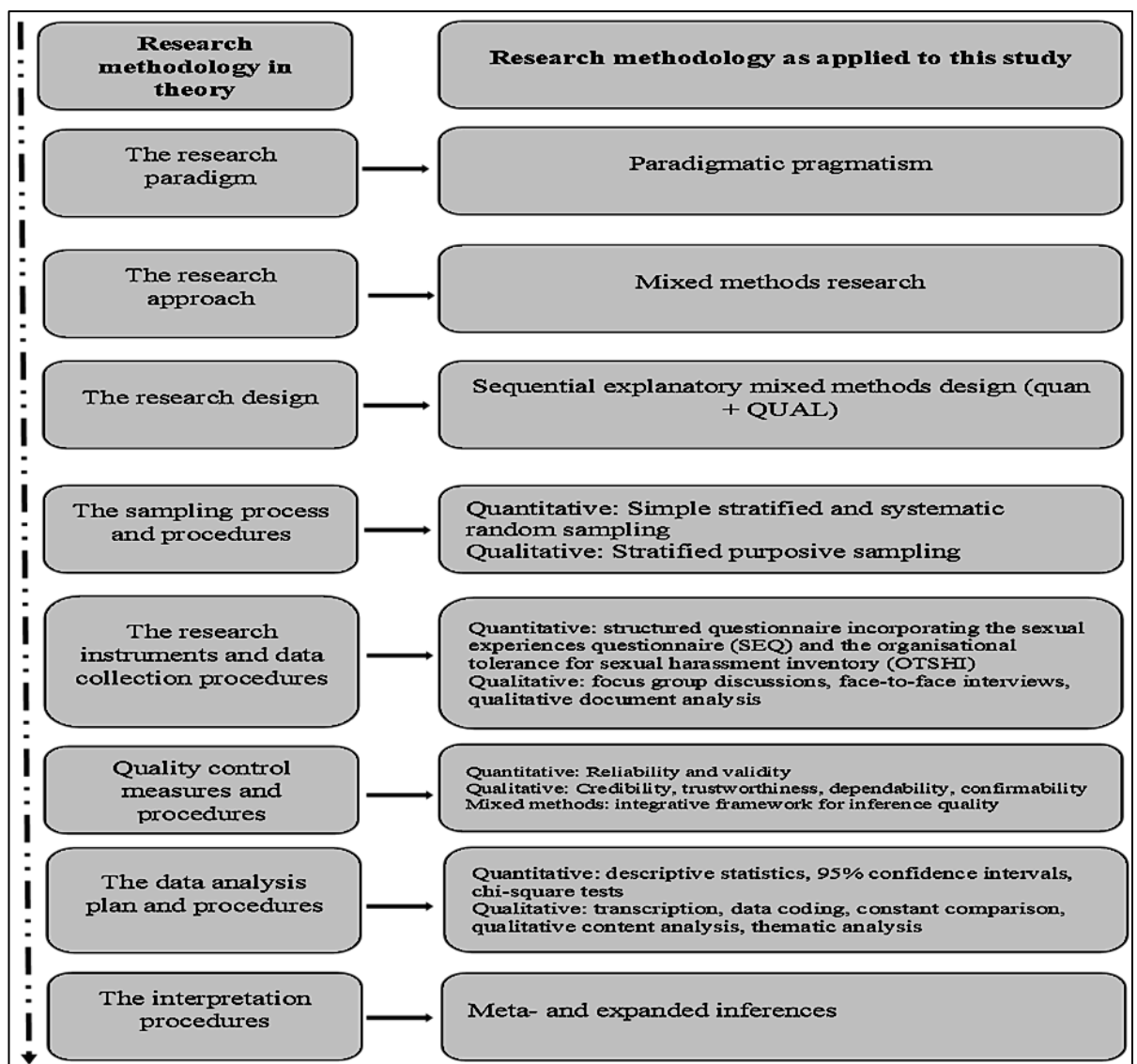
One arm of the research methodology is the logic of research or the foundational ideas that

frame a study. These foundational ideas and principles on which research is anchored are referred to as the research paradigm.

4.2. Research paradigm

Several paradigms exist and paradigm purists advocate an either-or approach to the adoption of a paradigm on which to ground a study. From its conception, this study sought to utilise more than one paradigm and this necessitated the adoption of a paradigm that permits the mixing of paradigms in a single study. To this end, the study adopted the pragmatic paradigm that permitted the researcher to mix paradigms in this study. The positivist and interpretivist paradigms that were mixed in this study are briefly outlined and their relevance to this study discussed in this chapter (see 4.3; 4.4). This is then followed by a discussion and assessment of the relevance of pragmatism to this study (see 4.5). All this, however, is preceded by a discussion of what a research paradigm is.

A research paradigm consists of ideas about the social world or reality shared by a community of researchers that serves as a philosophical and conceptual framework for understanding and structuring studies of the social world (Biddle & Schafft, 2014; Johnson & Christensen, 2017; Ponterotto et al., 2013; Tracy, 2020). It thus constitutes a shared worldview among researchers of the same persuasion about what constitutes reality, the nature of knowledge and knowing, the process of knowledge acquisition, the pathways to acquiring knowledge, and the importance of knowledge (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017). When all is considered, a research paradigm is a body of ideas and principles that dictates and directs the research process (Johnson & Christensen, 2017; Leavy, 2017). Accordingly, the research paradigm, as a worldview, is a conventional frame for comprehending the world, making intelligible sense of it, and acting within it (Denzin, 2010; Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017). It is the foundation upon which research is built. In the absence of such a foundation or where such a foundation is not competently understood, an inquiry is built on shifting sand and will crumble when subjected to peer scrutiny because of the absence of foundational justification for methodological choices and decisions.

Firm foundational knowledge invariably leads to robust research that can be defended with confidence. In other words, embarking on inquiry without the foundational knowledge provided by any paradigm is like setting sail on a ship with neither a compass nor a mast. On such a vessel, the likelihood of a smooth sail is highly improbable while that of being lost and missing the destination is highly probable. Prasad (2018, p. 4) contemptuously dismisses research that lacks paradigmatic grounding as "a piece of work that is closer to a shabby and pedestrian form of journalism". Accordingly, it is recommended, on embarking on a research process, to articulate and communicate the paradigmatic assumptions that the researcher brings to the research process (Brodsky et al., 2016) and to ensure that paradigmatic ideas and principles are rigorously applied and realised in the thought process and implementation of a research project. In research terms, a paradigm becomes that philosophical theory developed and shared by a research community as a guide to methodological considerations and the conduct of the research process (Shaw et al., 2018). In this respect, the paradigm is indispensable to research in that it is the lenses through which the researcher conceptualises and examines the methodological aspects of a research project (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017). Additionally, a research paradigm, as a set of beliefs about what constitutes reality, the nature of knowledge and knowing, the process of knowledge acquisition, the pathways to acquiring knowledge and the importance of knowledge (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017), informs research decisions at each stage of the research process from its initiation to its conclusion. A paradigm is thus a set of ontological, epistemological, methodological, methods and axiological beliefs that guide a researcher's approach to and conduct of research (Denzin, 2010; Scotland, 2012; Pope & Mays, 2020).

4.2.1. Paradigmatic ontological assumptions

Research paradigms contain ontological assumptions that examine and explain the "nature of existence or reality, of being or becoming, as well as the basic categories of things that exist and their relations" (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 27). Ontology in research, therefore, relates

to concepts regarding the form, nature, and structure of reality that shape beliefs about what a researcher can know about reality (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Hothersall, 2018; Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017; Leavy, 2017; Saldaña & Omasta, 2018; Spencer et al., 2014). Paradigms differ in their conception of reality and these differences account for differences in research approaches advocated by different paradigms. On the extreme ends of the paradigm continuum are located the positivist and the interpretivist paradigms. The former holds the ontological belief that reality is singular, objective, and has an existence independent of human cognition (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015; Brodsky et al., 2016; Leavy, 2017; Tracy, 2020). The later advocates the belief that reality does not have an existence independent of human cognition. Accordingly, reality is subjective and context specific as it is socially constructed by human beings during interactive and interpretive experiences (Roller & Lavrakas. 2015; Spencer et al., 2014). Consequently, there are as many realities as there are subjective experiences and interpretations. Bridging these two poles is pragmatism. Pragmatism perceives reality as layered with some objective, others subjective, and yet others a mixture of objective and subjective layers (Cohen et al., 2018; Feilzer, 2010; Morgan, 2014; Shannon-Baker, 2016). Beliefs about the nature of reality inevitably inform beliefs about what knowledge is and how legitimate and valid knowledge is acquirable. In short, ontological beliefs have a bearing on epistemological beliefs.

4.2.2. Paradigmatic epistemological assumptions

Paradigmatic assumptions of an epistemological nature revolve around the nature, forms, ways of acquiring, and communicating knowledge of reality (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017). Ontology, therefore, is related to epistemology in that ontology is the object of epistemology. In other words, reality, however conceived, is the object of knowledge pursuit. All knowledge, therefore, is knowledge of some reality. Epistemological assumptions deal with the nature of knowledge that is whether knowledge is acquirable or it is personally experienced.

Additionally, epistemology seeks to understand and explain the relationship between the inquirer and knowledge (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017; Spencer et al., 2014).

Paradigmatic epistemological controversies revolve around whether knowledge is hard data that are objective, verifiable, and acquirable through the senses (Mittwede, 2012; Muncey, 2009) or that knowledge is subjective and socially constructed (Leavy, 2017; Tracy, 2020). These ontological beliefs represent the extreme polar ends of the paradigmatic disputation over what constitutes knowledge and the legitimate means of acquiring it. To resolve this seeming polarization, a middle of the road approach conceives of knowledge as consisting of both objective and subjective elements. From this middle of the road standpoint, knowledge acquisition is an experiential activity involving interaction between an individual and the individual's ecological environment (Festenstein, 2016; Hall, 2013; Scott, 2016). Given that knowledge, being experiential and contextual, is relative and fallible, notions of absolute knowledge are fallacious (Allmark et al., 2018; Hall, 2013, Hammond, 2013; Hothersall, 2018). Paradigmatic ontological beliefs thus are critical in informing methodological choices. Given the diversity in ontological beliefs, methodological approaches and methods differ depending on the paradigm that anchors a study.

4.2.3. Paradigmatic methodological and methods assumptions

Research paradigms also contain methodological assumptions that relate to the decision choices and outline of the research process (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017). These assumptions deal with what the researcher will do, how the researcher will conduct the research and why the researcher has made such and such procedural decisions. Methodological controversies centre around whether the best approach to studying the social world is quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods.

On the extreme ends of the methodological divide are located quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches. The former approach is an offshoot of positivism while the latter is of interpretivism. The quantitative approach privileges the scientific method modelled on the

natural or physical sciences. On one hand, the scientific method involves "the systematic collection and classification of observations" (Willig, 2013, p. 41) about social reality through "deductive logic, formulation of hypotheses, testing those hypotheses, offering operational definitions and mathematical equations, calculations, extrapolations and expressions" (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 30). Methods in this tradition include surveys and experiments. The qualitative approach, on the other hand, privileges the subjective construction of meaning as people interact among themselves and with their environment (Leavy, 2017; Tracy, 2020). The prescribed qualitative methods include interviews, discussions, and observations. In the middle of this methodological divide sits the mixed methods approach whose methodological stance is that methodological choices should be dictated by the research problem at hand. Such an approach advocates the integration of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches in seeking answers to complex social problems.

4.2.4. Paradigmatic axiological assumptions

Axiological assumptions at the paradigm level address the function and place of the inquirer's values, attitudes, and biases in research (Hesse-Biber & Flowers, 2019; Mertens, 2018). Axiology thus relates to research ethics. Paradigmatic axiological disputations revolve around researcher objectivity or subjectivity in the conduct of research. Modelled on the natural sciences, the positivist philosophy, on one hand, holds the ethical principle that the researcher should adopt a neutral, objective, and detached stance in relation to both the people involved in a study and the phenomenon being researched on (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015; Hesse-Biber, 2010). Interpretivism, on the other hand, asserts that research in the social sciences is value-bound and value-laden since reality is mind constructed and knowledge subjective. Thus, interpretivism rejects notions of value free research for every researcher, as a participant in the social world, brings own values to the research process. Additionally, interpretivism values the subjective experiences and perspectives of research participants for the participant's reality can only be understood from the standpoint of the participant. The middle ground is occupied by

pragmatism which advocates that ethical researcher conduct depends on the approach that a researcher adopts in each of the quantitative and qualitative strands of a mixed methods study. Fig 4.2 demonstrates the connectedness and inseparability of ontological, epistemological, methodological, and axiological paradigmatic assumptions in the research process.

Figure 4.2

The Linkage Between Paradigmatic Assumptions in The Research Process

Paradigmatic dimension	Dimensional issues
Ontology	What is the nature of reality?
Epistemology	What is the nature of knowledge? How can reality be known?
Theoretical perspective	What approach can be used to acquire knowledge?
Methodology	What procedure can be used to acquire knowledge?
Methods	What data gathering tools are useful for acquiring knowledge?
Sources	What are the sources of data?
Axiology	What is the role of researcher values, attitudes and biases? What is the ethical relationship between researcher and researched?

Note. Adapted from Yilmaz, K. (2013). Comparison of quantitative and qualitative researchtraditions: Epistemological, theoretical, and methodological differences. *European Journal of Education, 48*(2), 311-325. https://doi.org/10.1111/ejed.12014

4.3. Overview of the positivist research paradigm

Positivism advocates the adoption of the methods and approaches of the natural sciences or the scientific method to the study of the social world (Levine, 2016). The scientific method involves

"the systematic collection and classification of observations" (Willig, 2013, p. 41) about social reality through "deductive logic, formulation of hypotheses, testing those hypotheses, offering operational definitions and mathematical equations, calculations, extrapolations and expressions" (Kivhunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 30). Thus, the quantitative approach synonymous with positivism dictates that research be objective, measurable, predictable, and controllable, and its findings be generalizable (Irene, 2014; Mack, 2010; Spencer et al., 2014). Methods within the quantitative methodology include the scientific method, statistical analysis, control and experimental group and a pre/test post method (Mack, 2010). These methods are informed by positivist ontology and epistemology. Ontologically, positivism views reality as singular and with an objective existence independent of human consciousness (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015; Aliyu et al., 2014; Brodsky et al., 2016; Hesse-Biber, 2010; Leavy, 2017; Tracy, 2020). This ontological belief propagates an epistemology that perceives "only statements of fact that could be verified in some way or tested empirically" (Spencer et al., 2014, p. 84) as constituting valid and legitimate knowledge. Valid knowledge, therefore, consists of that which "can be seen, heard, felt, tasted, or smelled, or … inferred, such as sensory facts" (Muncey, 2009, p. 16). Positivist ontological and epistemological positions thus disregard other subjective realities born out of interaction and interpretation, other forms of knowledge, and ways of knowing (Mittwede, 2012). The positivist disregard of other forms of knowledge and of knowing that do not meet the positivist criteria of valid knowledge and methods results in positivist driven social research missing out on important insights into phenomena being studied.

Quantitative research synonymous with the scientific method is deficient in several ways when applied to social science research. Firstly, "the control demanded by quantitative methods strips away the context that is central to life" (Brodskyet al., 2016, p. 13). Quantitative research is, therefore, acontextual and, as such, it is not the most suitable for studying phenomenon that is embedded in context such as SH. Additionally, there is no correspondence between the natural and the social world for the natural world consists of "largely inanimate or biological

phenomena that lack the capacity for self-reflection and cultural production" (Prasad, 2018, p. 3) while the social world is "constituted by the human capacity for meaningful understanding and action" (Prasad, 2018, p. 3). Therefore, an uncritical adoption of the scientific method to studying the social world would be ill-advised for, Prasad (2018, p. 4) observes that positivist methods are "inadequate for the understanding of complex, nuanced, and context-dependent social processes". Accordingly, awareness of the deficiencies of positivism and its scientific method in studying complex social phenomenon such as SH and institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe, motivated the adoption of an eclectic pragmatic paradigm that allows the integration of polar approaches to conducting social science research such as positivism and interpretivism (Frost & Shaw, 2015)

The positivist quantitative phase of the study sought to statistically measure, in quantifiable terms, the prevalence of SH and the institutional tolerance for SH in the colleges studied (see Chapter V). For this, a quantitative approach sufficed but it could not explain the 'why' and the 'how' of the prevalence and institutional tolerance of SH. Thus, it was necessary to complement the quantitative approach with an interpretative approach that could explain the "why" and "how" of SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH.

4.4. Overview of the interpretivist research paradigm

If positivism is the south pole of the world of paradigms, then interpretivism is the north pole. Interpretivism recognises the existence of multiple realities as opposed to positivism's singular and objective universal reality (Aliyu et al 2014). For interpretivists, reality has no objective existence outside human consciousness for it is mind dependent and a personal or social construct (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015). In fact, interpretivists argue that reality is subjective and socially constructed through interaction between individuals or between individuals and their environment (Brodsky et al., 2016; Hesse-Biber et al., 2015; Hesse-Biber, 2018). As such, research ought to emphasise "participant meaning and experience" (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 17) in understanding reality and the social processes involved in the social construction of reality.

Accordingly, interpretivists advocate a qualitative methodology that privileges an emic perspective or the subjectively constructed reality of research participants (Leavy, 2017; Pope & Mays 2020; Prasad, 2018) and seeks "to understand the meaning and significance of the world from the perspective of those who live in it" (Pope & Mays 2020, p. 18). Qualitative research methods, therefore, tend to be naturalistic and take the form of interviews, FGDs, and observations. Qualitative methods of data collection that include FGDs and FFIs were utilised in the qualitative phase of this study to facilitate interaction between the researcher and the participants in generating emic perspectives on SH experiences, institutional tolerance for SH, and institutional responsiveness to SH in the TCs. Since multiple realities exist, generalisations from research on phenomenon that is time and context bound is next to impossible (Irene, 2014)

Central to interpretivist ontology is the premise that "there is no single, fixed reality apart from people's interpretations" (Riger & Sigurvinsdotir, 2016, p. 33). There are, therefore, as many realities as there are interpretations. While this is characteristic of interpretivism, it is important to note that interpretivist research focuses on intersubjectivity or agreement between subjective individuals over reality (Prasad, 2018). This ontological premise propagates an epistemological assumption that knowledge is subjective and socially constructed (Hesse-Biber, 2018; Leavy, 2017; Tracy, 2020). Social interaction and human interpretation are, therefore, critical in the generation of knowledge about the social world. Since social interactions and interpretations are multiple, mutable and context dependent, then knowledge itself is never absolute but subjective. Statements on what is true or false are, therefore, culture bound, historically and context dependent, although some may be universal.

The utilization of both quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study required the adoption of a paradigm that permitted the mixing of the two approaches in the same study. Accordingly, the pragmatic paradigm provided the foundational basis for overriding the incompatibility thesis that quantitative and qualitative research cannot be mixed in the same

4.5. The pragmatic paradigm and its relevance to the study

Pragmatism is the philosophy that aligns seamlessly with mixed methods research (MMR) (Hesse-Biber, 2015; Regnault et al., 2018). As a research paradigm, pragmatism bridges the paradigm schism between positivism and interpretivism. It offers a framework for rejecting the presumed incompatibility between positivism and interpretivism and it provides the justification for a mixed methods approach to research (Brierley, 2017; Hesse-Biber, 2015; Johnson & Christensen, 2017; Parvaiz et al., 2016) that is based on the guiding principle that no one perspective can capture the complexity of social phenomenon (Goodman, 2021). This guiding principle acknowledges the inadequacies of monomethod research approaches and sets the stage for a multi-perspective and mixed methods approach to research. It is this philosophical position, defined by a rejection of notions of a singular reality that can only be accessed through one approach, that informed the choice of the MMR approach in this study (Goodman, 2021).

Ontologically, pragmatism views the social world as a layered world consisting of objective, subjective, and a combination of both objective and subjective segments (Cohen et al., 2018; Feilzer, 2010; Morgan, 2014; Shannon-Baker, 2016). Informed by this understanding of the social world, pragmatists acknowledge the "impossibility of 'complete objectivity' or 'complete subjectivity' in conducting research" (Tran, 2017, p. 74). Accordingly, neither positivism nor interpretivism is comprehensive enough to capture the complexity of a social world that is made up of both objective and subjective layers or in which the two co-occur (Festenstein, 2016; Hothersall, 2018; Scott, 2016). Given this appreciation of the complexity of the social phenomenon as opposed to natural phenomenon and the inherent inadequacies of both positivism and interpretivism in comprehending that complexity, pragmatism, therefore,

takes a practical middle point between positivism and interpretivism though it leans more towards interpretivism (Hesse-Biber, 2015; Moseholm & Fetters, 2017). On one hand, pragmatism rejects the positivist assumptions of an objective reality with an existence independent of human experience and consciousness. Pragmatism, however, with its emphasis on the utility value of things, accepts positivist methodologies that are of value to inquiry. On the other hand, pragmatism shares commonalities with interpretivism in that it accepts that some elements and layers of reality are subjective and socially constructed. However, pragmatism rejects interpretivism's subjective relativism and idealism. Pragmatism goes beyond interpretivism in that it encourages the use of generated subjective knowledge in solving grand problems that beset the social world to make that world a better world for its inhabitants (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Pragmatism, by rejecting an either-or approach between quantitative and qualitative research, permits the adoption of an abductive integrated approach that takes on board both deductive (quantitative) and inductive (qualitative) approaches to research (Brierley, 2017; Zimmermann, 2018). Therefore, anchored on pragmatism, this study sought, on one hand, to quantitatively survey, through structured questionnaires, the prevalence of and institutional tolerance for SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. On the other hand, the study also sought to qualitatively explain SH prevalence, institutional tolerance for SH, and institutional responsiveness to SH through FGDs, FFIs, and QDA. In this way, the two approaches complemented each other and compensated for the inadequacies of each approach. In so doing, the research achieved depth and breadth of understanding of SH prevalence, institutional tolerance for SH, and institutional responsiveness to SH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

In addition, pragmatism accepts the existence of multiple realities that are open to empirical inquiry and orients itself toward solving practical problems in the real world (see 8.4.2 on study recommendations) (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015; Tran, 2017). It, therefore, rejects the possibility of approximating the truth about the social world for the social world is experienced and interpreted differently (Dancy, 2016; Florczak, 2014). There are, therefore, as many

experiences and interpretations of the world as there are people who experience it. Consequently, interpretations of the world are based on personal experiences of the same world and, as such, truth claims are subjective and context dependent (Mertens, 2012). There are hardly any shared notions of the truth in the social world as there are in the natural sciences. Hence, from a pragmatic point of view, it is not of value for research to be obsessed with accurate representation of reality for such an exercise is in futility given that truth is provisional and context dependent. If it is vain to attempt to accurately represent reality because of the possibility of the existence of multiple realities, then the value of research lies in the usefulness of research generated knowledge in addressing those challenges that beset the world (Allmark & Machaczek, 2018; Dancy, 2016; Festenstein, 2016; Korte & Mercurio, 2017; Kremer, 2012; Scott, 2016). The goal of social inquiry from a pragmatic perspective, therefore, is not in accuracy of representation but in positively impacting the world and making it a better place for its inhabitants (Bishop, 2015; Korte et al., 2017; Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017; Visser, 2019; Vodonick, 2016). While interested in understanding the state of things in the social world, research driven by pragmatism goes beyond representing the ideal to creating an ideal world of human possibility and emancipation (Morgan, 2014). Research is, therefore, oriented towards solving social problems that characterize the social context of the research (Allmark et al., 2018; Bishop, 2015; Turyahikayo, 2014; Festenstein, 2016; Mertens et al., 2016; Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). Undertaking this study into institutional responsiveness to SH and SH prevalence was, therefore, an initiation of action directed toward the generation of knowledge of SH prevalence and institutional responsiveness through interaction between the researcher, the research participants, and the environment. This study, therefore, contributes to SH advocacy for "we can and must challenge systemic inequities through our research and practice" (McCauley et al., 2019, p. 1907). Study findings, conclusions and recommendations may thus stimulate further actions of a practical nature in addressing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe (see 8.4.2). In this regard, the study contributes to the creation of SH free IHLs environments.

In this context, establishing what institutions are doing or not doing in prohibiting, preventing, and redressing SH was, by itself, acting towards solving SH as a wicked problem on college campuses (Hill & Silva, 2005, Joneset al., 2013). This study was thus consistent with the pragmatist concern for "developing actionable knowledge useful to people living their everyday lives" (Korte & Mercurio, 2017, p. 63).

On the epistemological level, pragmatism proposes that knowing or acquiring knowledge is an interactive process between the individual and the individual's ecological environment (Hamati-Ataya, 2012; Hammond, 2013; Hothersall, 2018; Morgan, 2014). Knowledge is, therefore, socially constructed as the individual engages in reciprocal activities of acting and reflecting on actions on the environment (Campbell et al., 2011; Festenstein, 2016; Hammond, 2013). In short, knowledge acquisition is an experiential activity based on the interaction between the individual and the individual's ecological environment (including their interactions with other human beings) and not on abstract thinking (Festenstein, 2016; Hall, 2013; Scott, 2016). Resultantly, absolute knowledge is an impossibility for, being experiential and context specific, knowledge is both relative and fallible, constantly in a state of change as it grows and adapts to specific contexts (Allmark et al., 2018; Hall, 2013, Hammond, 2013; Hothersall, 2018). This was significant for SH research in that institutional practices and norms are experienced phenomena by research participants. This study, therefore, was part of that process of growing knowledge and adapting it to specific contexts by studying institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. Accordingly, truth claims that emerged from this study are context specific and born out of the subjective experiences of research participants. Consequently, truth claims based on this study may not be the same as truth claims from studies conducted elsewhere, and may not necessarily be applicable to other contexts. This raises important issues concerning the extent to which study findings can be generalized to other contexts. Accordingly, the value of research, pragmatists observe, does not lie with the extent

to which findings can be generalised to other contexts but the extent to which those findings are useful in resolving the research problem being experienced in research context. Methodologically, pragmatism privileges the practical utility of methodology and methods over theoretical concerns (Campbell et al., 2011; Hesse-Biber, 2015; Leavy, 2017; Scott, 2016). The social problem that is the focus of research is thus prioritised over methodological and methods considerations. In the context of research, this standpoint implies a preoccupation with the adoption of a research methodology and methods that are best suited to addressing the research problem at hand irrespective of being quantitative or qualitative (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015; Hancock et al., 2018; Hesse-Biber, 2015; Leavy, 2017; Morgan, 2014). In sum, it is the research problem that matters and not the methods. The methods only matter as far as they are useful in solving the research problem. Accordingly, pragmatism privileges that which "solves our problems and what works in given situations in practice and what promotes social justice" (Johnson & Christensen, 2017, p. 107). This had profound implications for the collection, description, and analysis of generated data. Thus, pragmatism encourages the adoption of an eclectic approach in deciding on the methodology and methods to use. This means the researcher had the latitude to adopt methods from either positivism or interpretivism so long as the borrowed methods were useful in addressing the research problem at hand (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015; Hesse-Biber, 2015; Hothersall, 2018; Morgan, 2014; Scott, 2016; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2012). Thus, this study, anchored on a pragmatic worldview, adopted a qualitatively driven sequential explanatory design (SED) (qua + QUAL) that integrated positivist and interpretivist research methodologies. Figure 4.3 summarises pragmatic ontological, epistemological, methodological, and axiological ideas.

Figure 4.3

Assumptions of The Pragmatic Paradigm Applied to This Study

Pragmatic Dimension	Pragmatic Assumptions Guiding Emperical Inquiry
Ontology	Existential reality with different layers. Some are objective and others are subjective, and yet others are mixture of objective and subjective
Epistemology	Knowledge is socially constructed through interactions between humans and their social ecology
Theoretical perspective	Deweyan pragmatism-research through design
Methodology	Mixed methods research
Methods	Quantitative and qualitative tools of utility value to the study
Sources	Objective and subjective data
Axiology	Knowledge is only of value if it contributes to problem solving and bettering human experience. researcher can adobt both objectivity and subjectivity in relation to the object of research.

4.6. Research approach for the study

The study adopted an MMR approach. As the "third research community" (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 11), MMR has increasingly created space for itself in a research field that has traditionally recognized quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Moseholm & Fetters, 2017). MMR provides the framework in which quantitative and qualitative research approaches "can coexist peacefully" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 21) through eclectic or synergetic integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study (Bishop, 2015; Hesse-Biber, 2015, 2018; May et al., 2017; Molina-Azorín & López-Gamero, 2016; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015; Shannon-Baker, 2016; Wenger-Trayner et al., 2019; Wright & Sweeney, 2016). It thus provides the framework required for researchers to "cross

disciplinary boundaries and mix methods" (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 213). As a result, MMR, through integration, overcomes the limitations and exploits the strengths of mono-method quantitative or qualitative research approaches (Fahmyet al., 2015; Fetters & Molina-Azorin, 2017; Green et al., 2015; Regnault et al., 2018; Schwandt & Lichty, 2015). Thus, while the quantitative strand of this study adopted scientific methods in statistically measuring SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH through the construction of confidence intervals and the conducting of chi-square tests of association, the same methods, despite their statistical precision and significance, could not account for the 'why' and 'how' of the statistical results on SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH. For example, the quantitative strand established association between college and respondents' indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH but quantitative data could not explain the college contextual characteristics that predispose respondents in one college to report having experienced SH more than those in other colleges. The quantitative strand was, therefore, inadequate in addressing all the research questions that this study sought to answer. Accordingly, it was important to complement and expand the quantitative strand with a qualitative strand that could generate data required to contextualise the quantitative results and to explain the why and how of the quantitative results (Jones et al., 2015) on SH prevalence and institutional responsiveness to SH. Similarly, the qualitative strand, though rich in description, could not measure with precision the prevalence rates of SH and the institutional tolerance for SH in the colleges studied. The qualitative strand was limited too and required to be complemented by a quantitative strand. Working in cohorts, the two strands were able to achieve completeness and comprehensiveness in understanding the complexity of SH and institutional responsiveness to SSH in the TCs.

One limitation of the mono-method approach is its lack of comprehensiveness and completeness given that it "leads researchers to miss important parts of a story" (Hollstein, 2014, p. 3). Integration within MMR achieves a new whole that is greater than the sum of the

individual parts and leads to comprehensiveness in studying social phenomenon (Bryman, 2008; Creamer & Tendhar, 2015; Hesse-Biber, 2015; Leavy, 2017). The equation 1+1=3 (quantitative + qualitative = mixed methods) represents the creation of a new whole greater than either of the strands that make up a mixed methods study (Fetters, 2018; Fetters & Freshwater, 2015; Hesse-Biber, 2010). Accordingly, integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study was indispensable to achieving comprehensiveness and completeness in examining institutional responsiveness to SSH in the colleges studied. The study was thus able to statistically measure SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SSH, and to explore institutional responsive strategies and practices to SH as well as examine lecturers and students' perception on the effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies to SH.

The defining feature of a mixed methods approach is integration of the quantitative and qualitative components of a mixed methods study (Johnson & Christensen, 2017; Leavy, 2017). Integration means the bringing together or the meshing of the otherwise disparate quantitative and qualitative approaches that make up a mixed methods study. This integration may occur at different points of the research process such as the philosophical or theoretical framework(s), methods of data collection and analysis, overall research design, and/or discussion of research conclusions (Bartholomew & Lockard, 2018; Doyle et al., 2016; Green et al., 2015; Guetterman & Fetters, 2018; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015). Failure to integrate the quantitative and qualitative components of a study results in a multimethod and not a mixed method research (Creamer, 2018). Fetters (2018) represents this in the equation 1+1=2. 1+1=2 means that a researcher brings together quantitative and qualitative methodologies that are not integrated in one-study resulting in two independent studies (multimethod) and not a mixed method study. This study achieved integration of the two strands at several points. Integration was achieved at the theoretical stage through the adoption of the pragmatic paradigm, at the sampling stage for the follow-up qualitative strand of the study through using results of the quantitative phase in selecting the colleges for the qualitative multisite case study, and using quantitative results

to develop qualitative instruments as well as identify participants to focus on in the qualitative phase, and at the discussion phase of the study through bringing together the quantitative results and the qualitative findings.

MMR offers comprehensiveness and completeness in addressing pertinent, puzzling, and complex research problems that plague contemporary society through bringing together the statistical accuracy of quantitative data with the subjective depth of emic perspectives of qualitative research (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015; Fàbregues & Paré, 2018; Fuligni, 2016; Hay, 2016; Hesse-Biber, 2015; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015; Schwandt *&* Lichty, 2015; Wheeldon, 2010). The strengths of MMR lie in the potential for triangulation, complementarity, development, expansion, and initiation that mixed methods present (Creamer, 2018; Halcomb & Andrew, 2009; Hendren et al.,2018; Weine, 2015). This means that MMR enhances the potential for data, method and participant triangulation, the potential for overcoming the weaknesses of mono-methods by having each method complement the other, the potential for using one approach to develop the other, and the potential for expanding on one method based on the results from another method. All this contributes to enhancing the validity and reliability of a study. The Arrow Framework for Research Design (Pearce et al., 2014**)** in Figure 4.4**.** represents the relationship between mixed methods and quantitative and qualitative research approaches.

Figure 4.4

Relationship of Mixed Methods to Quantitative and Qualitative Research Approaches
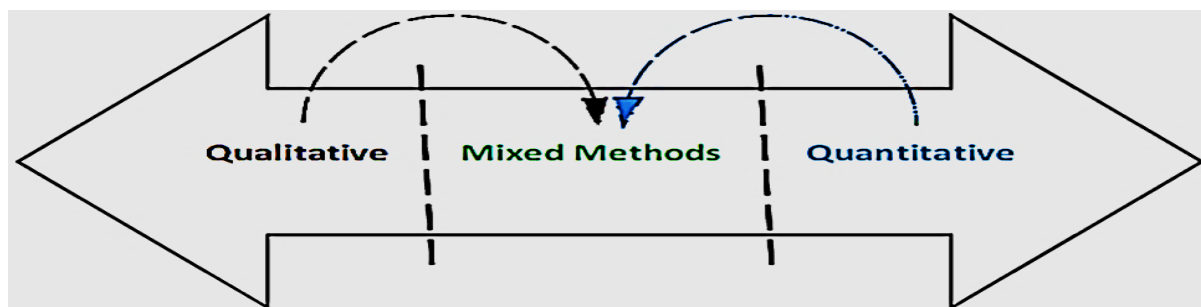
Note. Adapted from Pearce et al., (2014). Research methods for graduate students: A practical framework to guide teachers and learners. *Journal of the American Association of Nurse Practitioners, 26*, 19–31. https://doi.org/10.1002/2327-6924.12080

4.7. Study design

The Research design is the "overall blueprint – the architecture" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 175) that provides a detailed description of the plan and structure of the research process that has a bearing on the approach to research and the data gathering methods relevant to the research questions (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Leavy, 2017; Mukherjee, 2017; Yin, 2016). It essentially is the logic of research inquiry (Hesse-Biber, 2015), type of inquiry within quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods approaches (Creswell, 2014b) or "a blueprint to guide the research process by laying out how a study will move from the research purpose/questions to the outcomes" (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018, p. 2). The design, therefore, is the structuring of an intended research project that sets out the procedures for collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting data in a research study. The choice of design and fidelity to the design is a huge step in ensuring the validity and reliability of a study. This study, informed by the pragmatic research paradigm, adopted a sequential explanatory MMR design.

4.7.1. The sequential explanatory MMR design

This study adopted a qualitatively driven sequential explanatory MMR design (quan + QUAL). A qualitatively driven mixed-methods approach implies prioritization of the qualitative component of the research design (Hesse-Biber et al., 2015; Hesse-Biber, 2018). Accordingly,

a qualitatively driven sequential design can enhance the appreciation of complex social problems such as SH in TCs in Zimbabwe (Hesse-Biber, 2010). The design involved the collection and analysis of quantitative data followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data (Almalki, 2016; Bishop, 2015; Moseholm & Fetters, 2017; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015; Ridde & Olivier de Sardan, 2015; Taghizadeh et al.,2015). In a sequential explanatory MMR design, the qualitative component explains or contextualizes the earlier quantitative results (Bartholomew & Lockard,2018**;** Bishop, 2015; Doyle et al., 2016). For example, in this study, qualitative findings were used to explain the statistical results on SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH obtained in the quantitative phase of the study. The qualitative results thus added depth and breadth to the quantitative results. Additionally, the qualitative data also expanded on the quantitative results by answering research questions that were not addressed by the quantitative data.

The design was sequential in that the initiation of the second qualitative component followed the completion of the initial quantitative strand of the study (Bishop, 2015; Hayes et al., 2013**;** Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). Weighting in a sequential explanatory MMR design is usually (but not always) skewed in favour of the quantitative component of the study that is accorded high priority with the qualitative component accorded low priority (Ponterotto et al., 2013). This study, however, departed from the norm in that it prioritized the qualitative over the quantitative component. In doing so, the design decision to prioritise the qualitative phase of the study was consistent with design configurations in sequential explanatory studies (Anguera et al., 2012; Hesse-Biber et al., 2015; Kroll & Neri, 2009). Hayes et al. (2013) acknowledge and refer to this unusual variant of the design. The high priority accorded to the second qualitative phase of the study was also consistent with previous studies (Cragun & Friedlander, 2012; Tran, 2016). This prioritization ensured that the lowly prioritized quantitative cross-sectional survey provided a general understanding of the prevalence of SH and institutional tolerance for SH from the perspective of research respondents while the

qualitative data and analysis refined and explained those statistical results by exploring participants' views and institutional documents in more depth. In conceptualising this study, study objectives were carefully constructed such that addressing them required different sets of data. To collect data that addressed the quantitative questions and qualitative questions demanded a SED that collected quantitative and qualitative data was required. Figure 4.5. represents the sequential explanatory MMR design adopted for this study.

MMR designs are complex and this demands that they be carefully structured to achieve clarity. Accordingly, it is recommended that the structure of the report mirrors the design adopted (Bazeley, 2015; Creswell, 2009, 2014a, 2015; Creswell & Poth, 2018; O'Cathain, 2009; Plano Clark et al., 2008). In adherence to this recommendation, the methodological sections of this SED are presented following the sequence in which the study unfolded. Accordingly, the quantitative phase and its associated procedures are discussed first followed by the qualitative phase and its associated procedures. Finally, the mixed methods procedures for this study are discussed. Seaman et al. (2019) adopted this structuring in a study of the joint use of Tobacco and Marijuana by young adults. Following advice by Morse (2015, p. 217) that 'without diagramming, there is a lack of clarity' in mixed methods research, I present the structure and organisation of the study in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5

The Sequential Explanatory Design Flow Chart
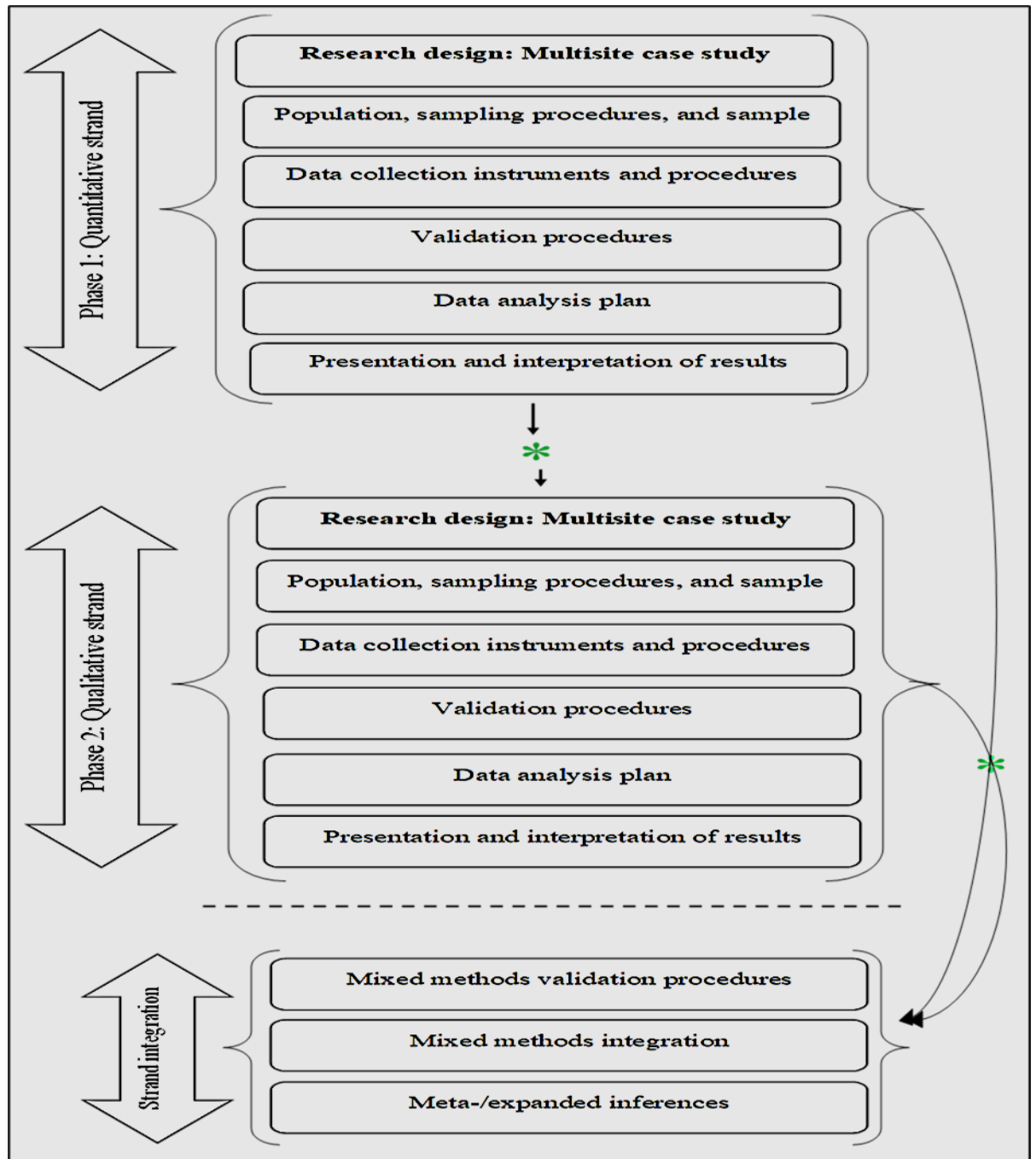
Note: * indicates the quantitative and qualitative strand connection and integration points

4.8. Quantitative phase of the study

The quantitative strand of this study constituted phase 1 of this sequential explanatory mixed methods design. In this phase, a cross-sectional survey was conducted to measure SH prevalence and students and lecturers' perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH in five TCs

in two provinces of Zimbabwe. This section of the methodology chapter discusses the study design, the population, the sample size and the sampling procedures, the data collection instruments and procedures, the data analysis procedures, and the validation procedures of the quantitative strand of the study.

4.8.1. Cross-sectional survey design

In the initial quantitative phase of the study, the researcher measured SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH in TCs located in two provinces of Zimbabwe. To achieve these goals, a cross-sectional survey design was adopted. The cross-sectional survey was appropriate for the quantitative phase of the study because the objective of this phase was to estimate SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH in the studied TCs. These objectives could thus best be achieved through a survey for surveys are "typically used for ascertaining individuals' attitudes, beliefs, opinions, or their reporting of their experiences and/or behaviors" (Leavy, 2017, p. 101). The design was also appropriate because it was consistent with research designs commonly used in prevalence studies in SH research (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020).

Cohen et al. (2018, p. 334) define a cross-sectional survey as that design in which data are collected "at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions, or identifying standards to compare existing conditions against, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events". A cross-sectional survey carried out at a point in time gives a picture of what is happening in a group at a given time (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017; Leavy, 2017). Omair (2015) equates cross-sectional surveys to prevalence studies because of their suitability in estimating prevalence rates. The survey design was adopted because of its suitability in a study designed to comprehend the perceptions of study participants in relation to the study population (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Patten & Newhart, 2018).

In survey research, sample size adequacy and representativeness are critical in enhancing the validity, reliability, and generalizability of cross-sectional survey designs (Fowler, 2014; Patten & Newhart, 2018). In this study, the researcher ensured sample size adequacy by power

calculating the sample size at 3.5% margin of error and 95% confidence level. In addition, the researcher ensured sample representativeness by using the systematic stratified random sampling technique to draw study participants from the population into the sample. The adequacy of the sample size and sample representativeness permitted the researcher to generalise, with confidence, findings from the sample to the larger population of the study. Furthermore, taking note of the observation by Auriacombe (2010) that a sample survey is only as good as the design of the measurement instrument, the researcher carefully developed the survey questionnaire through merging established instruments to enhance study validity and reliability. These instruments included the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) (Fitzgerald et al., 1988) and the Organisational Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (OTSHI) (Estrada et al., 2011). The SEQ has a reported 0.91 alpha reliability (Haruna, 2014) while the OTSHI has a reported Cronbach's alpha of between 0.94 and 0.96 (Estrada et al., 2011). The adoption of these instruments ensured that the survey measured that which it was intended to measure and elicited responses that it was intended to elicit. In this study, therefore, part 2 of the survey instrument contained SEQ items that measured SH prevalence by asking respondents to indicate (on a Likert scale) the frequency with which they had experienced, heard about, or witnessed lecturers engaging in the harassing behaviours listed. The last item on the SEQ specifically required respondents to indicate whether lecturers sexually harassed students. Part 3 of the questionnaire consisted of the OTSHI designed to measure institutional tolerance for SH.

4.8.2. Survey population

Research population refers to all the animate or inanimate constituent elements or cases that make up a group that is of interest to the researcher (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Cohen et al., 2018; Coolican, 2014; Johnson & Christensen, 2017). Similarly, Kothari (2004) perceives a population or universe as constituting all items in any field of inquiry. The term item as conceived in research encompasses inanimate and animate objects. Research population,

therefore, refers to all inanimate or animate objects that possess characteristics relevant to the research study. The population for this study comprised all the lecturers and students in 5 selected teacher training colleges in the eastern and southern provinces of Zimbabwe. Two of the colleges are church run institutions while the other three are government institutions. Four of the institutions offer the diploma in Early Childhood Development (ECD) and primary education while the fifth college offers the diploma in secondary education. Table 4.1 shows enrolment and staffing statistics in the 5 selected teachers' college.

Table 4.1

Study Population

	Population category						
	Lecturers			students			
College site	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	College total
College 1	59	27	86	81	170	251	337
College 2	36	29	65	75	319	394	459
College 3	27	28	55	89	471	560	615
College 4	34	34	68	71	325	396	464
College 5	45	49	94	143	398	541	635
Total	201	167	368	459	1683	2142	2510

Note. Enrolment and staffing statistics for the year 2020 were provided by each respective college. Enrolment figures are for students who were in their final year of studies.

The study population was 2510 as shown in Table 4.1. However, studying an entire population or universe was both impossible and impracticable because of constrains associated with time, cost, and geographical spread of the population (Bordens & Abbott, 2018). Accordingly, a representative sample was studied. Findings based on the representative sample were then generalised to the population that the sample had been drawn from.

4.8.3. Quantitative sampling and sample size

A sample is a smaller group or subset that is systematically drawn from the research population to represent the population it is drawn from (Johnson & Christensen, 2017; Ponto, 2015; Salaria, 2012). Accordingly, sample-based results are generalizable to the population that the sample

represents. Such generalizability is dependent upon "the adequacy and representativeness of the sample" (Ponto, 2015, p. 169). Sampling procedures and sample adequacy are, therefore, critical determinants of the reliability and validity of research conclusions (Cohen et al., 2018; Larson & Carbine, 2016; Marshall et al., 2013). Faulty or inappropriate sampling procedures and inadequate sample sizes compromise the validity of a study's findings (Larson & Carbine, 2016).

Quantitative research relies on probability sampling techniques in drawing up a sample. The population consisted of lecturers and students of different genders. Such a heterogeneous population required the use of several probability-sampling techniques to attain a representative sample. The initial step in the sampling process involved power calculating, a prior, the sample size using Cochran's formula (Singh & Masuku, 2014) at 3.5% margin of error and 95% confidence level. This produced a sample size of 598, constituting 23.8% of the study population. Gurung et al. (2016) used a variant of the same formula to statistically determine sample size in a study of university students' knowledge about SH in India. Cochrane's formula is given as:

$$n_0 = \frac{z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{n_0 - 1}{N}}$$

Where:

$\boldsymbol{n_0}$: *the sample size*

$\boldsymbol{z^2}$: *the abscissa of the normal curve that cuts off an area α at the tails i.e. 1.96*

$\boldsymbol{e}$: *the acceptable sampling error i.e. 0.035*

$\boldsymbol{p}$: *the estimated proportion of an attribute present in the population i.e. 0.5*

$\boldsymbol{q}$: $1 - p$

$$n_0 = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times (1 - 0.5)}{0.035^2}$$

$$n_0 = \frac{3.8416 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.001225}$$

$$n_0 = \frac{0.9604}{0.001225}$$

$$n_0 = \textbf{784}$$

Therefore,

$$n = \frac{784}{1 + \frac{784 - 1}{2510}}$$

=

$$n = \frac{784}{1 + \frac{783}{2510}}$$

$$n = \frac{784}{1 + 0.312}$$

$$n = \frac{784}{1.312}$$

$$\boldsymbol{n = 598}$$

After determining the sample size to be *598*, the next stage in the sampling process involved determining the proportional representative size of each college to the sample. This involved determining the number of units each college had to contribute to the sample. This was achieved through dividing the stratum population in each college (N_I) by the study population (N) and then multiplying that by the sample size (n).

The formula below represents this calculation procedure.

$$\frac{N_1}{N} \times \boldsymbol{n}$$

Where:

$\boldsymbol{N_1} = case\ stratum\ population\ (\ e.g.\ male\ students\ in\ case\ site\ 1)$

$\boldsymbol{N} = study\ population$

$\boldsymbol{n} = sample\ size$

Table 1.2

Population and Proportional Sample Size by Both College and Population Stratum

College	Lecturers Male		Female		Students Male		Female		Total lecturers		Total students			
	N	n_1	N	n_1	N	n_1	N	n_1	N	n_1	N	n_1	P	n
College 1	59	14	27	6	81	19	170	41	86	20	251	60	337	80
College 2	36	9	29	7	75	18	319	76	65	16	394	94	459	110
College 3	27	6	28	7	89	21	471	112	55	13	560	133	615	146
College 4	34	8	34	8	71	17	325	77	68	16	396	94	464	110
College 5	45	11	49	12	143	34	398	95	94	23	541	129	635	152
Total	201	48	167	40	459	109	1683	401	368	88	2142	510	2510	598

Having calculated the required sample size and the contribution of each stratum in each college to the sample, enrolment registers and staff lists were then obtained from the vice-principals in each college. These registers and lists became the sampling frames (Elfil & Negida, 2017). When the registers and lists had been secured, students on the registers and lecturers on the lists were categorised into male and female. In this way, the population was stratified into male and female for both lecturers and students in each college (Elfil & Negida, 2017; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Four homogenous population sub-groups were thus created: male lecturers, female lecturers, male students, and female students. The stratified sub-groups in each college did not consist of equal population numbers. For instance, the number of male students did not tally with the number of female students in each college. Similarly, the number of male lecturers did not tally with the number of female lecturers in each college except for one or two exceptions. To ensure sample representativeness, a systematic rule and a fixed interval was devised to ensure that each college contributed a proportional number of respondents in relation to its population size and required sample size (Elfil & Negida, 2017). The fixed interval (k^{th}) was determined through dividing the stratum population (N) by the required stratum sample size (N_I). For example, the required number of male students from college 1 was 14 and the male student population in college 1 was 59, then the kth number was determined as follows

$$k^{th} = \frac{59}{14} = 4.2$$

When the four sub-categories were in place, then the researcher proceeded to select units into the sample from each population sub-category. The kth number became the interval of selection or the skip number. Using the enrolment register and staff list in each college as a sampling frame, the researcher then used systematic random sampling to pick every k^{th} item from the register into the sample.

The researcher thus obtained a proportionally representative sample by repeatedly conducting the same calculations for each stratum across colleges. In this way, the researcher achieved a proportionally representative sample of all the homogeneous groups that exist in the population in each college. The probability sampling techniques adopted in determining the quantitative sample for this study enhanced the generalizability of research findings to the larger population through controlling researcher bias in sample selection (Mercer et al., 2017; Palinkas et al.,2015). Bias in sample selection heightens compromises both the validity and reliability of a study (Mercer et al., 2017). Additionally, the sampling procedures followed in this study ensure replicability and reproducibility (Larson & Carbine, 2016). Reproducibility and replicability are the hallmarks of quantitative research. Figure 4.6. shows the sampling strategies and procedures that were adopted in this study.

Figure 4.6

Quantitative Sampling Techniques and Procedures
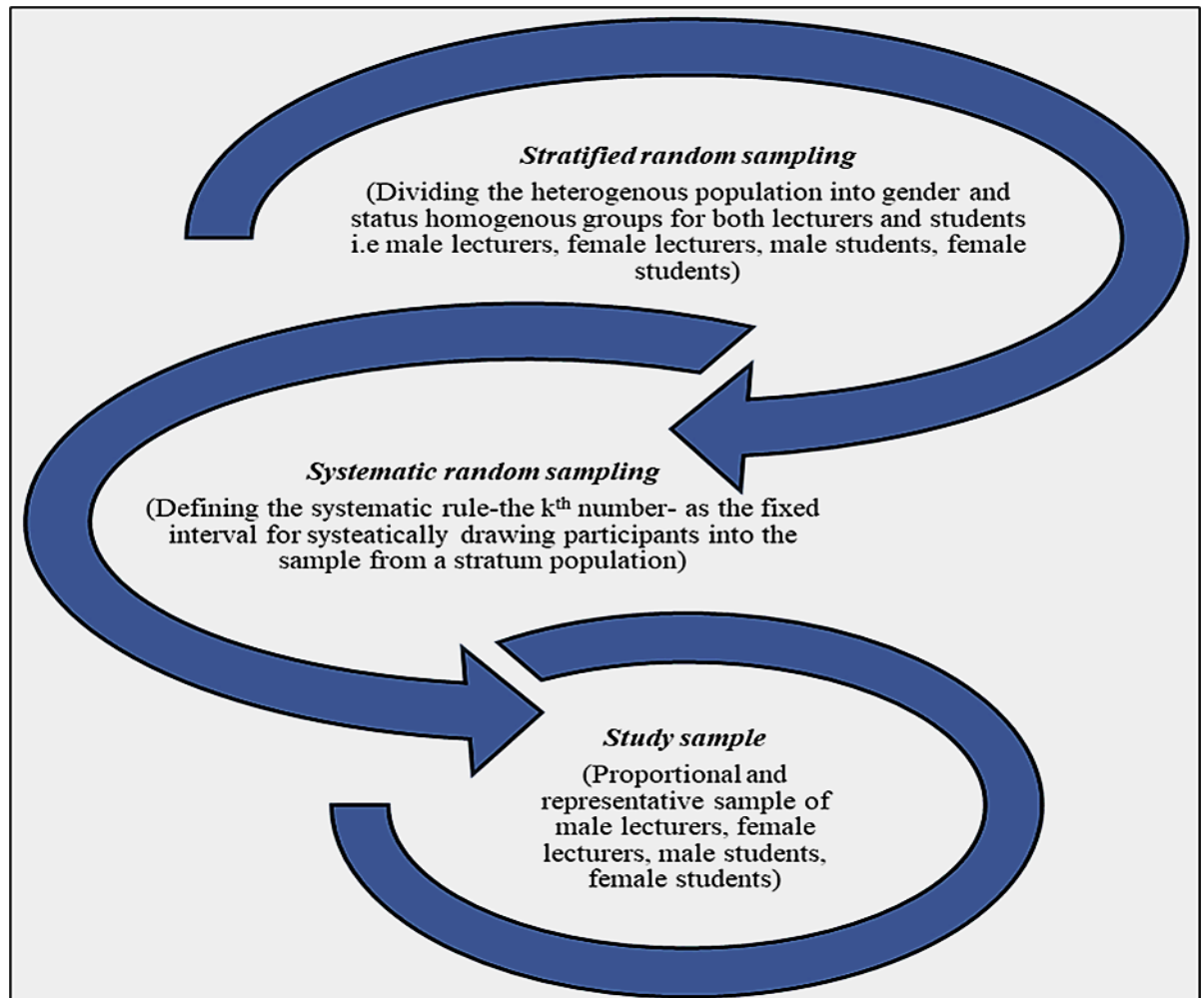
4.8.4. Authorisation and gaining access to case sites

In collecting data, the researcher initially entered the case study institutions. Researcher sought and obtained permission from the Ministry of IHLs, Science and Technology Development to access the case study institutions using a letter of authorisation from the Great Zimbabwe University, the institution in which the researcher was a candidate. Thereafter, the researcher requested permission and cooperation from the colleges.

4.8.5. Quantitative instrumentation and data gathering

Structured questionnaires generated data on SH prevalence and perceptions on institutional tolerance for SH in the TCs. In designing an instrument that measured both SH prevalence and

institutional tolerance for SH, the study married two established instruments that have been consistently used with success in SH research. These instruments are the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) and the Organisational tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (OTSHI).

Adopting established research instruments is the standard recommendation in survey research (Langbecker et al., 2017; Leavy, 2017; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. 2018). Designing new instruments to measure a given construct or constructs in a context where established and validated instruments that measure the same constructs are in existence is akin to reinventing the wheel. It just is not necessary except as an exercise in developing competence in constructing survey instruments (Leavy, 2017).ok

4.8.5.1. Structured questionnaire

The questionnaire is a common and widely used data-gathering instrument in social science research. It is a research instrument that takes the format of a form and consists of a set of questions (items) intended to capture responses from respondents in a standardized manner (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Kothari, 2004). The questionnaire questions are factual and designed to secure information about certain conditions or practices, of which respondent is presumed to have knowledge (Bhattacherjee, 2012). In this study, the structured questionnaire solicited information on SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

The questionnaire may be unstructured/unrestricted or structured/restricted (Sigh, 2006). On one hand, unstructured questionnaires contain questions that require respondents to provide responses in their own words, while, on the other, structured questionnaires limit respondents' responses to selection of an answer from predetermined choices (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Structured or restricted questionnaires generate responses amenable to aggregation into a composite scale or index for statistical analysis. This was useful for this study in that the researcher intended to use data generated through the structured questionnaire to carry out

inferential statistical analysis on the prevalence of SH and on perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH.

In the cross-sectional survey of the quantitative phase of the study, a questionnaire that incorporated the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) (Fitzgerald et al., 1988) and the Organisational Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (OTSHI) (Hulin et al., 1996) was used. The questionnaire designed for this study used interval-level responses in the form of a Likert-scale.

The SEQ assessed the extent and types of SH experienced in TCs. The study used two distinct but related questionnaires for faculty members and students respectively. Both the student and faculty questionnaires consisted of items measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from Never, Once, or twice, Sometimes, Often and Most of the time. Closed questions restricted respondents to the provision of categorical data required by the researcher. The SEQ has a reported alpha reliability score of 0.90 above (Haruna, 2014; Yoon et al., 2010). This implies that adopting the SEQ for this study enhanced the study's validity and reliability.

Hulin et al. (1996) developed the Organisational tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (OTSHI) as a "measure of the organisational response to sexual harassment" (Ollo-López &Nuñez, 2018, p. 175). OTSHI consists of brief scenarios depicting SH followed by 3 questions about:

i.   the risk to the victim for reporting the incident

ii.   the likelihood that a complaint would be taken seriously and

iii. the likelihood that the harasser would receive meaningful sanctions by the organisation (Estrada et al., 2011).

The OTSHI is an established, reliable, and valid measure with a reported Cronbach's alpha of between 0.94 and 0.96 (Estrada et al., 2011). Such a high reliability and validity measure enhanced the validity and reliability of the data collected through this instrument.

The structured Questionnaire ensured and guaranteed the anonymity of research participants that was a key ethical consideration. Guaranteeing anonymity increased the probability of participants providing honest and reliable responses because anonymity allayed fears in respondents about the questionnaires being traced back to individual respondents. Thirdly, the self-administration of the questionnaire to students during classes discouraged collusion among participants that could have seriously compromised the 'validity' and 'reliability' of the gathered data and it also ensured a 100% response rate. The quantitative sample of the initial quantitative phase of the study completed the study questionnaires. More questionnaires than required were distributed to deflect loses arising from grossly incomplete questionnaires. Accordingly, while the required sample was 598 power calculated at 3.5% margin of error and 95% confidence level, questionnaires were distributed to an inflated sample size calculated at 3% margin of error and 95% confidence level. Consequently, 754 questionnaires were distributed. Thus, the researcher had 156 questionnaires in excess of the required 598. This proved beneficial because some returned questionnaires were so incomplete that they were invalid for statistical analysis. Such questionnaires were discarded. However, the researcher retained the 598 that were required for this study.

4.9. Quantitative reliability and validity

A study's claim to scientific empiricism depends on the extent to which its design and conduct meets and satisfies reliability and validity criteria in research. Reliability, on one hand, relates to the quality of measurement in research while validity, on the other, is concerned with the legitimacy of the research findings and the extent to which the findings accurately represent the truth in the objective world (Anderson, 2010; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015; Venkatesh, et al., 2013). Reliability, therefore, refers to the extent to which a measure measures that which it is intended to measure and is a precondition for achieving validity (Cohen et al., 2018; Venkatesh, et al.,2013) of the quantitative component of this sequential explanatory MMR design.

4.9.1. Reliability testing

Reliability in quantitative research denotes notions of replicability or repeatability of the processes and the results of a study (Bolarinwa, 2015; Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017; Yilmaz, 2013). It addresses "the consistency with which a research procedure will evaluate a phenomenon in the same way over several attempts" (Hayashi et al., 2019, p. 99). Criteria for reliability include stability, internal consistency, and equivalence of a measure (Souza et al., 2017). A reliable instrument contributes to precision, accuracy, and adequacy of the measurement (Merom & John, 2018). Stability of a measure is the extent to which a measure, if used repeatedly and over time, yields the same results (Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017; Souza et al., 2017). An instrument is stable if it demonstrates consistency in terms of its results following the replication of a study at different times (Mohamad et al., 2015; Souza et al., 2017). The test-retest method is one technique of determining the stability of an instrument. Another criterion of reliability is internal consistency or homogeneity. Internal consistency concerns the extent to which instrument items or parts of an instrument measure the same characteristic or the same construct (Souza et al., 2017). Cronbach's alpha is useful in determining the internal consistency of an instrument. The third criterion for reliability is equivalence. Equivalence is the degree of agreement in scores between two raters who fill in an instrument (Souza et al., 2017).

A measure is reliable if it yields the same result when used repeatedly. Reliability, therefore, is a precondition for validity in quantitative research because in the absence of reliability a study's inferences are invalid (Venkatesh, et al., 2013). The adoption of established research instruments such as the SEQ and the OTSHI in this study enhanced internal consistency reliability through the incorporation of correct operational measures for the concepts being studied that have been long established (Langbecker et al., 2017; Leavy, 2017; Wood & Moylan, 2017). For example, Ismail et al. (2007) adopted the SEQ and established that the revised SEQ yielded alpha reliabilities ranging from 0.75 to 0.89 and the OTSHI has a reported Cronbach's alpha of 0.96 (Ormerod & Collinsworth, 2008). Past research has successfully

established the reliability of the SEQ and OTSHI. Adopting these instruments in this study thus ensured measurement reliability.

4.9.2. Validity testing

Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it intended to measure or how truthful the research results are (Bolarinwa, 2015; Merom & John, 2018; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015; Souza et al., 2017). It pertains to whether a researcher is measuring the right phenomenon and doing so in a manner that captures the totality of the phenomenon being studied (Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017). Yilmaz (2013) refers to validity as the accuracy of research data. Accordingly, measurement tools, the research design, the sample size and its determination, and the data analysis procedures are critical considerations in the achievement of validity (Anderson, 2010; Cohen et al., 2018; Kothari, 2004). To enhance validity, the study used, as recommended by methodologists, established measures to explore SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH (Langbecker et al., 2017; Leavy, 2017; Wood & Moylan, 2017). Accordingly, the study instrument merged the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire and the Organisational Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory. Merging these tried tools ensured that the study measured that which it was intended to measure. Furthermore, the study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. The design was appropriate for it is reported to be best suited for exploring perceptions at a given point in time. Additionally, the survey sample was power calculated at 3.5% margin of error and 95% confidence level. The sample size was adequate to produce results that can be confidently generalized to the study population. Moreover, the data analysis procedures adopted were consistent with the survey design. Survey data were subjected to descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. On one hand, χ^2 tests were performed to establish association between several variables that were of research interest. For example, χ^2 tests were performed to determine the association between gender and the experiences of SH, and between college and the experiences of SH. Given these adopted measures, it can be argued that the study validity was achieved. On the other hand, confidence intervals were constructed

to estimate, for example, the proportion of respondents who had had some experience of lecturer perpetrated SH.

4.9.3. Content validity

Content validity relates to the adequate and effective measurement of the construct being studied (Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017). Accordingly, measurement instruments must cover the construct or constructs under study fairly and comprehensively (Cohen et al., 2018; Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017). The researcher achieved content validity through adopting established instruments in the measurement of SH prevalence and institutional tolerance or intolerance of SH (Langbecker et al., 2017; Leavy, 2017; Wood & Moylan, 2017). Past research has successfully demonstrated the content validity of the SEQ and the OTSHI. For example, Ismail et al. (2007) adopted and adapted the SEQ and established that the revised SEQ yielded alpha reliabilities ranging from 0.75 to 0.89 and the OTSHI has a reported Cronbach's alpha of 0.96 (Ormerod & Collinsworth, 2008). The researcher was, therefore, confident that the research instruments adopted for this study adequately and effectively measured SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH.

4.9.4. Construct validity

Construct validity refers to the quality of the conceptualisation or operationalisation of the relevant concept (Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017; Yilmaz, 2013) or to the extent to which a study investigates what it claims to investigate (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010). In the context of this study, it refers to the correct conceptualisation of SH and institutional responsiveness to SH. Gibbert and Ruigrok, (2010) report that triangulation of data sources and methods of data collection greatly enhance construct validity. This study thus enhanced construct validity through triangulating data sources. Lecturers and students in the TCs provided the data required for this study. Thus, the researcher triangulated lecturers and students as data sources. Additionally, conducting the survey across 5 colleges enhanced construct validity in that studying SH in

multiple contexts has the potential of arriving at findings close to an approximation of the 'reality' of SH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

4.9.5. External validity

External validity deals with the extent to which research findings are generalizable to other contexts, situations, or people (Bolarinwa, 2015; Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017; Yilmaz, 2013). Sample determination and selection procedures are thus critical in ensuring external validity (Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017). This study enhanced external validity through power calculating the sample size using Cochran's formula at 3.5% margin of error and at 95% confidence level. Additionally, the researcher used systematic stratified random sampling to ensure that the sample is representative of the population. Systematic stratified random sampling greatly minimised researcher bias in the selection of participants (Shenton, 2004) and helped to ensure the even distribution of any unknown influences within the sample. The sample determination and selection procedures thus enhanced external validity and allowed the researcher to confidently generalise findings from the cross-sectional survey of the initial quantitative phase of the study to the larger population.

4.10. Quantitative data analysis

In analysing quantitative data generated through the study questionnaire, descriptive statistics involving frequency counts were used to analyse respondent demographic data. Beyond this, 95% confidence intervals were constructed to estimate the proportion of respondents who had witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH. Confidence intervals were also constructed to estimate the proportion of respondents perceiving it as risky to file a harassment complaint, proportion of respondents perceiving it as likely that a student complainant will be taken seriously by college, and the proportion of respondents perceiving it as likely that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer. Additionally, chi-square tests were performed at 5% significance level to investigate if respondent characteristics (gender and status) as well as college are associated with respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced

lecturers engaging in sexually harassing behaviours. Further chi-square tests were performed to investigate association between respondent characteristics (gender and status) as well as college and respondents' perception of institutional tolerance for SH. Data were analysed using R version 4.0.4 software.

4.11. Qualitative phase of the study

Following the completion of the cross-sectional survey, a qualitative phase ensued. Results from the initial cross-sectional survey helped to shape the qualitative component of the study. Survey results were used to rank colleges according to established prevalence rates in each college. The intention was to purposively select the colleges occupying the first two slots on the prevalence ranking as case sites for the qualitative multisite case study. In this way, integration of the two phases of the study was achieved at the sampling stage for the second phase of the study for results from the initial phase informed case selection for the subsequent qualitative phase of the study. Additionally, initial quantitative results pointed to which participants to focus on in the qualitative phase of the study. For example, more female than male students reported having experienced, heard about or witnessed lecturers engaging in harassing behaviours, and more female than male students perceived the colleges as more tolerant to SH. Accordingly, it was prudent to focus more on female students in the qualitative phase of the study. In this way, initial quantitative results focused participant selection for the follow-up qualitative phase. Accordingly, the quantitative and qualitative strands of this study were integrated at the sampling stage. in this way, the two study strands were connected and thus ceased to be separate studies.

This section of the chapter discusses the methodological issues pertinent to the qualitative strand of this mixed methods study. These issues include the qualitative research design adopted in this study, the sampling techniques and procedures adopted, the sample size determination, the qualitative instrumentation, the qualitative quality control measures, and the qualitative data analysis techniques adopted for this qualitative phase of the study.

4.11.1. The qualitative multisite case study research design

The sequential explanatory mixed-methods design dictated conducting the study in two distinct phases. In the initial quantitative phase of the study, the researcher adopted a cross-sectional survey design to explore the prevalence of and assess institutional tolerance for SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. Previous research has established a strong association between institutional tolerance for SH and high prevalence rates of SH (Willness et al., 2007). That is, institutional tolerance or intolerance of SH leads to high or low SH prevalence rates respectively. However, the initial quantitative phase of the study, with its statistical results on SH prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH, could not contextualize and provide explanations of the established SH prevalence rates and the forms that tolerance or intolerance to SH take in TCs in Zimbabwe.

The second phase of the study addressed this void in understanding institutional responsiveness to SSH by adopting a multiple-site instrumental case study design to build or expand on the initial quantitative phase of the study. In filling this void, the qualitative phase enhanced completeness and expansion required for a comprehensive understanding of institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. An instrumental case study design seeks "to understand a specific issue, problem, or concern (e.g., teenage pregnancy) and a case or cases selected to best understand the problem" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 187). In the context of this study the issue of concern was institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. To this end, the qualitative phase explained what TCs in Zimbabwe are doing or not doing in response to SSH from the perspective of institutional stakeholders such as lecturers and students and from institutional documents. In this way, the qualitative phase sought to explore institutional responsiveness to SSH from the emic perspective of students and lecturers (Hesse-Biber et al., 2015).

A case study approach generates thick and contextual descriptions that capture the complexity of that phenomenon that is of research interest (Crowe et al., 2011; Ridder, 2017; Padgett, 2017;

Yin, 2018). In generating thick descriptions necessary for a comprehensive appreciation of both context and phenomenon, the case study gathers data from multiple data sources using multiple methods (Lune & Berg, 2017; Miles, 2015; Padgett; 2017; Roller & Lavrakas, 2015; Yin, 2018). For example, in this study, data were gathered from both students and lecturers using multiple methods that included FFIs, FGDs, and QDA. The use of multiple perspectives and methods of data collection enabled the triangulation of data and perspectives that, in turn, enhanced the credibility of this study (Willig, 2014).

Case studies are variously classified into descriptive, exploratory, or explanatory (Anderson et al., 2014; Yin, 2018) or intrinsic, instrumental, and collective/multiple case (Creswell & Poth, 2018) analyses of a case. This study relied on the latter classification and adopted the instrumental case design. The case study should have a "case" which is the object of study (Ebneyamini & Moghadam, 2018). In the context of this study, the case or object of study was institutional responsiveness to SSH. This case of institutional responsiveness to SSH was studied in 2 sites identified through analysis of quantitative data generated in the initial quantitative phase of the study. Accordingly, the survey sites for the initial quantitative phase of the study were ranked according to SH prevalence rates and perceived institutional tolerance for SH. The two colleges occupying the first two slots on the prevalence ranking were then purposively sampled for the subsequent qualitative phase of the study. Institutional responsiveness to SSH in the studied colleges became a case of institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. The studied TCs thus provide the natural context in which the case is located.

A case study uses multiple methods and multiple perspectives to generate rich contextual data about a phenomenon of interest from multiple data sources (Miles, 2015; Yin, 2018). For instance, in this study, data were generated through FFIs, FGDs and QDA. Additionally, data sources included lecturers and students. Rich and thick descriptions of phenomenon obtained

through multiple methods and from multiple sources were useful in answering the 'how', 'what' and 'why' questions of this study (Crowe et al et al., 2011; Ridder, 2017).

Following recommendations that an ideal case study research should adopt a multi-site approach (Wahyuni, 2012; Yin, 2014), the researcher adopted a multi-site study. A multi-site case study studies the same phenomenon in more than one site to understand how the studied phenomenon is experienced in different contexts and the influence of context on phenomenon (Piekkari & Welch, 2018; Stewart, 2012). This was of research importance because it allowed the researcher to establish association between context and phenomenon. For instance, in this study, selecting an institution with high SH prevalence rate was critical in understanding contextual factors that promote perpetration. Multi-site case studies are comparative in nature (Stewart, 2012) and allow within site and across site analysis of the phenomenon under study (Anderson et al., 2014; Ridder, 2017). A comparative approach led to increased understanding and support for theorizing through comparing similarities and differences among cases (Ridder, 2017). This multi-site case study offered important cross case insights into institutional responsiveness to SSH in Zimbabwean TCs.

Additionally, case studies offer in-depth contextual investigation of multiple variables of a phenomenon. Such an intensive and multi-dimensional study of phenomenon produces evidence that can guide practitioners (Crowe et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2010) and enhance a comprehensive understanding of specific practices (Miles, 2015). Accordingly, this multi-site case study contributed to an understanding of responsive strategies in the different case sites that opened avenues to appreciating which responsive strategies work best in preventing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. In this way, this multi-site case study contributed to evidence-based practice in responding to SH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

4.11.2. Qualitative sampling and sample size

It is acknowledged that several methodological considerations contribute to the overall quality

or lack thereof of a study. Among these considerations are a study's sampling procedures and sample size determination (Hinton & Ryan, 2020; Marshall et al., 2013; Vasileiou et al., 2018). Qualitative research approaches use a priori sampling with caution for, according to Sim et al. (2018, p. 2), "determining sample size a priori is inherently problematic in qualitative research, given that sample size is often adaptive and emergent". A priori determination of sample size is problematic in the sense that, firstly, it is inconsistent with the emergent and adaptive nature of qualitative research. Since qualitative research takes shape and concretizes as it unfolds, it is impossible to determine sample size from the onset because a researcher cannot determine with certainty the number of units required for sample size sufficiency because such sufficiency can only be arrived at as the research progresses and iteratively moves back and forth between data collection and analysis. Secondly, determining sample size before the conduct of a study can result in either of oversampling or under sampling (Schreier, 2018). Over-sampling, on one hand, saddles the researcher with an unnecessary burden of analysis of data that may not serve any purpose to the research. On the other, under sampling may result in inadequate exploration or explanation of the phenomenon under study that may compromise the credibility of a study or the extent to which study findings can be trusted.

To resolve these sampling challenges, qualitative methodologists have proposed reliance on precedents, recommendations by other scholars, and data saturation as methods of determining sample size a prior in qualitative research (Marshall et al., 2013). Data saturation is reported to be the most apt and frequently used justification for sample size determination in qualitative studies because of its consistency with the emergent and adaptive nature of qualitative research (Vasileiou et al., 2018). Accordingly, to be consistent with practice in qualitative research, this study adopted data saturation as the justification for sample size determination. This choice of data saturation as the sampling principle creates challenges in a context where a prior specification of sample size is a requirement often imposed by important stakeholders such as dissertation review boards and research funders. To resolve this impasse, the study specified

sample size a prior based on recommendations and then worked from this initial sample to determine a sample based on data saturation.

The point of data saturation is attained when continued data collection and further sampling for informants no longer adds value to the study because new participants cease to offer fresh insights about the phenomenon being studied (Boddy, 2016; Gentles et al., 2015; Guetterman, 2015; Marshall et al., 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Schreier, 2018; Vasileiou et al., 2018). In determining the number of interviews required to reach data saturation, Schreier (2018) cites studies by Guest et al. (2006) and Francis et al. (2010) who propose that data saturation is attained at about 12 interviews. Patten and Newhart (2018) also indicate that data saturation may be attained around 10 cases. An initial sample is thus recommended when studying the same phenomenon (Schreier, 2018). The study, therefore, adopted the recommendation that an initial 10 interviews be conducted for each case site.

Colleges studied in the qualitative phase were nested in the quantitative sample. Nested sampling is a process of generating a subsequent sample from an initial sample of the study (Addae &Quan-Baffour, 2015; Creamer, 2018; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2010). Data and findings generated from the initial quantitative phase of the study informed purposive college selection for the subsequent qualitative phase of the study. Accordingly, colleges studied in the qualitative sample were part of the colleges that had been studied in the quantitative phase of the study. For example, following the completion of the quantitative phase, the colleges were ranked based on SH prevalence levels and the reported extent of SH tolerance in each case. In this way, the qualitative phase of the study was connected to the initial quantitative phase through the sampling frame. The sampling stage for the qualitative phase of the study was an important integration point for the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study.

4.11.3. Study sites selection

Several strategies exist to guide the researcher in case site selection. Methods of case site

selection include selecting case sites based on the extent to which they are typical, diverse, extreme, deviant, influential, most similar, and most different from other sites (Palinkas et al., 2015). The researcher adopted the most similar approach to case site selection. Accordingly, two of the initial five colleges that had participated in the cross-sectional survey were selected for the qualitative phase based on the SH prevalence ranking and the perceived institutional tolerance for SH established in the initial quantitative phase of the study. SH prevalence ranking and institutional tolerance for SH became the criterion for purposive sampling of colleges for the qualitative phase of the study. After the initial quantitative phase of the study, the researcher ranked the colleges surveyed based on the prevalence rate and the perception of institutional tolerance for SH in each college. Upon completion of the ranking, the colleges that were ranked as one and two were thus purposively selected as case sites for the qualitative phase of the study. Such criterion-based selection of colleges provided opportunities to compare, to identify and understand similarities and differences in institutional responsiveness to and contextual factors that promote or inhibit SH perpetration in TCs in Zimbabwe (Palinkas et al., 2015). In this way, the researcher achieved a nested sample for the qualitative phase of the study. This achieved methods integration as findings of the initial *quan* phase of the study informed selection of college case sites for the subsequent *QUAL* phase of the study (Bartholomew & Lockard,2018; Creamer, 2018; Doyle et al., 2016). In this way, the quantitative and the qualitative strands of the study were connected or tied together.

Additionally, purposively selected information rich participants made up the sample for the qualitative second phase of the study. Purposive sampling is the deliberate selection of participants to include in a study based on the participants' proximity to the phenomenon of research interest (Etikan et al., 2015; Vasileiou et al., 2018). Such proximity is dependent on whether a participant has had certain valuable experiences relevant to the research, has knowledge of the specific phenomenon under study or is resident in a location of interest to the researcher (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). In this study, information rich participants included Heads

of Departments, former acting vice-principals and deans, lecturers seconded to both the Student Affairs Departments and Student Support Centres, and the students themselves.

4.11.4. Qualitative sample for FGDs and FFIs

Case sites, FGDs and FFI participants were purposively sampled for the qualitative phase of the study. Purposive sampling involved the deliberate selection of information rich participants based on the perceived proximity of such participants to the phenomenon of research interest (Cohen et al., 2018). Expert judgement of the researcher, gained through reviewing literature on the research phenomenon, through constructing the conceptual framework for this study, and through analysing the quantitative data for the initial phase of this study, allowed the researcher to make judgements regarding the participants who were likely to provide information relevant to answering the research questions (Etikan & Bala, 2017).

Potentially information rich participants in the context of this study included, students in general, lecturers working in the Student Support Centre, lecturers working in the student affairs office, and heads of departments. Students were rich participants because they are the intended beneficiaries and users of institutional responsive strategies and practices. As such, they were in a better position to provide rich information about their experiences with institutional responsive strategies and practices. If one wants to know how tasty a meal is, one enquires from those who have partaken of the food and not necessarily those who have prepared it or served it. The other identified groups were rich in that they interact on a personal level with students and they are the first ports of call when students have problems and complaints to make. They are the implementers of institutional responsive strategies and practices. The proximity of members from these identified groups to the adoption and implementation of SH policies and practices in TCs made them ideal for selection into the qualitative sample. Their mandate also includes the handling of student complaints regarding the welfare of students during their tenure at college. The general student population was also critical because it forms that population that is a beneficiary and user of institutional responsive strategies. Students were, therefore, likely

to provide rich information about institutional responsive strategies and practices in addressing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. College 1 and 2 hosted 4 and 6 FGDs respectively.

Table 4.3

Focus Group Participant Distribution by Gender Across College Sites

Participant gender	College 1				College 2						Total
	FGD 1	FGD 2	FGD 3	FGD 4	FGD 1	FGD 2	FGD 3	FGD 4	FGD 5	FGD 6	
Female	7	8	8	5	8	8	8	7	8	5	72
Male	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	3	8
Total	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	80

FFIs were conducted with purposively selected participants. Participants with the required level of intimacy with the subject of this research included lecturers in the Student Support Centres, heads of departments, and lecturers in the Student Affairs Department. Accordingly, FFIs were conducted primarily with lecturers. However, one student who had indicated, during an FGD in college 1, that she had been a victim of SH was also interviewed as well as one peer educator and 2 SRC members from college 2.

Table 4.4

Participant Distribution for FFIs

Category of participant	College 1		College 2		Total
	M	F	M	F	
Lecturers in the Student Affairs Department	0	1	0	1	2
Lecturers in the Support Centres	0	2	0	0	2
Former Acting Vice-Principals	3	0	0	0	3
Former Deans of Student Affairs	1	0	0	0	1
Heads of Departments	1	1	1	1	4
Lecturers	1	1	0	0	2
Student	0	1	1	2	4
Total	6	6	2	4	18

A total of 10 FGDs and 18 FFIs sufficed in reaching a point of saturation (Castroet al., 2010; Marshall et al., 2013).

4.11.5. Qualitative instrumentation and data gathering

The second phase of this study involved the generation of qualitative data. Data were generated using multiple instruments that included FGDs, FFIs and DA. Covid-19 restrictions and protocols did not permit data collection to progress as had been envisaged. In January of 2021, finalist students returned to colleges to sit for their terminal examinations that were scheduled for early February. The study colleges communicated that they would not want students to be interviewed during the exam period. Accordingly, data collection had to be completed in the month between term opening and the commencement of examinations. As such, data were collected concurrently from the two colleges in a blitzkrieg. This involved constant shuffling between the two colleges. Institutional permission had been sought and granted during the first phase of quantitative data collection. The researcher had been assigned to contact persons back then. Appointments were thus scheduled with the contact persons for the collection of qualitative data in the respective colleges.

Qualitative research captures the complexity and multifaceted dimensions of phenomenon in the context in which the phenomenon is situated (Joubish et al., 2011) and has its own peculiar methods of data collection. To achieve thick descriptions of phenomenon, qualitative research uses multiple data gathering methods in the same study. Accordingly, this study used FGDs, FFIs, and QDA to explore participants' experiences with SH and institutional responsiveness to SSH in the selected colleges. The use of multiple instruments and participants permitted both data and source triangulation which partly addressed validity concerns in qualitative research.

4.11.5.1. Focus Group Discussion (FGDs)

The Focus Group Discussion, as Ravitch and Carl (2016) observe, is appropriate for exploring perceptions, attitudes, beliefs and experiences in populations of interest to the researcher. It thus was appropriate for this study into perceptions about and experiences of institutional responsiveness to SH. FGDs functioned through facilitated group interactions (Morgan &Hoffman, 2018, p. 251). FGD is a qualitative data collection technique in which the researcher

facilitates and promotes discussion on a focal issue or issues by a small group of people who are deemed to be knowledgeable about the issues under discussion (Cyr, 2016; Dilshad & Latif, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Ravitch & Carl, 2016; Tritter & Landstad, 2020). There is no consensus on the ideal number of participants for a Focus Group Discussion. The ideal number ranges from 3 to 12 (Tracy, 2020), 5 to 10 (Jakobsen, 2012; Morgan & Hoffman, 2018), 6–12 (Tritter & Landstad, 2020), 6-10 (Howitt, 2016). FGDs are, therefore, facilitated group discussions in which a researcher raises issues or asks questions that stimulate discussion among members of the group on an issue (Cyr, 2016; Green et al., 2015). FGDs are of immense qualitative value because they have the potential to generate thick and rich data on the phenomenon of interest (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2014; Tracy, 2020). Robust discussion among group members achieves "deeper and more nuanced understandings" (Tritter & Landstad, 2020, p. 58) of the phenomenon of interest to the researcher. FGDs thus generated data from multiple perspectives and experiences which led to a comprehensive appreciation of SH and institutional responsiveness to SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. FGDs were critical for this study for they offered an appropriate platform for examining sensitive issues and topics such as SH from sensitive populations (Dilshad & Latif, 2013).

Since it is argued that "focus-group participants show less inhibition, especially when they interact with similar others" (Tracy, 2020, p. 190), the researcher purposefully interacted with groups of students whose members were mainly female students. Consequently, out of the 80 FGD participants, 72 were female and 8 were male. Constituting groups with members that share similar characteristics is important when groups are set up to discuss sensitive issues such as SH. For this study, the researcher conducted FGDs with students who are the beneficiaries and users of institutional responsive strategies. They were thus information rich participants who could shed light on SSH and institutional responsiveness to SSH in the colleges studied. The researcher did not, however, organise students into groups. Instead, the researcher found the groups naturally occurring in the colleges. This was because students were in informally

constituted discussion groups scattered on the college grounds in preparation for their terminal examinations. Accordingly, the students constituted the focus groups themselves and the groups were not set up with research purposes in mind. The groups were, therefore, naturally occurring in the study colleges.

The researcher thus would approach a group, inform the group of his study purpose, and ask the students if they consented to participate in the study. In this way, the researcher moved from one group to the other. The students were familiar with the researcher from the first phase of the study and most groups that the researcher approached consented to participate in the discussions. Students who were not comfortable with participation would quietly slink away from the group. This behaviour was pronounced in college 2. The advantage of approaching naturally occurring groups was that students were already in groups with other students whom they were comfortable working with. This was beneficial in that students were free to discuss in those groups with other students that they themselves had chosen to associate with. Consequently, FGDs tended to be animated, candid, and rich in data generation. Student participants were uninhibited in their contributions. More FGDs were conducted in college 2 to compensate for the unavailability of lecturers for FFIs in the college. Lecturers were unavailable because most of them were not reporting for duty because of Covid-19 fears. In college 1 more FFIs were held than FGDs.

FGDs enabled the researcher to ask probing questions that allowed the researcher to gain a comprehensive understanding of institutional responsiveness to SSH in the colleges studied. Responses generated through FGDs helped in the construction of an understanding of SH and institutional responsiveness to SSH that approximated to reality because participants interrogated and evaluated each other's perceptions leading to an approximation of the 'truth' on institutional responsiveness to SSH in the colleges studied. Hence, FGDs were an appropriate data gathering tool in this study because they enabled the researcher to gather data that could be confidently claimed to approximate to the reality of institutional responsiveness

to SSH as perceived by participants. Additionally, FGDs also generated rich and thick data that could not be generated by the questionnaire in phase 1 of the study. As such, focus group data were critical in answering those research questions that could not be addressed by survey data. Such data included data on questions that sought information on students' perceptions on institutional SH responsive strategies and practices, and perceptions on the effectiveness of such responsive strategies. Accordingly, FGDs complemented and expanded on the survey data. This complementarity between the quantitative and the qualitative strands of the study justified the adoption of a sequential explanatory mixed methods design.

4.11.5.2. Face to face interviews (FFIs)

An FFI, according to Howitt (2016, p. 60), "involves questions and probes by the interviewer designed to encourage the interviewee to talk freely and extensively about the topic(s) defined by the researcher". It is thus a pre-arranged conversation designed to elicit, from the interviewee, data relevant to answering given research questions. Accordingly, the FFI is a purposeful conversation whose objective is to extract data relevant to answering research questions from an interviewee who is supposed to have an emic perspective on the phenomenon of research interest (Brinkmann, 2014; Lune and Berg, 2017; Hinton & Ryan, 2020). Probing in FFIs enabled the researcher to seek clarification, to egg the interviewee to reveal more relevant information, and to open new avenues of inquiry (Rosenblatt & Wieling, 2019). For example, the issue of leadership complicity in SH perpetration was raised in one of the FFIs and it became an avenue of inquiry in subsequent interviews. The probing that FFIs permitted was impossible with the survey questionnaire. Accordingly, FFIs helped expand on the survey data by generating data that answered the 'how' and 'why' questions of this study (Morse et al., 2018). These questions could not be addressed by survey data. In this way, the qualitative phase complemented and expanded on the quantitative phase of this study. As such, when the survey data were integrated with qualitative data, a more comprehensive and complete picture of SH, institutional tolerance for SH, and institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs was

achieved. Consequently, the SED was appropriate because it allowed the generation of both quantitative and qualitative data that, when integrated, achieved more than what each set of data could achieve on its own.

According to Tracy (2020, p. 156), "interviews elucidate subjectively lived experiences and viewpoints from the respondents" perspective. FFIs thus generated subjective knowledge that was indispensable to understanding participants' perceptions on institutional responsiveness to SSH. FFIs not only embody the essence of qualitative research but are also consistent with the case study framework that framed the qualitative phase of this study (Howitt, 2016). For instance, FFIs are consistent with the case study framework's preoccupation with emic, contextual, thick, and multi-perspectival descriptions of the phenomenon under study (Simons, 2014). This is because FFIs generate thick contextualized data about participants' lived experiences (Howitt, 2016; Miller & Glassner, 2016; Ravitch and Carl, 2016; Roulston & Choi. 2018).

Conducting the study involved engaging in conversational exchanges with purposively sampled lecturers seconded to the Student Support Centres, lecturers seconded to the Student Affairs Department in the two study colleges for the qualitative phase of the study, and lecturers who had at one or the other time acted as vice-principals and Deans of students. There were several lecturers who had acted as vice-principals and deans in college 1. Participants from these groups enjoy proximity to SH responsive strategies as formulators and implementers of the responsive strategies. FFIs explored the prevalence of, institutional tolerance for, and institutional responsiveness to SH. The semi-structured interviews, though proceeding from a set of predetermined questions, were appropriate for this study because they enabled a rigorous exploration of SH in the case study sites. This was possible because semi-structured FFIs gave the researcher the latitude and flexibility to formulate and modify questions designed to establish the 'truth' through constant probing as the interviews unfolded. Additionally, the FFI was appropriate for studying sensitive issues and SH is a sensitive topic that is considered taboo

especially in Africa. Thus, conducted in private and confidential settings, FFIs offered a degree of confidentiality necessary for meaningful conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee (Brinkmann, 2014).

The FFIs averaged thirty minutes per session. The interviews were audio recorded and the recordings immediately transferred from the recording device to the researcher's laptop for secure storage on Microsoft OneDrive. Transcription is a laborious and time-consuming process and, as such, it was impossible, within the time frame for data collection, to transcribe audio recordings immediately after an interview and before the conduct of the next interview. In lieu of transcription, therefore, the researcher took time to listen to and reflect on the interview recordings and note down important issues to follow up on in the next interviews. In this way, preceding interviews informed subsequent interviews. Consequently, interview questions were continually reformulated and new questions added based on the interviews that would have been conducted earlier.

4.11.5.3. Qualitative Document Analysis (QDA)

Rossman and Rallis (2017, p. 335) define a document as "the written record of a person's life or an organisation's functioning". These records, of both a personal and official nature, are ubiquitous in the social world and contain information that speak of the contexts of their creation (Coffey, 2014; Grant, 2019; Rapley & Rees, 2018). Accordingly, they provide important insights into the social environments in which they are produced (Coffey, 2014; Gorsky & Mold, 2020; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Documents are lenses that make institutional practices visible to the researcher. Thus, much can be learnt about institutions from documents such as institutional policies. In organisational research, documents are critical because they "may structure many aspects of work" (Grant, 2019, p. 16) and reflect institutional climates, and inform practice (Coffey, 2014; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). For instance, an SH policy structures and regulates work relations between faculty and students in IHLs. For the purposes of this study, documents of interest included institutional SH policies, minutes of

disciplinary committee meetings and hearings, and filed SH complaints from students.

QDA, however, did not generate much data because, of the anticipated documents, only one policy document was availed in college 2. No documents could be accessed in college 1. In college 2, the relevant authorities indicated that there were no other documents such as complaint reports and minutes of the disciplinary committee because no SH complaints had been filed by students. In college 1, it was admitted that complaint reports were available but these could not be availed to the researcher because of the sensitive nature of the reports. Whether the reports were there or not remains something that the researcher could not establish.

4.11.6. Qualitative research credibility and trustworthiness

In qualitative research, trustworthiness is a recognized measure for evaluating the validity and reliability of qualitative studies (Maher et al., 2018). Trustworthiness thus becomes a qualitative embodiment of the quantitative concepts of reliability and validity. The criteria for achieving trustworthiness in qualitative research include credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. In qualitative research, trustworthiness is processual or an ongoing process that a researcher grapples with from the conception to the completion of a study (Hayashi et al., 2019).

Qualitative validity refers to the accuracy of findings of the qualitative component of this sequential explanatory MMR study while qualitative reliability indicates the extent to which the researcher's approach is consistent across different researches and different projects (Creswell, 2009). A comprehensive demonstration of validity in qualitative research, therefore, is sufficient to establish reliability for reliability is a necessary condition for validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Qualitative constructs that correspond to quantitative reliability and validity include credibility, confirmability, dependability and transferability (Maher et al., 2018; Nowell et al., 2017).

4.11.6.1. Ensuring study credibility

Credibility, a criterion for achieving trustworthiness in qualitative terms, relates to the extent

to which research findings correspond to reality or the extent to which the research process and its conduct inspire confidence in the authenticity of the research findings (Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017; Maher et al., 2018; Peräkylä, 2016; Saldaña & Omasta, 2018; Tracy, 2020; Yilmaz, 2013). In short, the credibility criterion concerns the believability of research findings. Credibility was built throughout the research process and key processes in its construction included the design of the research, reflexivity, triangulation of both methods and data sources, thick and rich description, the analysis of data, member checks, and the grounding of the study in extant research literature (Anderson, 2010; Anney, 2014; Maher et al., 2018; Nowell et al., 2017). In this study, the researcher enhanced credibility of the qualitative phase of the study through adopting established research methods, triangulation, peer scrutiny of the research project, member reflections, thick description of the phenomenon under scrutiny, and the review of previous research findings.

This study achieved credibility through peer debriefing. Peer debriefing enhanced credibility through providing opportunities to test the researcher's growing insights and to expose the researcher to searching questions from the thesis supervisors (Anney, 2014). Constant consultation with the project supervisors with expertise in the conduct of empirical studies is akin to peer debriefing. Supervisor guidance and advice directed the study from its inception to its conclusion. Supervisors constantly reviewed the research process and provided advice and criticism that shaped the course of the study. Data collection instruments were developed in consultation with the supervisors and this enhanced instrument reliability. In so doing, peer debriefing enhanced the quality of the study.

Secondly, triangulation enhanced the credibility of this study. Triangulation in this study occurred at different levels thus further increasing the credibility of the study. Studying multi-sites using different methods such as FGDs, FFIs and DA, and collecting data from different sources presented opportunities for triangulation. Therefore, the study achieved triangulation at case site level, at methods level where SH in TCs in Zimbabwe was explored through FGDs,

FFIs and DA, and the triangulation of data sources or participants. Male and female students, faculty members, and policy documents were sources of data for this study. Triangulation of qualitative data collection methods also enhanced credibility and trustworthiness of the qualitative component of the study by increasing the probability of generating data that led to an approximation of the 'reality' of SH in the case study colleges as experienced by study participants. Mays and Pope (2020) argue that using different methods in concert compensates for their individual limitations and exploits their respective benefits. In this study, the use of FGDs, FFIs and DA achieved triangulation of methods. The triangulation of these methods generated data that helped in achieving a comprehensive and credible understanding of institutional responsiveness to SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. Triangulation of case sites, methods, and data sources thus greatly enhanced the credibility of the qualitative component of this sequential explanatory study by offering opportunities for comparison of data gathered through different methods and from different sources.

Triangulation of data sources permitted the generation of data about institutional responsiveness to SH from multiple perspectives that included the perspective of students and lecturers. Data were gathered from students primarily through FGDs (FFIs were held with a few students) and from lecturers through FFIs. Additionally, triangulation of data sources allowed for the verification of individual viewpoints and experiences against those of others (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Flick, 2018; Howitt, 2016) which is critical for the generation of data that leads to an understanding of and an approximation to the 'reality' of institutional responsiveness to SH in the case study colleges. In this way, the credibility of one set of data was cross checked against other data sets. Furthermore, one data set complimented another data set and helped in building a more comprehensive understanding of institutional responsiveness to SSH.

Finally, member checking contributed to credibility of the qualitative component of the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) perceive member checks as the single most important provision that bolsters a study's credibility. Member checks on the accuracy of the data took place during the

course and at the end of the data collection processes. During interviews and discussions, the researcher repeatedly threw back participants' responses to participants for confirmation. This largely involved the use of question tags such as: 'you are not aware of the policy, are you?' Member checking ensured that data collected reflected the perspective of participants by constantly allowing study participants to check if interview transcription did not compromise the meaning that they intended to convey (Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015). Accordingly, transcribed FFIs were shared with participants. The same could not be achieved with FGDs because focus group participants could not be tracked down after the transcriptions.

4.11.6.2. Transferability

Transferability in qualitative research has a meaning like generalizability in quantitative research (Maher et al., 2018; Nowell et al., 2017; Yilmaz, 2013). It thus refers to the extent to which research findings that are context bound are transferable to other similar contexts (Yilmaz, 2013). Thick description of the setting, context, people, actions, and events studied offers contextual information about the case sites that enable the reader to transfer study findings to other contexts and sites (Maher et al., 2018; Yilmaz, 2013). They maintain that, since the researcher knows only the "sending context", he or she cannot make transferability inferences. Accordingly, readers must determine how far they can be confident in transferring to other situations the results and conclusions presented. It is, therefore, critical to present a thorough description of the structures, assumptions and processes revealed from the data generated so that readers can independently assess whether and to what extent the reported findings are transferable to other settings (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Such thick description was made possible in this study by collecting data from different sources through a variety of methods of data collection. Accordingly, data were collected from both students and lecturers using FGDs and FFIs respectively. Data were also collected through QDA. Thus, a copious amount of data was produced from multiple methods of data collection and from multiple

sources. The thick description thus achieved should allow readers to judge the transferability value of the findings of this study.

4.11.6.3. Dependability

Dependability is the qualitative equivalent of reliability in quantitative research. It deals with the extent to which research findings are reliable, consistent, and plausible. Dependability requires that the researcher pay attention to the research design and its implementation, the operational detail of data gathering, and reflective appraisal of the project. Accordingly, fidelity to qualitative research standards for quality in data collection and analysis led to some degree of dependability. The researcher thus adopted a qualitative multi-site case study design for the qualitative phase of the study. In conducting the qualitative research, an iterative approach to qualitative data collection and analysis was adopted. This involved the researcher moving back and forth between the data collection and data analysis processes to allow new avenues of inquiry to develop as additional data were collected (Beuving & Vries, 2015; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Jamison, 2019; Tolley et al., 2016). The qualitative principle that causal relationships and theoretical statements be clearly emergent from and be grounded in the phenomena studied and not imposed on the data guided qualitative data analysis. Fidelity to this principle implied the use of the constant comparative method, data coding, and thematic analysis as qualitative data analysis techniques. Accordingly, transcribed interview and Focus Group Discussion data were manually coded on Microsoft word. The constant comparative method was useful in organising data into meaningful units through comparing the coded data and the data itself. In this way, categories were arrived at and this allowed for patterns and relationships to be discerned between variables. In the final analysis, the categories were developed into themes. Thus, the congruence between the study design, the data collection methods, and the data analysis strategies enhanced the dependability of the study.

4.11.6.4. Confirmability

Inferential validity is concerned with the extent to which a study is confirmable (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Inferential validity is thus concerned with the quality of interpretation in respect of how well others (especially study participants) can confirm or corroborate the qualitative findings. The study demonstrated confirmability in terms of inter-subjectivity in such a way that if study participants agreed with the inferences arrived at by the researcher about institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs, then the findings are confirmable. Member checking or respondent validation was, therefore, critical in achieving inferential validity by offering opportunities for reducing errors in transcription of interviews and researcher interpretation of the data (Mays & Pope, 2020). To achieve confirmability, the researcher shared interview transcripts with FFI participants so that they could authenticate the accuracy of the transcriptions. The same could not be done with FGD participants because the researcher could not track these down since they were unknown to the researcher. Additionally, interpretations based on the research data were also shared with FFI participants so that they could check on whether the interpretations were consistent with their emic perspectives on institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

4.11.6.5. Auditability

Auditability is achieved when the researcher leaves a clear decision trail of the study from its beginning to the end (Ibiamke & Ajekwe, 2017; Lub, 2015; Mays & Pope, 2020) and documents the entire research process including the processes of data gathering and data analysis (Kleijn & Leeuwen, 2018; Lub, 2015). This documentation of the research process entailed keeping records of the raw data, field notes, transcripts, and a reflexive journal. The audit trail offers opportunities for other researchers to check and follow a researcher's trail of choices and decisions during the research process (the auditor) (Kleijn & Leeuwen, 2018). A transparent and comprehensive audit trail significantly increases the quality and transparency of a study's

conclusions (Kleijn & Leeuwen, 2018). The audit trail permits other researchers to check the visibility, comprehensibility, and acceptability of a researcher's research decisions and choices.

4.12. Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative research generates thick descriptions that are the material for analysis and the basis of interpretation (Rossman & Rallis, 2017). These thick descriptions, collected through multiple data collection strategies and from multiple sources, often leave the researcher with copious amounts of empirical materials to analyse and interpret. Competent analysis of volumes of data demands, of the researcher, "intimate knowledge of the data, creativity, and lateral thinking" (Pope et al., 2020, p. 127). Data analysis, therefore, is the process of finding meaning in the data collected (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) or, in more concrete terms, the "process of sorting, categorizing, grouping, and regrouping the data into piles or chunks that are meaningful" (Rossman & Rallis, 2017, p. 436). It is an inductive process leading to identification of patterns embedded in the data and the relationships between the identified patterns (Saldaña & Omasta, 2018; Taylor et al., 2016). The essence of qualitative analysis lies in "identifying themes, categories, patterns, or answers to your research questions" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 216). In deriving themes, making categories, inferring patterns or in finding answers to research questions from the data, the researcher engaged in three important and related processes of data preparation, reduction, and representation (Creswell & Poth, 2018) or reduction, reorganisation, and representation (Ravitch & Carl, 2017). These processes formed the defining features of qualitative analysis in this study. In detailing how the analysis of data was carried out, the researcher demonstrates how data were prepared, reduced, or condensed, and how they were represented.

A defining feature of qualitative research is that it is emergent. This means qualitative research takes shape as it unfolds. Accordingly, the research process, including data analysis, cannot be determined with certainty from the onset as new insights may significantly alter the direction of the research process and necessitate a review of earlier processes. Therefore, while it is

important, at the onset, to have a structured design, it is critical that that design be malleable to constant review considering unfolding developments in the research field (Bazeley, 2013; Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Jamison, 2019; Ravitch & Carl, 2017; Pope et al., 2020). Accordingly, qualitative data analysis occurred iteratively. As such, data collection and analysis were not separate and linear but concurrent and iterative processes (Castellanos, 2019; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Jamison, 2019; Kemp et al. 2019; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Ravitch & Carl, 2017; Saldaña & Omasta, 2018). In this way, initial "analysis feeds into subsequent sampling, further data collection and the testing of emerging theories" (Pope et al., 2020, p. 120). Being iterative not only meant the constant shuffling between analysis and data collection but also a process that moved "between emic, or emergent, readings of the data and an etic use of existing models, explanations, and theories" (Tracy, 2013, p. 184). In analysing data, therefore, an integrated socio-ecological model of SH that integrates Bronfenbrenner's socioecological model with the four-factor theory of SH was useful in developing categories and themes that were then imposed on the data. Additionally, the framework made it possible to map institutional practices across the ecological layers. For example, it became easy to determine the layer of the social ecology that a given responsive strategy operated at. In carrying out the analysis, the researcher was guided by the processes of data preparation, data exploration, data reduction and data representation. The analysis process in this study is represented in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7

Iterative Data Analysis Plan
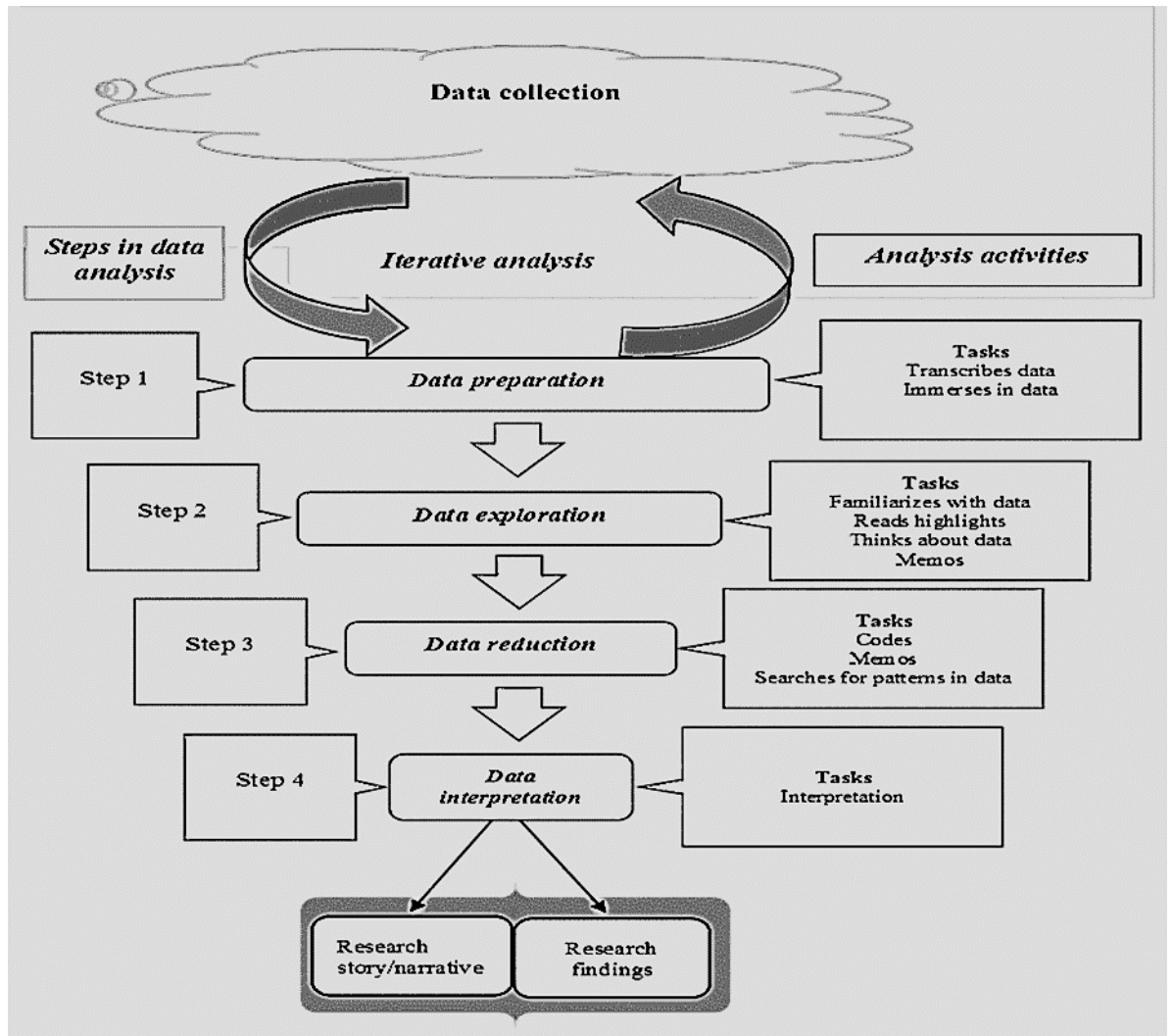
Adapted from Hesse-Biber (2017**).** *The practice of qualitative research: Engaging students in the research process* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.

The model of data analysis in Figure 4.8. guided the analysis of data in this study. Accordingly, the data analysis procedures adopted in this study are discussed under subheadings that include data preparation, data exploration, data reduction, and data interpretation.

4.12.1. Step 1: Data preparation

Ravitch and Carl (2017) perceive data preparation as constituting an integral component of the data analysis process. Organisation and management (constituent elements of data preparation) of data marked the beginning of the analysis process and set the stage for

subsequent analysis. Of course, other authorities indicate that data analysis starts at the research conceptualization stage (Bazeley, 2013; Rossman & Rallis, 2017; Saldaña, 2014). For example, Rosenblatt and Wieling (2019, p. 50) claim that their analysis began "with thinking through the focus of the study and what questions to ask" way before they commenced data collection. Accordingly, data analysis "does not begin de novo at some point in the study" (Rossman & Rallis, 2017, p. 447) for it is not easy to state with precision the point at which data analysis begins. Thinking through the research questions and the research instruments was critical in focusing the analysis of this study in that the researcher knew, before commencement of the data collection process, the kinds of data that would answer the research questions. Knowledge of the kinds of data required to answer the research questions informed the choice of research instruments, and the choice of instruments foretold the kinds of analysis that the collected data could be subjected to. For instance, conducting multiple interviews implied the potential use of the constant comparative method of data analysis in that the researcher would need to compare data across interviewees and interviews. So, indeed, the choice of instruments and other methodological considerations foreshadowed the types of analysis that were likely to be carried out.

The initial stage of data analysis involved the preparation of data in anticipation of further analysis of the same. This required that the data be coherently and logically organized, and be translated and transcribed into formats that enhanced easy storage, retrieval, and further analysis (Creswell, 2016; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Pope et al., 2020; Rosenblatt & Wieling, 2019; Rossman & Rallis, 2017; Tracy, 2020). Transcribing, reviewing transcriptions, organising, and filing of data files presented the first opportunity to engage with and to make initial impressions of the data in relation to the research questions.

Transcriptions and analysis of research data were organised and filed according to data type and the chronological order of the collection of the data. That is, interview transcripts, discussion transcripts, and QDA files were filed separately. In organising and managing these

data, the researcher created a folder on the computer and labelled it 'QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS'. In this folder, four folders were created and labelled Interview Transcripts, Focus Group Discussion Transcripts, QDA Files, and Memos respectively. Data were thus filed in the relevant folders depending on data type. The created files were then uploaded to Microsoft OneDrive and secured with a password. As such, data were securely protected from unauthorised access and use.

Audio recordings of FGDs and FFIs were transcribed after the data collection phase. Transcription involved changing the format of data from the spoken word to written form (Howitt, 2016; Kowal & O' Connell, 2014). It entailed extensive and intensive as well as repeated listening to audio recordings, and the constant evaluation of accuracy in transcription against the original spoken word as contained in the audio recordings. The process of transcription was something akin to trying to write down the lyrics of a song from listening to the song as it plays on the radio. The process was thus characterised by frequent pauses to allow for transcription, rewinding recordings to get back to parts that the researcher would not have heard properly, and playing the recordings repeatedly until the transcription was completed. When each transcription was completed, the recording would be played again and checked against the transcription for accuracy of representation. Though tedious and gruelling, the transcription process offered invaluable opportunities for the researcher to acquaint or familiarise himself with the research data. In this way, transcription presented the first opportunities for data exploration.

In this study, the researcher adopted the orthographic transcription method. Orthographic transcription entailed listening to audio recordings and then creating a written text of the spoken word. Accordingly, transcription focused on the spoken word and not on other paralinguistic elements such as pauses, intonation and pitch. Audio recordings of interviews and discussions were turned into Microsoft Word documents in which fidelity to the audio recordings was observed through verbatim transcription. The created word documents were labelled with the

interview or discussion number as well as the interview or discussion date, time, and location. In this way, the researcher achieved chronological organisation and filing of transcriptions. This not only created "data that are intact, complete, organized, and accessible" (Marshall & Rossman, 2016, p. 389) but also "saves time, creates a more complete record, and stimulates analytic thinking" (Rossman & Rallis, 2017, p. 450). Using Microsoft word proved handy when it came to accessing and retrieving data. The researcher was able to quickly access and retrieve relevant data using the Find function in Microsoft word. For example, when the researcher wanted to access interview data on orientation, the word 'orientation' would be entered in the Find search window thus allowing the researcher to access all data that referred to orientation. Additionally, cleaning, organising, and filing research data illuminated the processes of data collection and interpretation (Pope et al., 2020; Tracy, 2020). An illuminated process of data collection and interpretation, Rossman and Rallis (2017) note, was critical for auditability which, in turn, enhanced the credibility of the research process and the findings thereof. Data preparation set the stage for the next step of data exploration in the analysis of data in the qualitative phase of this study. How the researcher explored data in this study is discussed next.

4.12.2. Step 2: Data exploration

Successful qualitative data analysis hinges on the intimacy or familiarization with the data that the researcher develops using established qualitative analysis strategies (Kemp et al., 2019; Terry et al., 2017). For this study, the established strategies included translation and transcript review, coding and memoing. These analysis strategies afforded the researcher opportunities "to absorb and marinate" (Tracy, 2020, p. 213) in the data or, in other words, to soak in the data. In this way, the researcher gained intimate familiarization with and immersion in the data. Such immersion in and familiarization with data was indispensable to subsequent processes of data reduction and data interpretation that completed the analysis process (Howitt, 2016; Rosenblatt & Wieling, 2019). To crystalize this, Howitt (2016, p. 165) argues that "transcription familiarises the researcher with the data and is an early push or stimulus towards trying to

understand and, hence, analyse the data". For example, early immersion in data contributed to more focused and analytical data coding in subsequent analysis (Rosenblatt & Wieling, 2019). It is unimaginable to conduct analysis of data that one is not conversant with. An analysis that is not data grounded tends to be superficial, to border on cherry picking, and falls short of the qualitative quality criteria of credibility and trustworthiness.

In exploring data, the researcher revisited the transcribed material and reread them again intensively to understand the transcribed material. This rereading of transcripts offered opportunities to appreciate participants' perspective in relation to institutional responsiveness to SH in TCs in Zimbabwe and to familiarise with the data (Allen & Roberto, 2019). This rereading of transcripts and documents collected from the research sites was accompanied by data coding. Coding involves generating a label, based on segments of data, that speaks to the meaning of the segment of data from which the label is generated. Coding thus functions to identify units of data that are insightful and opening avenues for their categorisation (Freeman, 2017) or "to cull words and phrases that seem to stand out" (Saldaña & Omasta, 2018, p. 182). When a label was generated, the label was then assigned to that portion of the data from which the label had been generated as a summary of what that portion of data represented in terms of meaning (Rasmussen et al., 2016). Coding is indispensable to qualitative data analysis for it is an inherent component of any qualitative data analysis method (Belgrave & Seide, 2019; Freeman, 2017). In short, a code summarises the meaning of a portion of data. Coding, therefore, not only offered opportunities for intimate engagement with the data but also was a means "to tag, sort, and organize large chunks of data for higher-level analysis" (Kemp et al., 2019, p. 161). In this way, coding was a means for data reduction. For instance, a whole paragraph can be summarized using a single word label.

In this phase of the analysis process, the researcher engaged in open coding of the data. Open coding was the initial phase of the three coding phases (open, axial, and selective coding) that made up the coding process. In open coding transcripts and institutional documents, the

researcher went through the first few transcripts and documents line by line and assigned codes to each line (Castellanos, 2019). Other researchers working in the qualitative tradition have also open coded interview transcripts. For example, Herovic et al. (2019) engaged in open coding of interview transcripts in their analysis of data from sampled university students in one public university in the United States of America. In this initial coding phase, labels were abstracted from participant's words as in-vivo codes (Padgett, 2017; Tracy, 2020). In open coding, the researcher did not pay particular attention to whether the lines and the codes spoke to the research questions. Open coding, then, was an analysis activity designed to explore and familiarize with the data. It was a means to get to know the data. As such, open coding served to highlight those important segments of data to be revisited in subsequent coding cycles (Allen & Roberto, 2019). While data were coded line by line, the researcher also created memos of insights gained about the data from the coding process, the coding process itself, and the data collection process. The memos also enhanced familiarity with the data for they reflected thoughtful engagement with the data that would later become useful in subsequent coding cycles and in data collection. Speirs et al. (2019) attest to the utility of memos written about the data collection process in fostering familiarity with the data. Coding was done on Microsoft word. The researcher created a table of four columns and as many rows as there were exchanges in the conversations and discussions. In the first column were entered the status of the interview participant; that is, interviewer or interviewee. In the second column were entered the interview conversation. The in-vivo codes were entered in the third column and the memos in the fourth column. At some point, a fifth column was created after the first column and in this new column were entered process codes. Process coding was later abandoned after realizing that in-vivo codes were more contextual and faithful to participants' perspectives. They were more emic than process codes which represented an etic interpretation of data.

In the memo column were entered the researcher's reflections on the research methodology and analysis as the study unfolded (Kemp et al., 2019). These reflections were critical in reviewing

the data collection process and analysis strategies considering developments in the field. For instance, memos can, when reflected on and acted upon, help a study stay on course or open new avenues of inquiry that may have been overlooked at the onset of the study. They were, therefore, critical in expanding and focusing the scope of the study.

4.12.3. Step 3: Data reduction

In step 3 of the analysis process, the researcher sought to reduce and condense data. Data reduction was achieved through several analytical strategies that included axial coding, the constant comparative method, and thematic analysis. In data exploration (step 2 of the analysis process), the researcher generated open codes through reviewing transcripts and documents line by line and assigning to each line a code in the form of participants' actual words. This initial coding process was neither focused on nor directed by the research questions but was specifically designed for drenching in the data.

In step 3 of the analysis process, coding became more focused and directed by research questions (Tracy, 2020). The coding process in this phase of the study identified chunks of data that spoke to the research questions and assigned to those chunks of data a label that captured the meaning of those chunks of data (Fedyuk & Zentai, 2018; Rasmussen et al., 2016; Terry et al., 2017). In this way, the axial coding used in this phase of the analysis process differed from the open codes used in step 2 in that while the latter reflected and described the data, the former collapsed codes into broad categories that were useful for data reduction through explaining, theorizing about, and unifying the data (Allen & Roberto, 2019; Saldaña & Omasta, 2018; Tracy, 2013) in relation to the research questions. In fact, axial or second-cycle coding served "to organize, synthesize, and categorize them into interpretive concepts" (Tracy, 2020, p. 225). 'Them' refers to open in-vivo codes.

Axial coding was, therefore, more driven by research questions than open coding for it sought to tag those portions of the data that responded to the research questions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Terry et al., 2017). With axial coding, data relevant to answering the research questions

began to be identified and isolated for further analysis. Thus, axial coding was a process of sifting the grain from the chaff so that the grain became the focus of attention. It is like a student engaging in focused reading of course material in search of material relevant to answering a given assignment question. Not everything in the course material is relevant to answering the assignment question. Accordingly, reading of course material to answer a specific question must necessarily be selective. In so doing, data were greatly reduced for only data that spoke to the research questions were identified and isolated for further and more focused analysis. Axial codes were therefore useful for "pattern detection, categorizing, and unifying" pieces of data (Saldaña & Omasta, 2018, p. 299) or "interpretation and identifying patterns, rules, and cause–effect progressions" (Tracy, 2020, p. 225). It is with axial codes that answers to research questions and tentative themes began to emerge from the data as the coding became more focused on those segments of the data that addressed the research questions.

Furthermore, the researcher achieved data condensation through the constant comparative method. The constant comparative method is an established method of analysis that involves looking for similarities and differences in data within a data set and across data sets, within categories or across categories (Belgrave & Seide, 2019; Beuving & Vries, 2015). Constantly comparing data and categories was the basis for refining categories and coalescing them into both inductive and deductive substantive theoretical explanations of data through data corroboration or refutation (Beuving & Vries, 2015). This coalescing took the form of some categories collapsing into other categories and new and more meaningful categories emerging because of bringing categories together. In this way, Beuving & Vries (2015, p. 166) note, "discursive ideas also will spring up, i.e., longer chains of thoughts, hypotheses, reflections, more complex arguments" as well as discernible patterns that form the basis of and set off the interpretation phase of the analysis process.

Analysis through coding, and the constant comparative approach built towards thematic analysis. The objective of thematic analysis is to immerse in data and then emerge with themes

grounded in the data (King & Brooks, 2018; Rosenblatt & Wieling, 2019). A is an idea that is ubiquitous and frequently pops up in a data set and, in doing so, it encapsulates what a data set is about (King & Brooks, 2018; Riger & Sigurvinsdotir, 2016). In concise terms, a theme is "a declaration of the sense you are making of the data and categories" (Rossman & Rallis, 2017, p. 448).

Developing themes grounded in the data set required the researcher to engage in multiple but integrated processes of data coding, and constant comparison. In this way, thematic analysis became the foundation for other analysis approaches and procedures because, in most cases, the goal of qualitative data analysis is the development of themes (Pope et al., 2020). For example, in this study, the researcher used the constant comparative method to code the data, collapsed the codes into categories, and then work from the categories towards identifying the recurrent ideas or themes contained in the data. The constant comparative approach allowed the development of themes that cut across data sets (Rosenblatt & Wieling, 2019).

4.12.4. Step 4: Data interpretation

The interpretive process is a process of meaning making. It is a process that involves "inductive reasoning, thinking, and theorizing" (Taylor et al., 2016, p. 168) based on a researcher's familiarity with the data and ability to think (Pope et al., 2020). This reasoning, thinking, and theorising was based on and informed by the analysis of data that preceded the interpretive process and the etic perspectives that the researcher brought to the study from the review of literature and the development of the conceptual framework that informed this study. The outputs of the interpretive process include the research findings and the research story or narrative. Composing the research narrative involved weaving the research findings into a coherent and persuasive whole.

It is important to distinguish interpretation from analysis to understand and conceptually set it apart from analysis. The distinction between analysis and interpretation regards "analysis as organising and summarising qualitative data, and interpretation as constructing meaning"

(Trent & Cho, 2014, p. 646) from the data. Analysis, therefore, prepares data in such a way that makes distilling meaning from the data possible while interpretation is the process of extracting meaning from the analysed data. Thus, in practice analysis feeds into interpretation and interpretation refines analysis in such a way that the two activities of analysis and interpretation are inextricably related. Interpretation, therefore, is not a stand-alone process but one that depends exclusively on the analysis that preceded it and the body of existing literature and theories surrounding the phenomenon under study. The symbiotic relationship between interpretation and analysis is such that in the absence of analysis, interpretation is hollow and analysis without interpretation is a waste.

The quality and credibility of interpretations is dependent on the quality and rigor of analysis. Interpretation is, therefore, that process that empowers a researcher derive meaning from research data in relation to the research objectives and questions (Freeman, 2017). In fact, "interpretation brings meaning and coherence to the themes, patterns, and categories, developing linkages and a story line that makes sense and is engaging to read" (Marshall & Rossman, 2016, p. 421). Accordingly, data interpretation entailed making convincing and credible arguments based on insightful and intuitive understanding of the research data (Trent & Cho, 2014). Interpretation implied developing coherent, robust, forceful, and convincing answers to the research questions that are grounded in the data and based on the analysis conducted (Trent & Cho, 2014).

In the interpretation stage, the researcher demonstrated the relationship between analysis and interpretation by synthesizing and integrating the developed categories, patterns and themes into a coherent and novel whole that addressed the research questions or that told a story about institutional responsiveness to SSH in the studied TCs. This synthesis involved working towards theme generation through merging etic and emic categories into themes relevant to answering the research questions. The emerging findings or interpretations were then discussed under inductively and deductively generated themes that spoke to the research questions. Data

analysis, therefore, culminated in data interpretation. Additionally, interpretation implied going beyond the data to connect data with existing theories and frameworks. To achieve this, the researcher discussed the interpretations in the context of existing literature to show linkages between interpretations from this study and past studies through finding points for corroboration and refutation. Additionally, interpretation also hinged on the researcher's memos. The memos were "reflexive thoughts, explorations and understandings" (Trent & Cho, 2014, p. 651) that the researcher gained throughout the data collection and analysis processes. The memos were useful in shaping the emerging themes under which research findings were discussed and as a reflexive journal that enhanced the trustworthiness of the analysis and interpretive processes. The data analysis procedures discussed here are represented in figure 4.8.

Figure 2.8

Steps in Qualitative Data Analysis and Interpretation
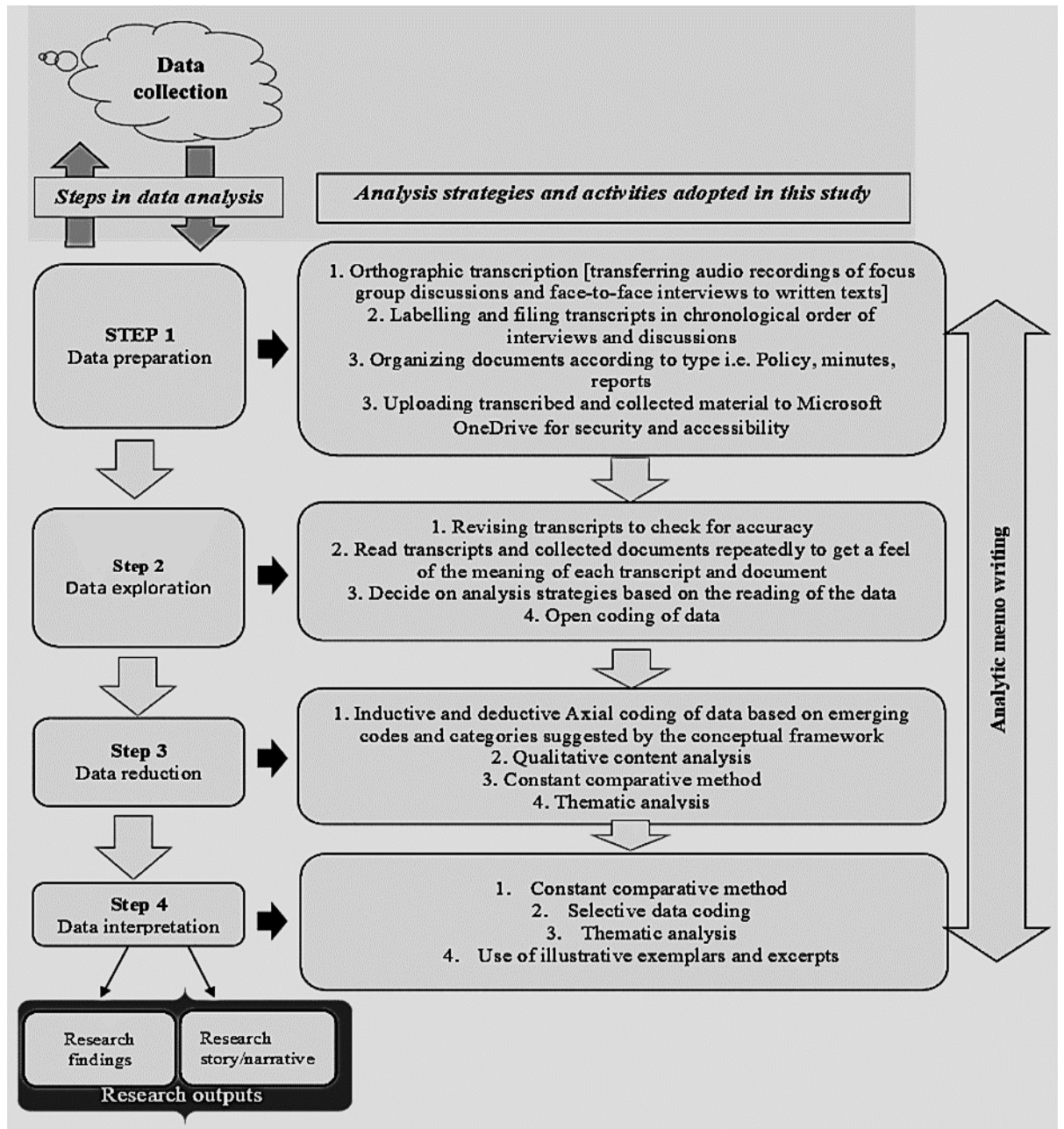
Adapted from Hesse-Biber (2017**).** *The practice of qualitative research: Engaging students in the research process*(3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.

4.13. Quantitative and Qualitative integration

Having conducted the quantitative and qualitative strands of this study separately, it is pertinent

to discuss the integration or mixing of the two strands to achieve a mixed methods study. This

is critical because the integration of the quantitative and qualitative research components of the

study is a defining feature of MMR (Bartholomew & Lockard,2018; Creamer, 2018; Doyle et al., 2016; Fàbregues & Paré, 2018; Fielding, 2012; Maxwell et al., 2015; Regnault et al., 2018; O'Cathain, 2020; Schoonenboom &Johnson, 2017). Hereafter, the quantitative and qualitative strands are referred to as *quan* and *QUAL* respectively as a demonstration of the prioritization afforded to each strand.

Integration is the meshing or intertwining of the quantitative and qualitative strands of a mixed methods study (Glogowska, 2011; Hesse-Biber, 2015; Horstet al.,2015; O'Cathain, 2020). Integration is possible at multiple levels in a mixed methods study that include methods, methodologies, and paradigms (Fetters et al., 2017; Green et al., 2015). The more integration points there are, the more fully a study becomes a mixed methods study. Linking the methods of data collection and analysis achieves integration in a mixed methods study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Doyle et al., 2016; Hancock et al., 2018). Connecting, building, merging, and embedding *quan* and *QUAL* strands of the study led to the establishment of linkages (Fetters et al., 2013). Integration through connecting occurs when one type of data links with the other through the sampling frame (Bartholomew & Lockard, 2018; Creamer, 2018). This study connected the *quan* and the *QUAL* strands through using *quan* results to inform the selection of college sites for the *QUAL* phase of the study. The sampling frame thus integrated and connected the *quan* and *QUAL* strands of the study through purposively selecting two colleges for the qualitative phase of the study from the sample of the initial *quan* phase of the study. The *quan* enabled the researcher to rank the 5 colleges surveyed according to the prevalence rates and the tolerance for SH in each college. When this ranking was achieved, the colleges occupying the first and second slots on the ranking were purposively selected for inclusion in the subsequent *QUAL* phase of the study. In this way, the *quan* and *QUAL* strands of the study were connected through the sampling frame. Connecting the strands of a mixed methods study through the sampling frame achieves integration 'through sampling across two or more stages' (Creamer, 2018, p. 153).

In addition, the subsequent *QUAL* phase built on the initial *quan* phase of the study. Integration through building involved the use of one data collection procedure to inform the data collection approach of the other procedure with the later building on the former. This study realised this through the design and development of qualitative instruments based on the data and findings from the initial quantitative phase of the study (Doyle et al., 2016; Fetters et al., 2013). For example, interview items for the qualitative phase of the study were developed based on participants' perceptions of institutional climate that were captured in the initial quantitative phase of the study. Additionally, the *quan* results from the initial phase also directed which participants to focus on in the *QUAL* phase of the study. For example, statistical analysis of *quan* data showed that more female than male students indicated that they had experienced, heard about, or witnessed lecturers engaging in the listed harassing behaviours. Based on this finding, female students were purposively made most of the participants for the *QUAL*FGDs. In this way, the *QUAL* phase built on the *quan* phase of the study.

Furthermore, the interpretation and reporting stage integrated *quan* and *QUAL* data through merging *quan* and *QUAL* databases for analysis and comparison (Fetters et al., 2014). At this stage of the research, data weaving resulted in the integration of the *quan* and *QUAL* strands of the study (Bartholomew & Lockard, 2018; Doyle et al., 2016; Fetters et al., 2013; Schoonenboom &Johnson, 2017). This study achieved integration in all the three areas mentioned. Data weaving occurred in the form of discussing and describing both the *quan* and *QUAL* data sets and findings on a theme-by-theme or concept by concept basis (Fetters et al., 2013).

Apart from the integration points discussed so far, the study also achieved integration at the philosophical or paradigmatic level. At the philosophical level, integration was achieved through adopting pragmatism as the study's anchoring philosophy. As a research paradigm, pragmatism focuses on the research problem to be addressed rather than on the methods. The methodologies and methods are subordinated to the research problem. as such, pragmatism

adopts a what works best in addressing the research problem in its choice of methods. It thus permits a researcher to use methods that work in addressing the problem irrespective of those methods being positivist or interpretivist. In this way, pragmatism bridges the divide between positivism and interpretivism and permits the mixing of the two in a single study. Accordingly, integration was achieved in this study through adopting a paradigm that permits the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research in a single study. Fig 4.9 shows the integration points in this study.

Figure 4.9

Quantitative and Qualitative Strand Integration Points
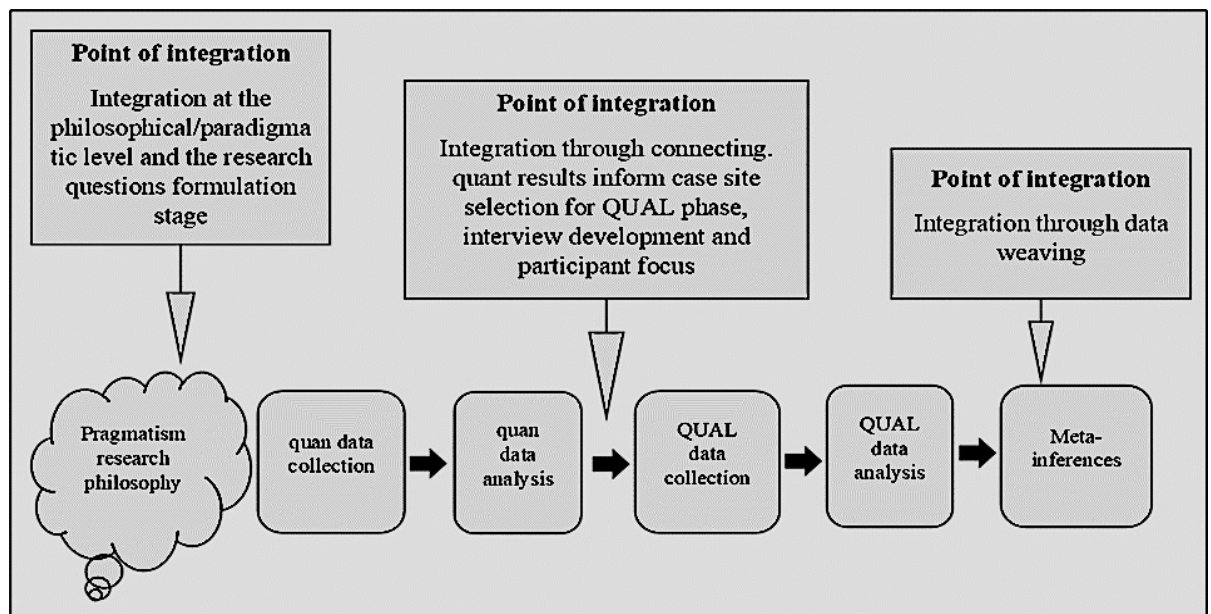
4.14. Mixed-Methods validity and reliability

Teddlie and Tashakkori's *Integrative Framework for Inference Quality and Transferability* informed the validation process and procedures in this study. The integrative framework synthesizes quality criteria constructs from the quantitative and qualitative traditions to develop a quality framework for evaluating mixed methods studies or meta inferences (Eckhardt & DeVon, 2017; Long, 2017; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008). Meta-inferences are born from the integration of the inferences from the quantitative and qualitative strands of a mixed methods study. They are, therefore, hybrid inferences operating at a level higher than either of the

quantitative or qualitative inferences of a mixed methods study. Accordingly, assessing the quality of meta-inferences requires criteria that "go beyond the standards of quality for their qualitative and quantitative strands" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008, p. 106). The integrative framework thus offers evaluative criteria for meta-inferences that transcends quality criteria for quantitative and qualitative approaches.

The integrative framework thus recognizes and values the validation procedures peculiar to quantitative and qualitative research. While it acknowledges the importance of engaging in separate validation procedures for the quantitative and qualitative strands of a mixed methods study, it goes further to propose validation for the meta-inferences that arise from the integration of inferences obtained from the quantitative and qualitative strands of a mixed study. It thus permits a three-tier approach to validation in MMR. Accordingly, the quantitative and qualitative strands of this study were validated separately and that validation was discussed under each respective phase under relevant sections of this chapter.

While validating each of the study's strands separately was consistent with the SED adopted for this study, doing so alone does not guarantee inference quality in MMR (Bazeley, 2015; Eckhardt & DeVon, 2017; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Venkatesh et al., 2013). There was also need, consistent with MMR, to achieve and realize MMR inference quality through integrating the validity and reliability concerns in the quantitative and qualitative components of the study. To this end, Teddlie & Tashakkori's Integrative Framework for inference quality and transferability guided the validation process for this mixed methods study.

The integrative framework specifies the conditions necessary for the formulation of valid meta-inferences. These conditions consist of inference quality and interpretive rigor (Eckhardt & DeVon, 2017; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Venkatesh et al., 2013). Thus, when a study achieves inference quality and interpretive rigor, then the meta-inferences thereof become credible and warrantable. Figure 4.10. shows the application of the integrative framework in validating a sequential explanatory study.

Figure 4.10

Application of The Integrative Framework in Validating a Sequential Explanatory Study
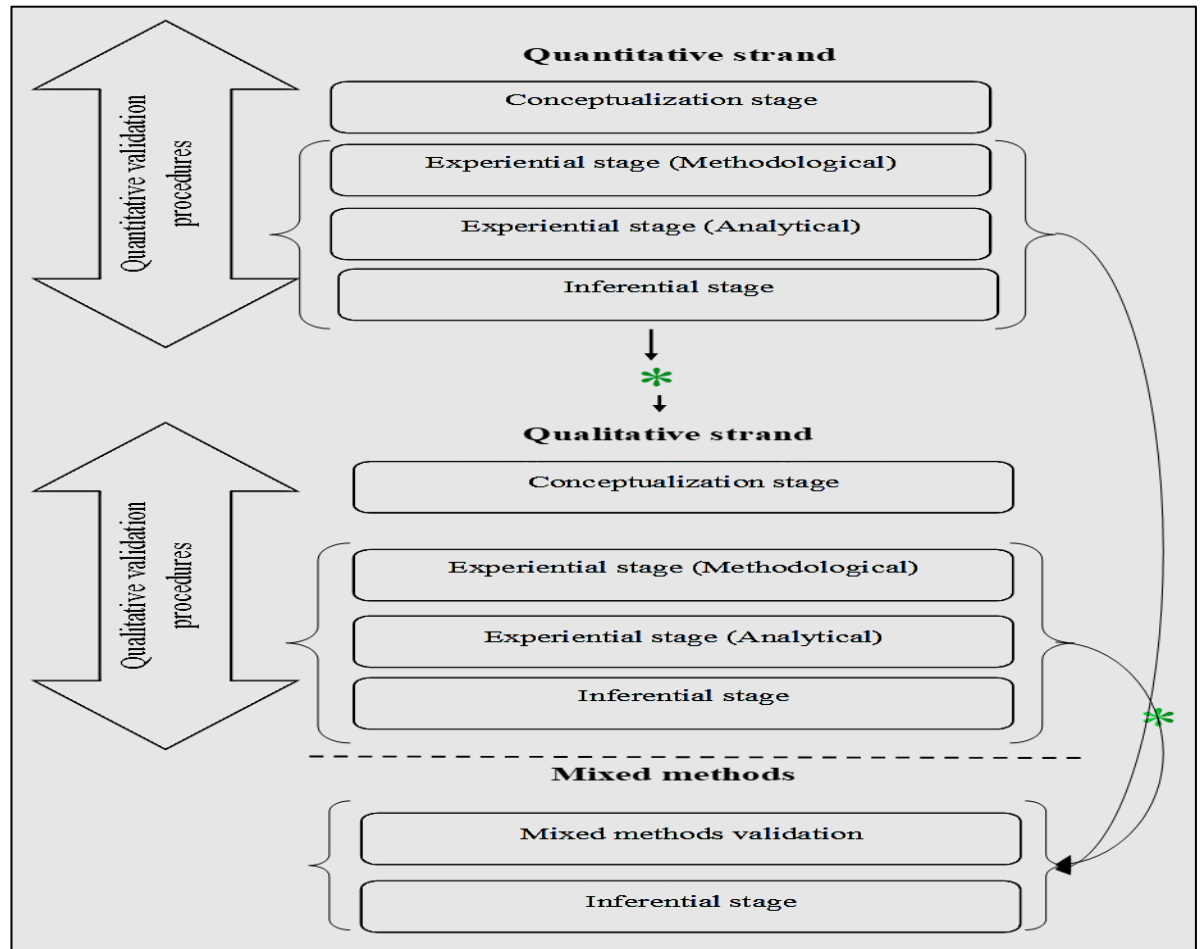
Notes: *Integration points

Adapted from Tashakkori & Teddlie, (2008). Quality of inferences in mixed methods research: Calling for an integrative framework. In M. M. Bergman (Ed.), *Advances in mixed methods research theories and applications.* Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications Inc.

4.14.1. Inference quality as an MMR validity and reliability criterion

Inference quality is an MMR construct that measures how well research findings or conclusions are a product of the research data or the extent to which findings and conclusions are grounded in or mirror the research data (Collins, 2015; Eckhardt & DeVon, 2017; Long, 2017; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Venkatesh et al., 2013). In precise terms, inference quality addresses "the accuracy of inductively and deductively derived conclusions in a study or research inquiry" (Venkatesh et al., 2013, p. 35).

It is concerned with the extent to which interpretations and conclusions (inferences) in MMR are valid, credible and dependable or the extent to which these speak to the data. In assessing the quality of inferences, it becomes pertinent to understand the processes and procedures by which the inferences were arrived at as well as the processes of distilling meaning from collected data. Thus, Teddlie & Tashakkori (2009, p. 249) observe that "the quality of inferences depends on the quality of inputs to the process (i.e., design quality) and the integrity of the process of making meaning (i.e., interpretive rigor)". Inference quality thus hinges, as shown in Figure 4.11 on design quality and interpretive rigor.

On one hand, inference quality depends on the appropriateness of the research design and fidelity in its implementation. Accordingly, the appropriateness of the design and rigor in its implementation is a precondition for inference quality (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008). However, the quality of inferences does not rest on design quality alone. Design quality is just one component that feeds into inference quality and is inadequate, by itself, in guaranteeing inference quality. Inference quality is a product of both a systematic design and its implementation as well as the interpretive processes of distilling meaning from collected data. Therefore, the findings of a study are only as good as the processes of generating the data in which inferences are grounded as well as the interpretive procedures of arriving at those findings. The quality of the ingredients and the preparation procedures determine, all things being equal, the quality of the dish that will be served for dinner. Inversely, the quality of the dish on the dinner table reflects the quality of the ingredients used and the quality of the preparation procedures. Accordingly, Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 249) note that if the research design is "not implemented with quality and rigor, the quality of obtained inferences will be uncertain". On the other, due diligence in distilling inferences from the data or the inference process contributes significantly to inference quality. Hence, the quality of the MMR design and the rigor achieved in interpretation are critical to the realisation of inference quality.

Figure 4.11 highlights the nexus between inference quality, design quality and interpretive rigor.

Figure 4.11

Design Quality and Interpretive Rigor Props for Inference Quality
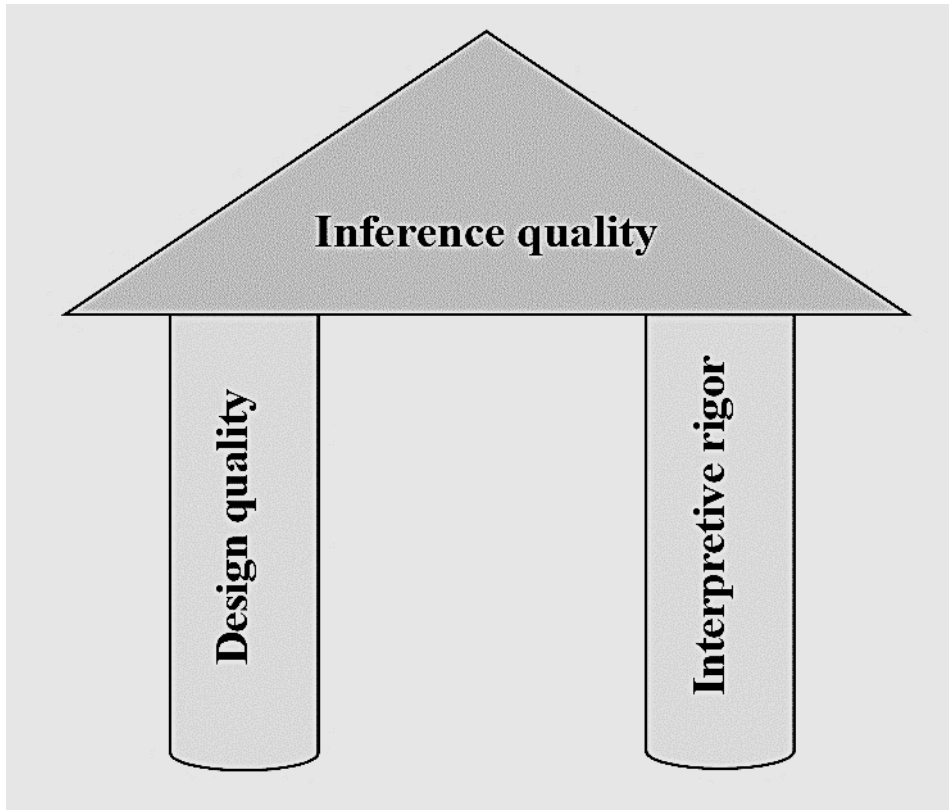
On one hand, design quality is a construct that assess the consistency of an adopted study design with established MMR tradition as found in methodology literature (Venkatesh et al., 2013; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Additionally, it evaluates whether a researcher has sufficiently demonstrated rigor and fidelity in design implementation (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). On the other, interpretive rigor assesses the appropriateness and adequacy of interpretive strategies and processes in informing research findings and conclusions (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006; Venkatesh et al., 2013). The validity of inferences is based on an assessment of the appropriateness and adequacy of interpretive strategies and procedures adopted in a study.

Design quality and interpretive rigor are broad constructs that are assessed through a number of constructs subsumed in each of the two constructs. Figure 4.12. shows the evaluative components of design quality and interpretive rigor.

Figure 4.12

Criteria for Design Quality and Interpretive Rigor
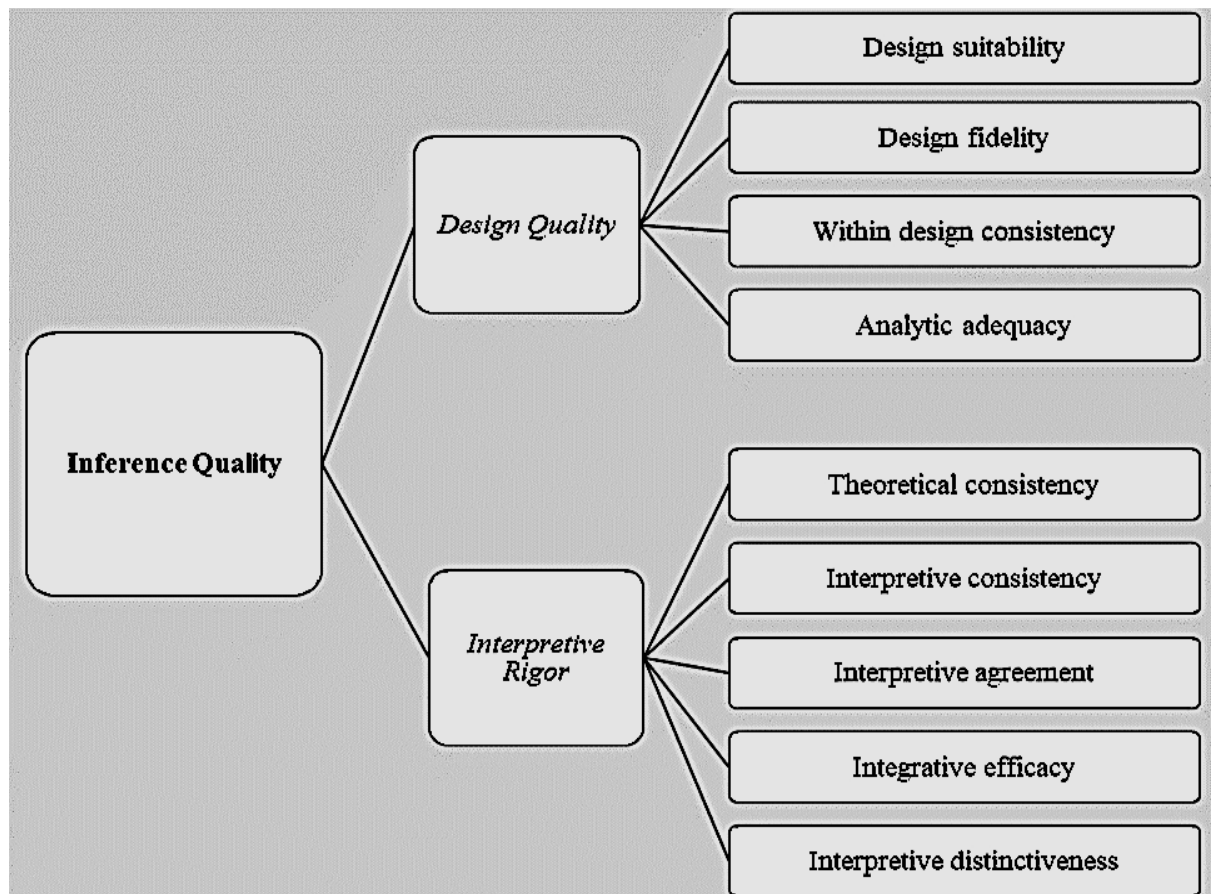
The satisfaction of each of the constituent evaluative components of design quality and interpretive rigor is detailed below.

4.14.2. Achieving design quality in the quantitative strand of the study

Multiple criteria that include design suitability, design fidelity, within design consistency, and analytic adequacy builds up design quality. Design suitability assesses the congruency between the adopted design and the research questions. In other words, it assesses the fit between the chosen design and the research task at hand. This study adopted a qualitatively driven SED in understanding institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. Suitability of the

design lay in that it allowed the researcher to conduct an initial cross-sectional survey in the quantitative phase of the study to measure the prevalence of SSH and to gauge perceptions of lecturers and students on institutional tolerance for SSH. The survey data were statistically analysed and the results presented in both descriptive and inferential statistics. Statistical operations produced results that quantified prevalence of SH and perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH but could not account for the established prevalence rates and perceptions of institutional tolerance of SH. The results from this initial phase were thus inadequate in meeting the research aim which necessitated the need for a follow-up qualitative study to contextualize and explain the initial quantitative results. In this way, the follow-up qualitative phase complemented and expanded the initial quantitative phase in that it sought to explain the prevalence rates of students' SH and perceptions on institutional tolerance for SH established in the initial quantitative phase. Accordingly, the follow-up phase gathered data through FFIs, FGDs, and QDA to answer the *why* and *how* questions that descriptive and inferential statics used in the initial quantitative phase could not answer. The purpose of mixing, therefore, was to expand, compliment and explain the initial approach with a follow-up approach to gain an enhanced understanding of the phenomenon under study (Creamer, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Hunter & Brewer, 2015; Morse et al., 2018). The follow-up qualitative strand could not also statistically measure SH prevalence and perceptions of institutional tolerance to SH. Through utilizing quantitative and qualitative approaches in one study, the researcher was able to gain a complete and comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study. Utilisation of a mono method approach (either quantitative or qualitative) could not have achieved the completeness and comprehensiveness gained in understanding institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe that the mixed approach afforded. In this way, the design combined "the clarity of quantitative counts with the nuance and perspective of qualitative reflections" (Wheeldon, 2010, p. 88).

Secondly, the researcher achieved design fidelity in several ways. Adopting the SED implied

conducting the study in two distinct phases. Accordingly, the commencement of the subsequent qualitative phase was dependent on the completion of the data collection and analysis of the initial quantitative phase. In this way, the researcher achieved correct sequencing of phases in the conduct of this study. Additionally, the study adopted sampling techniques, data collection methods, data analysis procedures, and validation processes consistent with the approach in each phase of the study (Bartholomew & Lockard, 2018; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015; Reio & Werner,2017). Thus, for the initial quantitative phase of the study, selection of survey respondents proceeded by way of stratified systematic random sampling. Related to this, the researcher power calculated the sample size at 3.5% margin of error and 95% confidence level. Furthermore, the researcher administered a structured questionnaire. The structured questionnaire is a quantitative instrument and its use in the quantitative phase of the study was appropriate. After the administration of the survey instrument, the researcher subjected survey data to descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. Analysis of survey data was thus consistent with quantitative research dictates. Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis of survey data achieved analytic adequacy which is also a validity criterion for design quality.

Over and above this, the validation of the quantitative phase included the adoption of established instruments with known Cronbach's reliability co-efficiencies. The field of SH research, as has been demonstrated in the review of related literature, extensively relies on the use of the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) or its variants and the Organisational Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (OTSHI). Accordingly, the adopted instruments ensured the reliable measurement of the phenomenon under study. Using established instruments enhanced construct validity through measuring the correct properties of the phenomenon under study. Additionally, a power calculated random sample enhanced external validity or generalizability through sample size adequacy and representativeness.

The within-design consistency criterion evaluates the extent of the achievement of design

quality in this study (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). The within-design consistency criterion relates to the consistency of the procedures or design study from which the inference emerges (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). The adoption of and adherence to the procedures of conducting an established sequential explanatory MMR design meets the within-design consistency criterion. Fidelity to the procedures of the sequential explanatory MMR design involves conducting the study in two distinct *quan* and *QUAL* phases respectively and adhering to the dictates of data collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative research in the appropriate phases of the study (Bartholomew & Lockard, 2018; Morse, 2015; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015; Reio & Werner,2017). Fidelity to the procedures of the sequential explanatory MMR design satisfied the design fidelity criterion and contributed to inference quality (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006).

Furthermore, adherence to the dictates of MMR data analysis significantly contributed to achieving design quality. For that reason, the researcher engaged in the necessary processes of MMR data analysis that includes data display, data comparison, and data integration (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). This was achieved in the discussion stage of the study in which *quan* and *QUAL* data were brought together in making meta-inferences.

4.14.3. Achieving design quality in the qualitative strand of the study

Multiple criteria that include design suitability, design fidelity, within design consistency, and analytic adequacy builds up design quality. The qualitative phase of this SED utilized a multisite case study approach. The multisite case study was suitable for a follow-up study design on the initial cross-sectional survey for several reasons. Chief among these reasons is the case study's ability to generate thick and rich contextual data required to explain statistical survey results. The multisite case study adopted for this study generated thick data through the utilization of multiple methods and data sources. Methods of data collection included FFIs, FGDs, and QDA. Additionally, sources of data included lecturers and students. The thick data generated were useful in adequately answering the *why* and *how* questions of this study that

descriptive and inferential statistics could not answer. In this sense, the multisite case study design complemented the cross-sectional survey.

Secondly, the researcher achieved design fidelity in several ways. Fidelity to the case study design implied adopting sampling techniques, data collection methods, data analysis procedures, and validation processes consistent with qualitative research. In the context of this study, sampling involved both the selection of case sites and participants. Statistical results from the initial quantitative phase informed case site selection for the qualitative phase of the study. Statistical results enabled the ranking of case sites based on the prevalence rate of SSH and on perception of institutional tolerance for SH. Case site selection for the qualitative phase involved the purposeful picking of the case site at the apex of the ranking. This amounted to purposive sampling which is the preferred sampling technique in qualitative research. The second case site was selected based on convenience sampling. Accordingly, the second college was conveniently selected based on its accessibility to the fist college that had been selected based on prevalence rankings obtained from the initial cross-sectional survey. This was necessitated by covid-19 restrictions on interprovincial travel. Additionally, participant selection was also purposeful. The selection process involved identifying information rich participants. These participants included lecturers seconded to the Student Support Centre and the registrar's office, heads of departments, male and female students, and male and female lecturers. The criteria for selection included the participants' proximity to institutional responsive strategies either as formulators, implementors or users of strategies.

In addition to sampling strategies, design fidelity also took the form of adopting appropriate data collection methods. To this end, the qualitative phase of the study utilized established qualitative methods that included FFIs, FGDs, and QDA. These methods permitted the collection of thick contextual data necessary for answering the why and *how* research questions that this study sought to answer. The study deployed these methods to collect data from multiple sources that included students and lecturers. Generating data from multiple sources using

multiple methods permitted both method and source triangulation which is a distinguishing feature of qualitative research. The choice of instruments that are consistent with qualitative research ensured fidelity to the qualitative design of the study.

Furthermore, design fidelity took the form of adopting appropriate data analysis methods and strategies consistent with qualitative research. Data analysis in the qualitative phase involved the use of analysis process such as data preparation and management, data exploration or data immersion, data reduction and reorganisation, and data interpretation. These processes involved the adoption of analysis strategies that were qualitative in nature. Orthographic transcription of interviews and discussions ensued and data exploration took the form of data coding and categorisation. Coding and categorisation served two functions: exploring and reducing data. Data coding and categorisation coordinated with other approaches to qualitative data analysis such as the constant comparative approach, and thematic analysis. Combined, these methods allowed both data reduction and data reorganisation. The analysis methods also permitted the researcher to distil patterns and themes within and across data sets that led to the formulation of interpretations grounded in the data.

Above all this, fidelity to the qualitative design of the follow-up phase to this study included the adoption of qualitative validation procedures. Qualitative validation included creating an audit trail through reflexive journaling, member checking designed to authenticate research data with participants, and triangulation of both methods and data sources. These procedures ensured the credibility, dependability, and trustworthiness of qualitative inferences.

4.14.4. Achieving design quality at the mixed methods level of this study

The adoption of a recognised SED enhanced the design quality of this mixed methods study. The design is consistent with a qualitatively driven approach because it prioritised the qualitative component of the study even though the qualitative component was a follow-up phase in the study. The design was suitable because it enabled comprehensiveness and completeness in understanding institutional responsiveness to SSH through affording

opportunities for complementarity, expansion, and explanation (Halcomb & Andrew, 2009; Maharaj et al., 2009; Mark, 2015; Morse, 2015; Weine, 2015). Accordingly, the initial cross-sectional survey produced statistical results best suited for understanding prevalence rates of SSH and perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH. These results required a follow-up study to contextualize and explain them. It is this requirement that the qualitative phase served. The qualitative phase sought to explain the how and why of the prevalence rates and perceptions of institutional tolerance established in the initial phase of the study. It is in this qualitative phase that participants shared their perceptions regarding institutional responsiveness to SSH. Thus, the SED was appropriate for addressing the research questions that this study sought to answer. It thus provided comprehensive answers to the guiding research questions that a mono-method study could not provide. The quest for comprehensiveness and completeness in understanding institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs justified the adoption of a qualitatively driven SED. Furthermore, the researcher observed design fidelity by following the dictates of each approach in the respective phases. For example, quantitative procedures were followed to the latter in the quantitative phase of the study. Thus, sampling procedures, data collection methods, validation processes, and analysis procedures all conformed to quantitative norms of doing research. These procedures have been discussed in detail elsewhere in this chapter (see 4.8; 4.9; 4.10). Similarly, qualitative procedures were followed in the qualitative phase of the study. Again, these procedures have been discussed in detail elsewhere in the chapter (see 4.11; 4.12). Repeating them here will not serve any purpose other than that of repetition. Additionally, the conduct of the study was sequential as dictated by the design. Accordingly, the cross-sectional survey initiated the study. Results from this initial phase informed case selection and the refinement of qualitative instruments. In doing this, the researcher integrated the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study. Such integration of the strands of a mixed methods study is the distinguishing feature of MMR. Successful integration of the strands was not only a demonstration of design fidelity but of within design consistency too.

4.14.5. Achieving interpretive rigor for this study

Interpretive rigor refers to standards for the evaluation of accuracy or authenticity of the conclusion (Venkatesh et al., 2013). It is concerned with the design and utilization of the interpretive processes in arriving at credible and dependable findings and conclusions. The criteria for achieving interpretive rigor include interpretive agreement, interpretive distinctiveness, and theoretical consistency (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006).

Interpretive agreement refers to consistency of interpretations across people (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Subjecting the interpretive process to member checking is critical in determining if participants concur with interpretations. Participants in this study consistently checked if researcher interpretations are consistent with their understanding of SH as it obtains in the case sites studied. This was partly achieved during interviews through asking participants to confirm their responses.

Interpretive distinctiveness, the extent to which inferences are distinctively different from other possible interpretations of the results and rival explanations dispensed of (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006), was achieved through ensuring the validity and reliability of the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study and of the MMR itself. In ensuring interpretive distinctiveness, the study adheres to standards of interpretation as dictated by the research approaches at each phase of the study.

Theoretical consistency addresses the extent to which inferences are consistent with theory and the state of knowledge in the field of SH research. Theoretical consistency was realised in the discussion component of the interpretation phase through comparing study findings with findings from extant literature reviewed in the literature review section of this study (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006).

4.15. Ethical considerations

Ethics in research address questions of acceptable research practice (Carter et al., 2018) that,

when adhered to, minimise "deceptions and falsehoods in science" (Nortjé & Hoffmann, 2019, p. 118). Research ethics thus provide moral guidance to researchers on how to achieve scientific integrity (Preissle et al., 2015). In discussing ethical considerations, therefore, the researcher delves into questions of right and wrong in conducting research (Muasya &Gatumu, 2013). Research ethics, therefore, distinguish between "good and bad, virtue and evil" (Preissle et al., 2015, p. 145) in research practice. Ethics straddle the entire research process and the researcher was duty bound to uphold ethical principles at each turn of the research process from conceptualization of the research idea through analysis and report writing (Svend &Kvale, 2017).

The golden standards of ethical research practice obligated the researcher to respect communities and participant's rights (rights to informed consent, to privacy, dignity, and their right from harm), observe fairness in the selection of participants and in reporting findings, ensure that the research process and outcomes are beneficial to the researcher, participants and communities, and observe scientific integrity throughout the research process (Carpenter, 2018; D'Angelo, 2019; Koepsell, 2017; Treharne & Marx, 2018; West, 2019). These ethical standards have been summarised as "autonomy, dignity, beneficence, and justice" (Koepsell, 2017, p. 61) or, in other terms, "Beneficence, Non-Maleficence, Respect for Autonomy, and Justice (distributive)" (Carpenter, 2018, p. 37). In this study, the ethical obligations included the obligation to obtain free and informed consent, the obligation to respect confidentiality, the obligation to be fair, the obligation to obtain licence and authority to conduct the study, and the obligation to maintain scientific integrity.

4.15.1. The obligation to ensure beneficence

Credible research is that research that is worthwhile and adds value to stakeholders' lives (Carpenter, 2018). Research, thus, should be of some benefit to the researcher, the research community, research participants or the community at large. Such benefits provide justification for undertaking research activity.

The obligation to ensure beneficence is consistent with paradigmatic pragmatism that anchors this study. This is so because pragmatic research aims at "developing actionable knowledge useful to people living their everyday lives" (Korte et al., 2017, p. 63). This study into institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe is beneficial to the institutions studied in that the study empowers institutions to assess their level of responsiveness to SSH. Based on such assessments, institutions are better placed to make informed decisions on which responsive strategies to adopt or refine. This is important given that institutions lack clarity on which measures are adequate and effective in addressing SSH (Mohamed et al., 2014; University Grants Commission, 2013). In this way, the study contributes to the creation of healthy and safe campus climates in which all students can thrive by providing the needed clarity on which measures best address the problem of SSH in IHLs.

Additionally, the study is beneficial to the SH research community because it responded to calls for studying organisational drivers of SH and to understanding institutional responsiveness to SSH (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Buchanan et al., 2014; Sojo et al., 2016; Perkins & Warner, 2017; Zapp et al., 2021). Accordingly, the study fills a knowledge gap that other researchers have also identified in SH research.

4.15.2. Obligation to observe scientific integrity

The value and credibility of any research endeavour depends on the extent to which it is free of "fraudulent, erroneous, or biased data or results" (Resnik, 2018, p. 237). As such, the conduct of the research process must be beyond reproach. Research that is conducted with integrity bolsters confidence in the findings and their application in resolving problems that trouble the world. Violation of scientific integrity brings the research community into disrepute, undermines trust between researchers themselves and between researchers and the society, and can produce results that may be both misleading and harmful. Violations of scientific integrity include "fabrication, falsification, or plagiarism" (Resnik, 2018, p. 238).

In upholding scientific integrity, the researcher contextualised the study in existing literature.

In doing so, the researcher avoided plagiarism by acknowledging and properly citing the works of forerunners. The works of forerunners were critical in shedding light on the phenomenon under study and on informing methodological choices. Additionally, the researcher did not falsify data to make the data fit the researcher's assumptions. To demonstrate the absence of falsification and fabrication of data, the researcher availed an audit trail in the form of a reflexive journal in which all research process decisions were recorded. The audit trail enhances transparency and transparency is a key precondition for scientific integrity. Secondly, recordings of interviews and discussions as well as documents analysed were securely kept and can be availed to authorised persons for purposes of validation of findings if such a need arises.

4.15.3. The obligation to obtain free and informed consent.

This study into institutional responsiveness to SH falls within the category of social science research that involves engaging people on their appreciation of institutional responsiveness to SH within TCs in Zimbabwe. Accordingly, securing free and informed consent was a critical ethical principle that the researcher needed to consider before initiating the study (D'Angelo, 2019; Macnish, 2019; National Committees for Research Ethics in Norway, 2006). The ethical principle of free and informed consent involved minimising coercion by apprising research participants of the risks, benefits, and participation procedure involved in the research before their participation in the research process (Goodwin et al., 2020; Haines, 2017; Sinha, 2017; West, 2019). Doing so nurtured trust between the researcher and the research participants necessary for eliciting reliable and valid data on participants' lived experiences (Resnik, 2018; Sinha, 2017).

Securing free and informed consent also entailed affirming participants' right to withdraw their participation at any time and at any stage of the research process without them suffering any reprisals (National Committees for Research Ethics in Norway, 2006). However, Colnerud (2015) established that making available information about a study necessary for informed decision making by participants may create conditions that discourage participation. Despite

this, the researcher prepared an informed consent form that detailed the research topic, the nature of the study, the study purpose, and the role of both the researcher and participants in the research process. The researcher then availed the consent form to research participants who then indicated their consent, upon reading the consent form, by putting an *x* on the form as a signature. Participants were also required to reaffirm their consent to participate at regular intervals of the study. In the ways detailed here, the researcher satisfied the obligation to respect autonomy, freedom and right to participate of participants.

4.15.4. The obligation to respect confidentiality and privacy

In addition to securing informed consent, the researcher also undertook to guarantee and respect confidentiality. Confidentiality assures participants that what they share with the researcher will neither be shared with others nor their identities be revealed without their consent (Macleod & Mnyaka, 2018; National Committees for Research Ethics in Norway, 2006; Resnik, 2018). Treating information received from participants as confidential protects participants from harm by not using or disseminating information that can potentially harm participants. Additionally, protecting participants from harm that may stem from the use or dissemination of information given by participants requires anonymising and pseudonymizing such information, storing it securely, and destroying it at an opportune time (Berkhout, 2013; Macnish; 2019; National Committees for Research Ethics in Norway, 2006; Saunders et al., 2015). Accordingly, the structured questionnaire used in the initial quantitative phase of the study did not require participants to identify themselves or their institution in any way. This makes it difficult to identify information with participants or study sites (Saunders et al., 2015).

In addition, the physical environment that provide contexts for research interviews is also an important aspect to consider in ensuring confidentiality, privacy, and respect for the participants (Reed et al., 2014; Sinha, 2017). Accordingly, the researcher ensured confidentiality in the qualitative phase of the study by holding interviews in secure locations inside the institutions studied. Participants thus identified and suggested locations within their institutions where they

wanted interviews held. Additionally, participants used pseudonyms of their choice to refer to themselves and the researcher used these pseudonyms in data presentation to refer to participants (Moosa, 2013; Saunders et al., 2015). The researcher, therefore, did not seek to know participants by their real names. Through the measures taken in this study, the researcher thus satisfied the obligation to protect participants from potential harm and suffering.

4.15.5. The obligation to be fair

Research ethics also dictate that researcher demonstrate justice and fairness in the selection and recruitment of research participants (National Committees for Research Ethics in Norway, 2006). Accordingly, the researcher statistically determined the sample for the initial quantitative phase of the study through stratified random sampling technique. Thus, selection of participants was free from the researcher's undue influence and it ensured proportional representation of the population in the sample.

The researcher also ensured fairness in recruitment of case sites and participants for the second qualitative phase of the study. For this subsequent phase of the study, the researcher purposively recruited case sites using the stratified purposive sampling technique. The researcher ranked case sites based on prevalence rates established in the initial quantitative phase of the study and then purposively selected the case sites at the apex of the prevalence ranking into the qualitative sample.

Additionally, the researcher recruited participants based on their indication of willingness to continue participation in the study. Additionally, the researcher recruited participants into the qualitative phase of the study based on the richness of information that they could bring to the study. Accordingly, information rich participants for this study into institutional responsiveness to SH in TCs in Zimbabwe included lecturers seconded to the support centres, lecturers seconded to the institutional student affairs offices, and heads of departments in the institutions studied. Recruitment of these participants was fair and just because they met the criterion of being information rich participants. As such, the recruitment of these information rich

participants followed the dictates of purposive sampling. Those not considered for participation in the qualitative phase of the study were justifiably excluded because they had either not expressed consent to continue participation in the study or they did not meet the key informant criterion.

4.15.6. The obligation to obtain licence and authority to conduct the study

Ethical conduct in research practice also dictates the reporting and authorization of all research and student projects that involve the processing of personal data. Accordingly, the conduct of this study only became possible following ethical clearance from Great Zimbabwe University as the institution at which the researcher is a post-graduate student in the faculty of education. The university requires and mandates ethical clearance for all post-graduate research. Furthermore, the researcher sought authorization from the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science, Innovation, and Technology Development that has oversight over TCs in Zimbabwe. In addition to that, the researcher also sought permission to conduct the research from the institutions used as case sites in this study.

4.16. Chapter summary

The chapter discussed the methodology adopted in this study. It outlined pragmatism as the research paradigm, mixed-methods as the research approach and the qualitatively driven SED as the research design. The researcher thus conducted the study in two distinct sequential phases in which the quantitative strand preceded the qualitative strand. In the quantitative and qualitative strands, the researcher adopted a cross-sectional design and a multi-site case study design respectively. Accordingly, the chapter discussed key methodological considerations for each strand of the study following the dictates of the research approach in each strand of the study. Thus, the chapter discussed the sampling strategies, the sample size determination, the instrumentation, the quality control measures, and the data analysis plan from both a quantitative and a qualitative perspective. Mixed methods validation and integration were also

discussed. Finally, the ethical principles that framed this study were discussed. The next chapter presents, analyses, and discusses data from the initial quantitative strand of the study.

CHAPTER V

QUANTITATIVE DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyses, and interprets quantitative data obtained through the administration of a self-report questionnaire. The questionnaire data provide answers to the study's quantitative research questions. Thus, the data answer questions relating to the prevalence of sexual harassment (SH) in the colleges studied and lecturers and students' (hereafter referred to as respondents) perception on institutional tolerance for SH. Additionally, the data were used to investigate association between respondents' characteristics (gender and status) and experiences of SH as measured by the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ), and association between respondents' characteristics (gender and status) and perception of institutional tolerance for SH. Furthermore, the data were used to establish association between college and prevalence of SH as well as between college and perception of institutional tolerance for SH. The prevalence of SH was assessed by constructing 95% confidence intervals for estimating the proportion of respondents who had witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH. The use of confidence intervals catered for the sampling variability of the sample proportion. Chi-square tests were performed to investigate association between respondents' characteristics, college, and prevalence of SH as well as between respondents' characteristics, college, and perception of institutional tolerance for SSH.

5.1. Sample composition

The study sample comprised respondents drawn from five TCs. The contribution of each college to the sample by participant category is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Sample Size and Composition

| Participant category | Colleges | | | | | | | | | | |
| | C1 | | C2 | | C3 | | C4 | | C5 | | |
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	Total
Students	60	12	94	18	133	26	94	18	129	25	**510**
Lecturers	20	23	16	18	13	15	16	18	23	26	**88**
Total	**80**	**13**	**110**	**18**	**146**	**24**	**110**	**18**	**152**	**25**	**598**

Note. The percentage (%) total in the total row are calculated based on the total number of students and lecturers from each college in relation to the sample size.

Data in Table 5.1 show that the sample comprised 598 students and lecturers. Students made up over four-fifth (85%, proportion [p]=510/598) and lecturers made up less than a fifth (15%, p=88/598) of the sample. College sites were proportionally represented in the sample based on student and lecturer populations in each college. College 1 contributed slightly above a tenth of the student sample (12%, p=60/510) and about a quarter (23%, p=20/88) of the lecturer sample. Each of college 2 and 4 contributed about a fifth of both students (18%, p=94/510) and lecturers (18%, p=16/88). College 3 contributed slightly above a quarter (26%, p=133/510) of students and less than a fifth (15%, p=13/88) of lecturers. College 5 contributed a quarter (25%, p=129/510) of students and slightly above a quarter (26%, p=23/88) of lecturers to the sample. The observed differences in contributions to the sample reflect different enrolment and staffing patterns across the Colleges studied.

5.1.2. Distribution of respondents by gender and status

The sample consisted of both male and female lecturer and student respondents. The distribution of respondents by gender and status is presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

Respondent Distribution by Gender and Status

	Respondent gender				Total
	Male		female		
Respondent status	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*
Students	107	21	403	79	510
Lecturers	48	55	40	45	88
Total	**155**	**26**	**443**	**74**	**598**

Note. The percentage (%) total in the total row are calculated based on the total number of students and lecturers from each case site in relation to the sample size.

The data presented in Table 5.2. show that, on one hand, the lecturer component of the sample comprised of more than half (48/88=55%) male and less than half (40/88=45%) female lecturers. Since the sample size was proportional to the population, the distribution of males and females indicates that males outnumber females as lecturers by approximately 10% in the colleges studied. On the other hand, about four-fifth (403/510=79%) of the student sample were females and a fifth (107/510=21%) were males. This indicates a student ratio of 1 male to 4 female students. This means for every 1 male student there are 4 female students (1:4). The population in TCs is disproportionately composed of female students and male lecturers.

5.1.3. Distribution of respondents by age

Respondents in the survey were of different statuses and ages. Figure 5.1 presents data on the age ranges of lecturer and student respondents respectively.

Figure 5.1

Respondent Distribution by Age
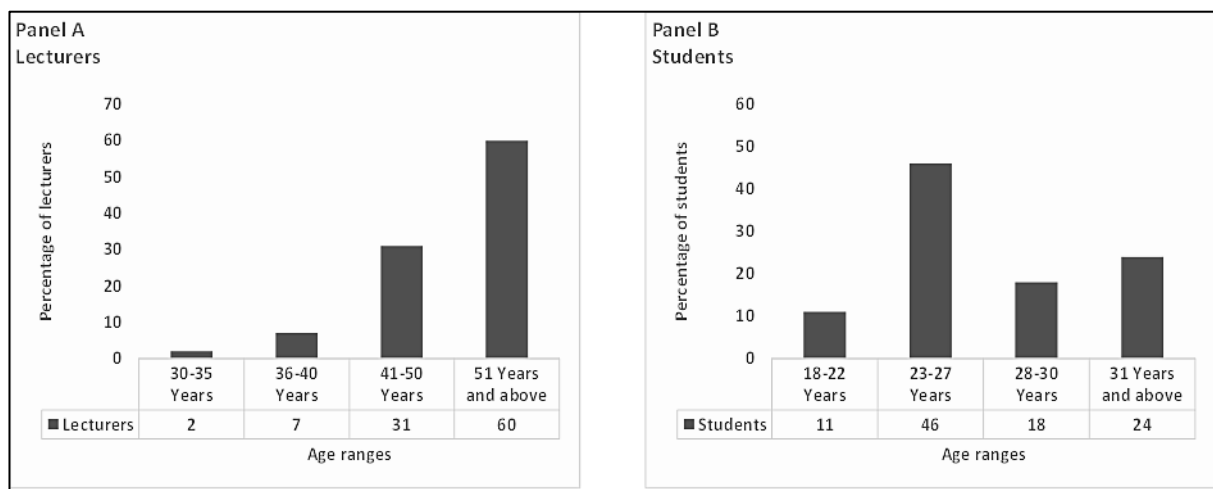
Data in Figure 5.1 (Panel A) show that about nine-tenth (80/88=91%) of the sampled lecturers are 41 years old and above. Of the 88 lecturers, about a third (27/88=31%) fall within the 41-50 years age bracket while about two-thirds (53/88=60%) fall within the 51 years and above category. This indicates that most of the lecturers in the colleges studied are in the 51 years and above range.

Figure 5.1 (Panel B) shows that slightly above three-fifths (330/510=65%) of the sampled students are clustered in the young adult band whose age range is 23-30 years. About half of the students (234/510=46%) fall within the 23-27 age bracket and a quarter (120/510=24%) is within the 31 years and above age range. The ages of respondents reflect that TCs are environments in which lecturers who are in their middle-ages and beyond whose age range is between 41 years and above interact with a student population that largely consists of young adults whose ages range between 23 and 30 years.

5.2. Respondents' experiences with sexual harassment

The prevalence of SH was measured through the administration of the SEQ. Respondents indicated on a Likert scale (*Never, Once or twice, Sometimes, Often,* and *Most of the times*)the frequency with which they had witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in sexually harassing behaviours listed on the SEQ. Confidence intervals [CI] were constructed at

95% confidence level to estimate the proportion of respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in harassing behaviours listed on the SEQ. Accordingly, the data were used to estimate the prevalence of SH. Furthermore, the proportion of respondents who had witnessed, heard about, or experienced specific forms of SH that include gender harassment (GH), unwanted sexual attention (USA), and sexual coercion (SC) were also determined. These harassment forms constitute the tripartite model of SH. In presenting the results, the point estimates of the proportion of respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH together with the confidence intervals are cited.

5.2.1. Prevalence of sexual harassment

Table 5.3 presents data obtained from respondents through the administration of the SEQ. The last item on the SEQ directly required respondents to indicate the frequency with which they had witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "sexually harassing students". The last item is, therefore, a composite item that incorporates all the other SEQ items into a single item.

Table 5.3

Proportion of Respondents Reporting That Lecturers Sexually Harass Students

Item	Point estimate	95% confidence limits	
		Lower limit	Upper limit
25/23...sexually harassing students at college	0.40	0.36	0.44

Item 25 (student questionnaire) and item 23 (lecturer questionnaire) of the SEQ required respondents to indicate whether they had ever witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "sexually harassing students" at college. Data presented in Table 5.3 indicate that 40% (239/598, 95% CI: 36, 44) of the respondents reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students at college. That 40 in every 100 respondents indicate having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "sexually harassing students" is a cause for institutional concern.

5.2.2. Prevalence of gender harassment

Survey results for the prevalence of GH are presented in Table 5.4. GH refers to unwelcome

behaviours such "as addressing women in crude or objectifying terms, posting pornographic images in the office, and by making demeaning or derogatory statements about women, such as telling anti-female jokes" (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2018, p. 24).

Table 5.4

Proportion of Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Gender Harassment

		95% confidence limits	
Item	Point estimate	Lower limit	Upper limit
1...treating students differently because of their gender	0.54	0.50	0.58
2...displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials	0.26	0.22	0.30
3...making offensive sexist remarks	0.35	0.31	0.39
4...putting students down or treating them as inferior because of their gender	0.43	0.39	0.47
5...repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students	0.44	0.40	0.48
8...making crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly or privately to students	0.37	0.33	0.41
9...making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities	0.46	0.42	0.50
Average	**0.41**	**0.37**	**0.45**

Data presented in Table 5.4 show that, when averaged across the behaviours that constituted GH in this study, the proportion of students and lecturers who reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH is about 41%. The highest proportion of respondents (54%, p=324/598, 95% CI: 50, 58) indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender" while the least proportion of respondents (26%, p=155/598, 95% CI: 22, 30) reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials". Other reported prevalent behaviours included lecturers "making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities" (46%) and lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students" (44%).

5.2.3. Prevalence of unwanted sexual attention

Table 5.5 presents survey results on the prevalence of USA denoting unwelcome behaviours that include "exposing one's genitals, stroking, and kissing someone, and pressuring a person for dates even if no quid pro quo is involved" (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2018, p. 24).

Table 5.5

Proportion of Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Unwanted Sexual Attention

Item	Point estimate	95% confidence limits Lower limit	Upper limit
6...whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner	0.29	0.26	0.33
7...making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters	0.34	0.30	0.38
10...making gestures or using body language of a sexual nature	0.35	0.31	0.39
11...staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable	0.49	0.45	0.53
12...exposing themselves physically in a way that embarrassed students or made them feel uncomfortable	0.40	0.36	0.44
13...displaying, using, or distributing sexually suggestive materials	0.23	0.20	0.27
14...making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students	0.41	0.37	0.45
16...touching students in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable	0.30	0.26	0.34
Average	0.37	0.33	0.41

The proportion of respondents who stated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA, when averaged across all the behaviours classified as USA in this study, is about 37%. About half (49%, p=294/598, 95% CI: 45, 53) of respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable" while about a third (29%, p=173/598, 95% CI: 26, 33) of the lecturer and student respondents reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner". About four-tenth (40%, p=239/598, 95% CI: 36, 44) of the respondents reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "exposing themselves physically in a way that embarrassed students or made them feel uncomfortable". Also, about four-tenth (41%, p=245/598, 95% CI: 37, 45)

of respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students".

5.2.4. Prevalence of sexual coercion

Table 5.6 presents survey results on the prevalence of SC which "entails sexual advances, and makes the conditions of employment (or education, for students) contingent upon sexual cooperation" (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2018, p. 25).

Table 5.6

Proportion of Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Sexual Coercion

Item	Point estimate	95% confidence limits	
		Lower limit	Upper limit
18...making attempts to have sex with a student against the student's will that resulted in the student pleading, crying, or physically struggling	0.23	0.20	0.27
19...having sex with a student without the student's consent or against the student's will	0.16	0.13	0.19
20...making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour	0.43	0.39	0.47
21...making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative	0.38	0.34	0.42
22...treating students badly for refusing to have sex	0.37	0.33	0.41
23...implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative	0.45	0.41	0.49
24...making a student afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually	0.43	0.39	0.47
Average	0.35	0.31	0.39

Seven harassing behaviours from the list of behaviours on the SEQ constitute SC. Data on these behaviours are presented in Table5.6. The proportion estimates for the seven harassing behaviours were added and then averaged to produce a point estimate for lecturer and student respondents' experiences with SC. Accordingly, 35% of respondents reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC. About four-fifth (45%, p=271/598, 95% CI: 41, 49) of the respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative". Other behaviours that can be considered prevalent include lecturers "making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour" (43%, p=254/598, 95% CI: 39, 47). Only

slightly below a fifth (16.2%, p=97/598, 95% CI: 13, 19) of respondents stated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "having sex with a student without the student's consent or against the student's will".

5.2.5. Conclusion on the prevalence of sexual harassment

The data presented indicate that SSH is prevalent in the colleges studied with about 40% (p=239/598, 95% CI: 36, 44) of respondents indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "sexually harassing students". Additionally, of the tripartite model of SH, GH is the most prevalent. 41% (p=245/598) of study respondents reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in behaviours constituting GH in this study. The most prevalent form of GH reported was "treating students differently because of their gender". 54% (p=324/598, 95% CI: 50, 58) of the respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in this behaviour. The least witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH behaviour was lecturers "displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials". 26% (p=155/598, 95% CI: 22, 30) of the study respondents reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced this type of behaviour from lecturers.

After GH, the next most witnessed, heard about, or experienced form of SH was USA. 37% (p=221/598) of the study respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA. Of behaviours that constitute USA, the most witnessed, heard about, or experienced harassing behaviour was lecturers "staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable". 49% (p=294/598, 95% CI: 45, 53) of the study respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in this type of behaviour. The least witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviour under USA was "whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner". 29% (p=173/598, CI: 95% CI: 26, 33) of the respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in this behaviour.

SC was the least witnessed, heard about, or experienced type of SH. 35% (p=209/598, 95% CI: 31, 39) of the respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC. Of the behaviours categorised as SC in this study, the most witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviour was "implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative". 45% (p=271/598, 95% CI: 41, 49) of study respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced this behavioural type. The least witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviour under SC was "having sex with a student without the student's consent or against the student's will". 16% (p=96/598, 95% CI: 13, 19) of respondents reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in this type of behaviour. The data presented on the prevalence of SH indicate that prevalence rates decrease with the severity of harassing behaviours. That is: the more severe the harassing behaviours, the less the prevalence; and the less severe the harassing behaviours, the greater the prevalence. Accordingly, the data show that GH is the most prevalent of the three categories of SH followed by USA, and then by SC. Students in the colleges surveyed are thus more likely to experience GH than any other forms SH.

5.3. Association between having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual harassment and respondents' characteristics.

Having measured the proportions of respondents who reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH, further analyses were conducted to investigate association between having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexually harassing behaviours with respondents' gender and status. Accordingly, chi-square tests of association were conducted with the significance level (α) set at 5%. In presenting the results, the chi-square statistic and the associated p-value are cited. Significant p-values are marked with an asterisk (*).

5.3.1. Association between respondents' gender and respondents having witnessed, heard about, or experienced gender harassment

Chi-square test results of association between respondents' gender and the reporting of having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH are presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7

χ² Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Gender and Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Gender Harassment

Item	χ^2	p-value
1...treating students differently because of their gender	1.566	0.2108
2...displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials	0.95344	0.3288
3...making offensive sexist remarks	2.1851	0.1393
4...putting students down or treating them as inferior because of their gender	0.30162	0.5829
5...repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students	7.765	*0.005327
8...making crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly or privately to students	0.43364	0.5102
9...making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities	2.7626	0.09649

Note. *p < .05

The chi-statistic for item 5 of the questionnaire presented in Table 5.7 shows evidence of association between respondents' gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students" (χ^2=7.765, df=1, p-value=005327).

Figure 5.2

Association Between Respondents' Gender and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Gender Harassment
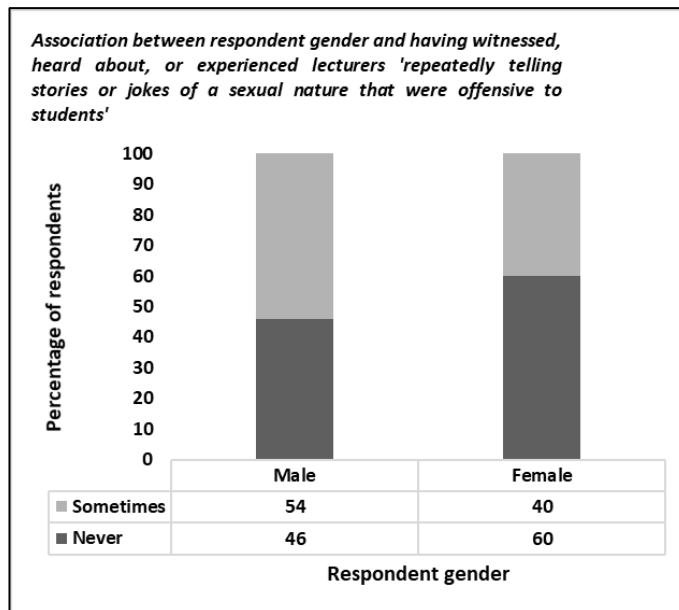
Accordingly, as shown in Figure 5.2, male respondents (54%) are more likely than female respondents (40%) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students".

5.3.2. Association between respondents' gender and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced unwanted sexual attention

Table 5.8 presents data on association between respondents' gender and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA.

Table 5.8

χ²Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Gender and Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Unwanted Sexual Attention

Item	χ²	p-value
6...whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner	3,2016	0.06513
7...making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters	0.40586	0.5241
10...making gestures or using body language of a sexual nature	0.35604	0.5507
11...staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable	0,0010505	0.8741
12...exposing themselves physically in a way that embarrassed students or made them feel uncomfortable	0.031021	0.8602
13...displaying, using, or distributing sexually suggestive materials	0.57988	0.4464
14...making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students	3.2742	0.07038
16...touching students in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable	0.23076	0.631

Chi-square statistic results presented in Table 5.8 indicate that the p-values were not significant for association between respondents' gender and respondents having witnessed, heard about, or witnessed the 8 SEQ behaviours categorised as USA in this study. Accordingly, there is no evidence of association between respondent gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in any of the behaviours that constitute USA listed in Table 5.8. Thus, reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in behaviours that constitute USA is independent of respondent gender. As such, respondents' gender has no influence on respondents' reporting of having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA irrespective of their gender.

5.3.3. Association between respondents' gender and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual coercion

Results for the chi-square test of association between respondents' gender and respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC are presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9

χ² Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Gender and Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Sexual Coercion

Item	χ^2	p-value
18...making attempts to have sex with a student against the student's will that resulted in the student pleading, crying, or physically struggling	0.43095	0.5115
19...having sex with a student without the student's consent or against the student's will	0.8112	0.3678
20...making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour	0.0067976	0.9343
21...making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative	1.0583	0.3036
22...treating students badly for refusing to have sex	1.005	0.3161
23...implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative	0.10645	0.7442
24...making a student afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually	0.042597	0.8365

Chi-square test results presented in Table 5.9 indicate that the p-values were not significant for association between respondents' gender and respondents having witnessed, heard about, or witnessed the 7 SEQ behaviours that constituted SC in this study. Accordingly, reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC is independent of respondent gender. As such, respondents' gender has no influence on respondents' reporting of having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC irrespective of their gender.

5.3.4. Association between respondents' gender and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students

Table 5.10 displays chi-square results of association between respondents' gender and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students.

Table 5.10

χ² Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Gender and Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Lecturers Sexually Harassing Students

Item	χ^2	p-value
25/23...sexually harassing students at college	1.7286	0.1886

As shown in Table 5.10, Chi-square test results were not significant for association between respondents' gender and respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced

lecturers sexually harassing students. Therefore, perception that lecturers sexually harass students was independent of respondents' gender. This implies that respondents are likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students irrespective of their gender.

5.3.5. Conclusion on association between respondent gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in sexually harassing behaviours.

Chi-square test results (χ^2=1.7286, p-value= 0.1886) presented in Table 5.10 indicate no association between respondents' gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. Accordingly, having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students is independent of respondents' gender. Test results also indicated no association between respondents' gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced both USA and SC. Accordingly, having witnessed, heard about, or experienced both unwanted attention and SC is independent of respondent gender. Again, no association was established between respondent gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced all behaviours that constitute GH except for lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students" (χ^2=7.765, df=1, p-value=0.005327). Accordingly, more male (54%) than female respondents (40%) reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students". Thus, indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced all forms of SH is largely independent of respondent gender.

5.4. Association between respondents' status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual harassment.

In addition to measuring the association between respondents' gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexually harassing behaviours, chi-square tests were also performed to investigate association between respondents' status and having witnessed heard about, or experienced sexually harassing behaviours. The results of these tests are presented

next.

5.4.1. Association between respondents' status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced gender harassment

Table 5.11 presents test results of the association between respondent status and respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH.

Table 5.11

χ^2 Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Status and Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Gender Harassment

Item	χ^2	p-value
1...treating students differently because of their gender	30.49	*3.356e-08
2...displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials	13.994	*0.0001834
3...making offensive sexist remarks	56.881	*4.63e-14
4...putting students down or treating them as inferior because of their gender	4.8332	*0.02792
5...repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students	15.349	*8.938e-05
8...making crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly or privately to students	14.637	*0.0001303
9...making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities	16.734	*4.301e-05

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square test results of association between respondents' status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH, presented in Table 5.11, were significant for all the 7 SEQ GH behaviours. The smallest value (χ^2=56.881, df=1, p-value=4.63e-14) was established for item 3 of the questionnaire (making offensive sexist remarks) while the highest (χ^2=4.8332, df=1, p-value=0.02792) was established for item 4 (putting students down or treating them as inferior because of their gender).

Figure 5.3

Association Between Respondents' Status and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Gender Harassment

Panel A
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'treating students differently because of their gender'

	Lecturers	Students
Never	18	51
Sometimes	82	49

Panel B
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials'

	Lecturers	Students
Never	57	77
Sometimes	43	23

Panel C
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making offensive sexist remarks'

	Lecturers	Students
Never	29	72
Sometimes	71	28

Panel D
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'putting students down or treating them as inferior because of their gender'

	Lecturers	Students
Never	46	59
Sometimes	54	41

Panel E
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'repeatedly telling stories or jokes of A sexual nature that were offensive to students'

	Lecturers	Students
Never	36	59
Sometimes	64	41

Panel F
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly or privately to students'

	Lecturers	Students
Never	44	66
Sometimes	56	34

Panel G
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities'

	Lecturers	Students
Never	44	66
Sometimes	56	34

Data presented in Figure 5.3 (Panel A) show that lecturers (82%) are more likely than students (49%) to indicate having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender". Again, as shown in Figure 5.3 (Panel C), lecturers (71%) are more likely than students (29%) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making offensive sexist remarks". The pattern of lectures being more likely than students to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours classified as GH is consistent across all behaviours that made up GH in this study. For instance, in Figure 5.3 (Panel B), more lecturers (43%) than students (23%) reported having experienced lecturers "displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive material" while in Figure 5.3 (Panel D) more lecturers than students reported having experienced lecturers "putting students down or treating them as inferior because of their gender". More lectures (64%) than students (41%) (Panel E) also reported having experienced lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students". Similarly, more lectures (56%) compared to students (34%) (Panel F) reported experiencing lecturers "making crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly or privately to students". Finally, more lecturers (56%) than students (34%) (Panel H) indicated having experienced lecturers "making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities".

5.4.2. Association between respondents' status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced unwanted sexual attention

The test results for association between respondents' status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA are presented in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12

χ^2 Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Status and Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Unwanted Sexual Attention

Item	χ^2	p-value
6…whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner	6.6752	*0.009776
7…making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters	46.308	*1.01e-11
10…making gestures or using body language of a sexual nature	9.9237	*0.001632
11…staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable	0.030213	0.862
12…exposing themselves physically in a way that embarrassed students or made them feel uncomfortable	0.016212	0.8987
13…displaying, using, or distributing sexually suggestive materials	18.835	*1.426e-05
14…making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students	13.265	*0.0002704
16…touching students in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable	1.7455	0.6310.1864

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square test results of association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours that constitute USA shown in Table 5.12 were significant for five of the eight items measured. The smallest value (χ^2=46.308, df=1, p-value=1.01e-11) was established for item 7 (making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters) while the highest (χ^2=6.6752, df=1, p-value=0.009776) was established for item 6 (whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner). No association was established for items 11, 12 and 16.

Figure 5.4

Association Between Respondents' Status and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Unwanted Sexual Attention

Panel A
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner'

Respondent status	Lecturers	Students
Never	59	73
Sometimes	41	27

Panel B
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters'

Respondent status	Lecturers	Students
Never	34	72
Sometimes	66	28

Panel C
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making gestures or using body language of a sexual nature'

Respondent status	Lecturers	Students
Never	50	68
Sometimes	50	32

Panel D
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'displaying, using, or distributing sexually suggestive materials'

Respondent status	Lecturers	Students
Never	58	80
Sometimes	42	20

Panel E
Association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students'

Respondent status	Lecturers	Students
Never	41	62
Sometimes	59	38

Data presented in Figure 5.4 (Panel A, B, C, D, and E) show that lecturers are more likely than students to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced the forms of USA measured.

For instance, in Fugure 5.4 (Panel A), lecturers (41%) are more likely than students (27%) to report witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing lecturers "whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner". Similarly, in Figure 5.4 (Panel B), lecturers (66%) are more likely than students (28%) to indicate having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters". The trend is consistent for the other three behaviours for which association was established.

5.4.3. Association between respondents' status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual coercion

Results of association between respondents' status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC are presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13

χ^2 Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Status and Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Sexual Coercion

Item	χ^2	p-value
18...making attempts to have sex with a student against the student's will that resulted in the student pleading, crying, or physically struggling	11.614	*0.0006546
19...having sex with a student without the student's consent or against the student's will	1.9748	0.1599
20...making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour	7.9717	*0.004751
21...making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative	20.57	*5.75e-06
22...treating students badly for refusing to have sex	15.562	*7.984e-05
23...implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative	4.5456	*0.033
24...making a student afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually	7.9007	*0.004942

Note. *p < .05

For the seven behaviours grouped as SC in Table 5.13, chi-square tests established association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC for all the behaviours except for Item 19. The lowest value of association (χ^2=257, df=1, p-value=5.75e-06) was established between respondent status and reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative". The highest though significant value (χ^2=4.5456, df=1, p-value=0.033) while the highest value was established for "treating students badly for refusing to have sex" (χ^2=15.562, df=1,

p-value=7.984e-05).

Figure 5.5

Association Between Respondents' Status and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Sexual Coercion
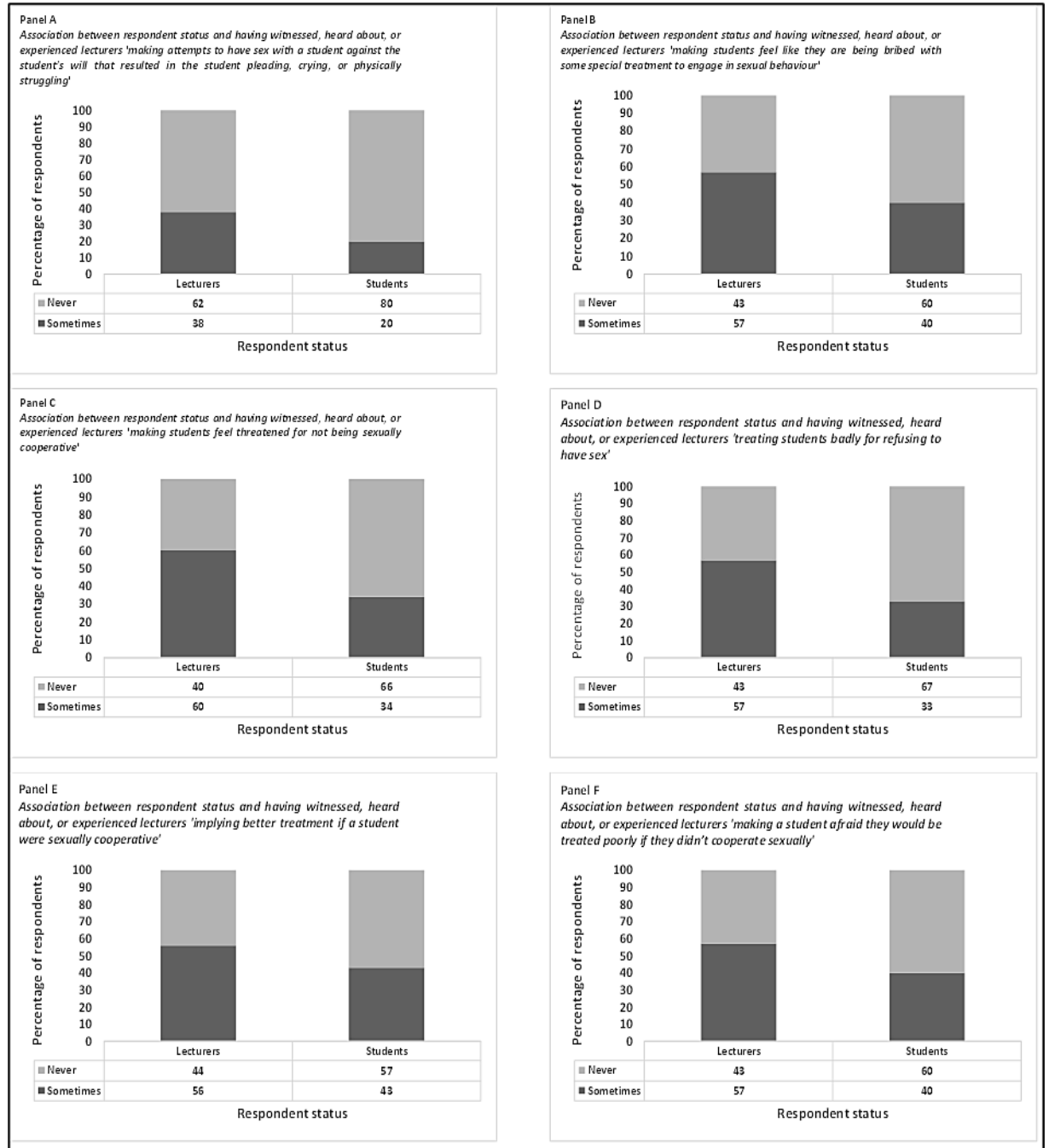
Data presented in Figure 5.5 (Panel A) show that lecturers (38%) are more likely than students (20%) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making attempts to have sex with a student against the student's will that resulted in the student pleading, crying,

or physically struggling". Again, Figure 5.5 (Panel D) shows that lecturers (57%) are more likely than students (33%) to indicate having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "treating students badly for   refusing to have sex". The trend of more lecturers than students reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours classified as SC is the same for the data displayed in Figure 5.5 (Panels C, D, E, and F). The data in these Panels indicate that lecturers were more likely than students to report having experienced sexually coercive behaviours.

5.4.4. Association between respondents' status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual harassment

Table 5.14 displays test results for association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH.

Table 5.14

χ^2 Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Status and Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Lecturers Sexually Harassing Students

Item	χ^2	p-value
25/23...sexually harassing students at college	25.831	*3.727e-07

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square test result (χ^2=25.831, df=1, p-value=3.727e-07) indicate association between respondent status and the reporting of having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students.

Figure 5.6

Association Between Respondents' Status and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Lecturers Sexually Harassing Students
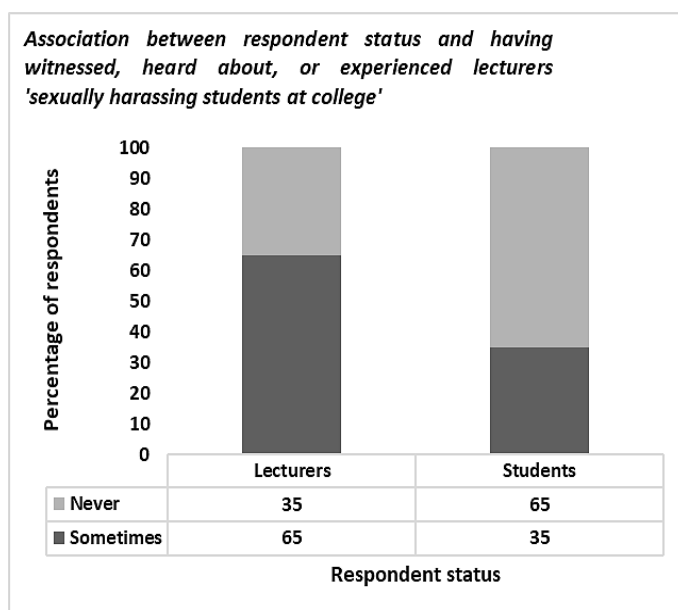
Figure 5.6 thus shows that lecturers (65%) are more likely than students (35%) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "sexually harassing students".

5.4.5. Conclusion on association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual harassment.

Chi-square test results indicate some association between respondents' status and respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students (χ^2=25.831, df=1, p-value=3.727e-07). Accordingly, lecturers (65%) are more likely than students (35%) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "sexually harassing students". Additionally, significant associations were established between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexually harassing behaviours across GH, USA, and SC. Association was established between respondent status and witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing all the behaviour items that constituted GH in this study. Between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA, test results were significant for all the items except for three. For association between respondent status

and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC, chi-square results were significant for all behavioural items except for one. Accordingly, witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing SH is associated with respondent status. Lecturers were, therefore, more likely than students to indicate having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in behaviours that constitute SSH.

5.5. Association between college site and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual harassment

Having tested the association between respondent characteristics and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in sexually harassing behaviours, further tests were conducted to ascertain the association between college and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexually harassing behaviours. The significance level was set at 5%. The test results are presented below.

5.5.1. Association between college site and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced gender harassment.

The test results for association between college site and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH are presented in Table 5.15

Table 5.15

χ²Test Results of Association Between College and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Gender Harassment

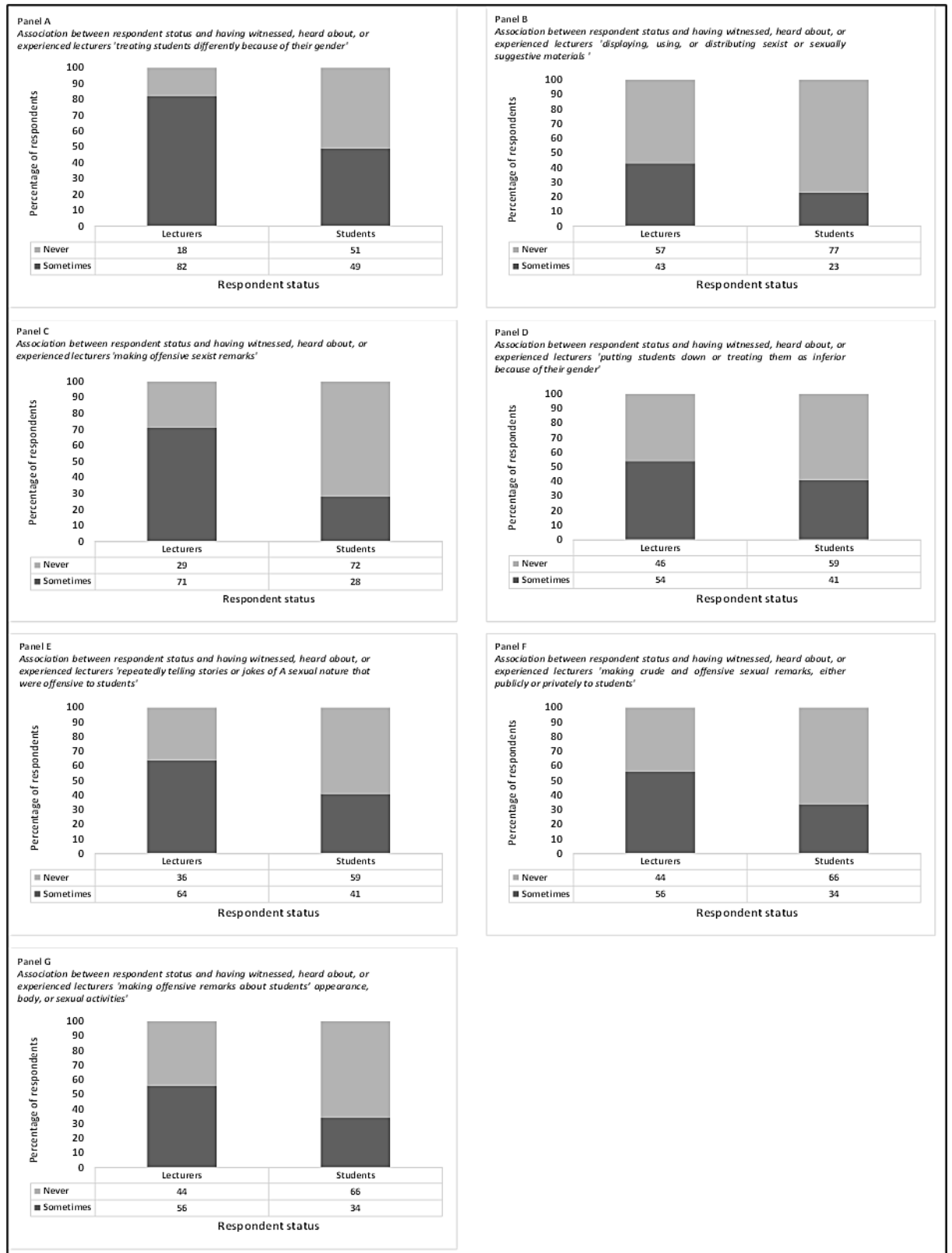| Item	χ^2	p-value
1...treating students differently because of their gender	52.976	*8.62e-11
2...displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials	47.551	*1.171e-09
3...making offensive sexist remarks	36.499	*2.285e-07
4...putting students down or treating them as inferior because of their gender	23.969	*8.102e-05
5...repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students	32.434	*1.56e-06
8...making crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly or privately to students	49.37	*4.889e-10
9...making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities	31.97	*1.94e-06

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square statistic results indicated association between college and prevalence for all the behaviours classified as GH. The least value (χ^2=52.976, df=4, p-value=8.62e-11) was

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established for association between college and respondents having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender". Second to this was association between college and respondents having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials" (χ^2=47.551, df=4, p-value=1.171e-09).

Figure 5.7

Association Between College and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Gender Harassment
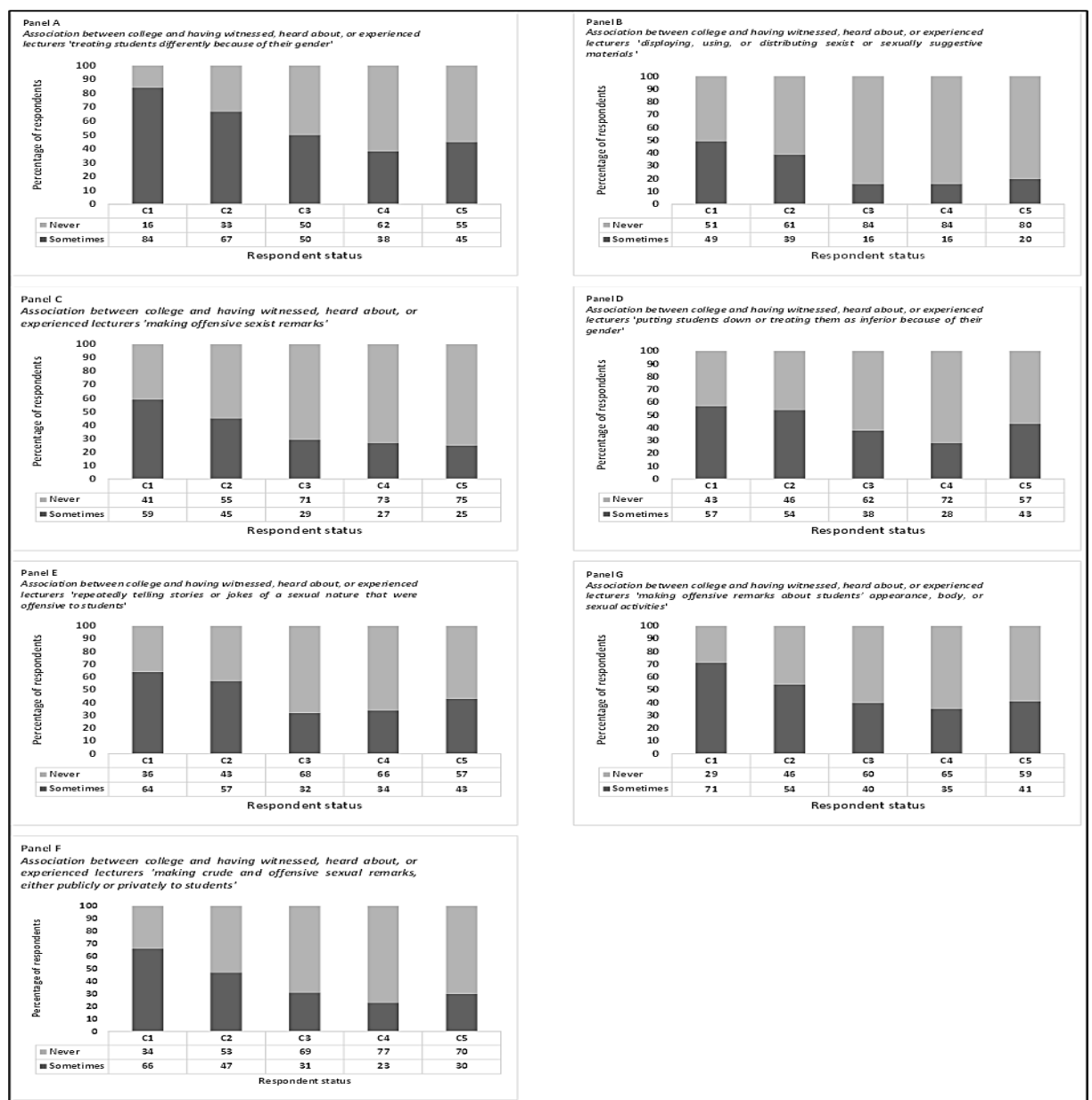
From Figure 5.7 (Panel A), it can be inferred that respondents in college 1 (84%) are more likely than respondents from any other college (college 2 [67%], college 3 [50%], college 4 [38%], college 5 [45%]) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender". In fact, respondents from college 1 were more likely than respondents from other colleges to report witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing behaviours that were classified as GH in this study. College 1 was followed by college 2 in terms of respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in GH. Accordingly, respondents in college 2 were the next most likely after respondents in college 1 to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced in sexually harassing behaviours classified as GH in this study. On the other end of the scale, respondents in college 4 were less likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours that constitute GH. For example, in Figure 5.7 (Panel H), 35% of respondents from college 4 indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities". 35% was the least recorded percentage of respondents across all the five colleges. This trend is valid for all the other GH behaviours except for respondents having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students". For this behavioural item, respondents in college 3 had the least percentage of respondents (32%) (Panel E) indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students".

5.5.2. Association between college site and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced unwanted sexual attention.

The test results for association between college site and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA are presented in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16

χ²Test Results of Association Between College and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Unwanted Sexual Attention

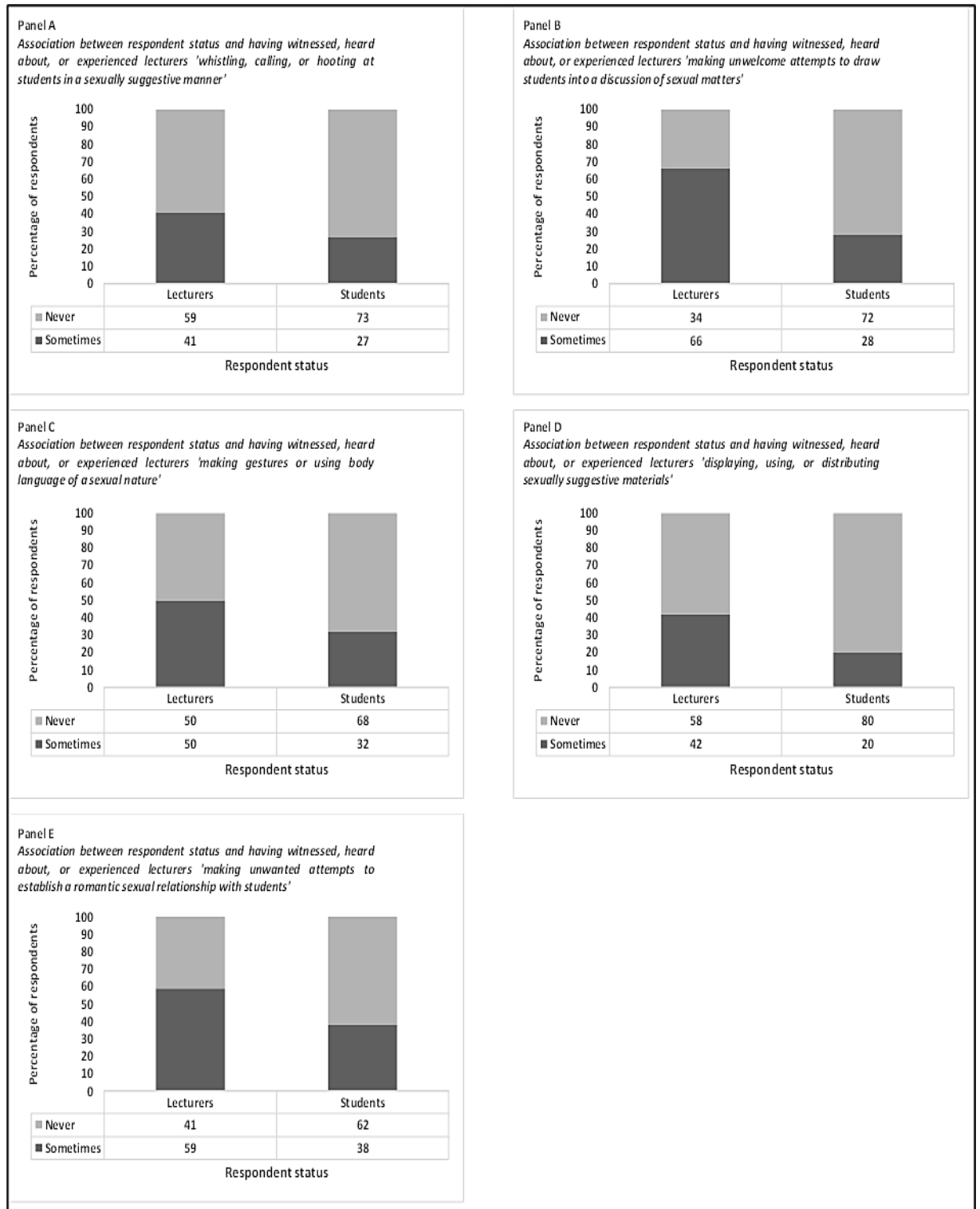| Item	χ²	p-value
6...whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner	19.103	*0.0007502
7...making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters	20.878	*0.0003349
10...making gestures or using body language of a sexual nature	18.272	*0.001092
11...staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable	39.705	*4.982e-08
12...exposing themselves physically in a way that embarrassed students or made them feel uncomfortable	23.854	*8.544e-05
13...displaying, using, or distributing sexually suggestive materials	33.569	*9.133e-07
14...making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students	30.918	*3.181e-06
16...touching students in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable	9.6781	*0.04621

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square test results presented in Table5.16 indicate association between college and the prevalence of all the behaviours classified as USA. These harassing behaviours include lecturers "whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner" ($χ^2$=19.103, df=4, p=0.0007502), "making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters" ($χ^2$=20.878, df=4, p=0.0003349), "making gestures or using body language of a sexual nature" ($χ^2$=18.272, df=4, p=0.001092), and "touching students in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable" ($χ^2$=9.6781, df=4, p=0.04621).

Figure 5.8

Association Between College and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Unwanted Sexual Attention
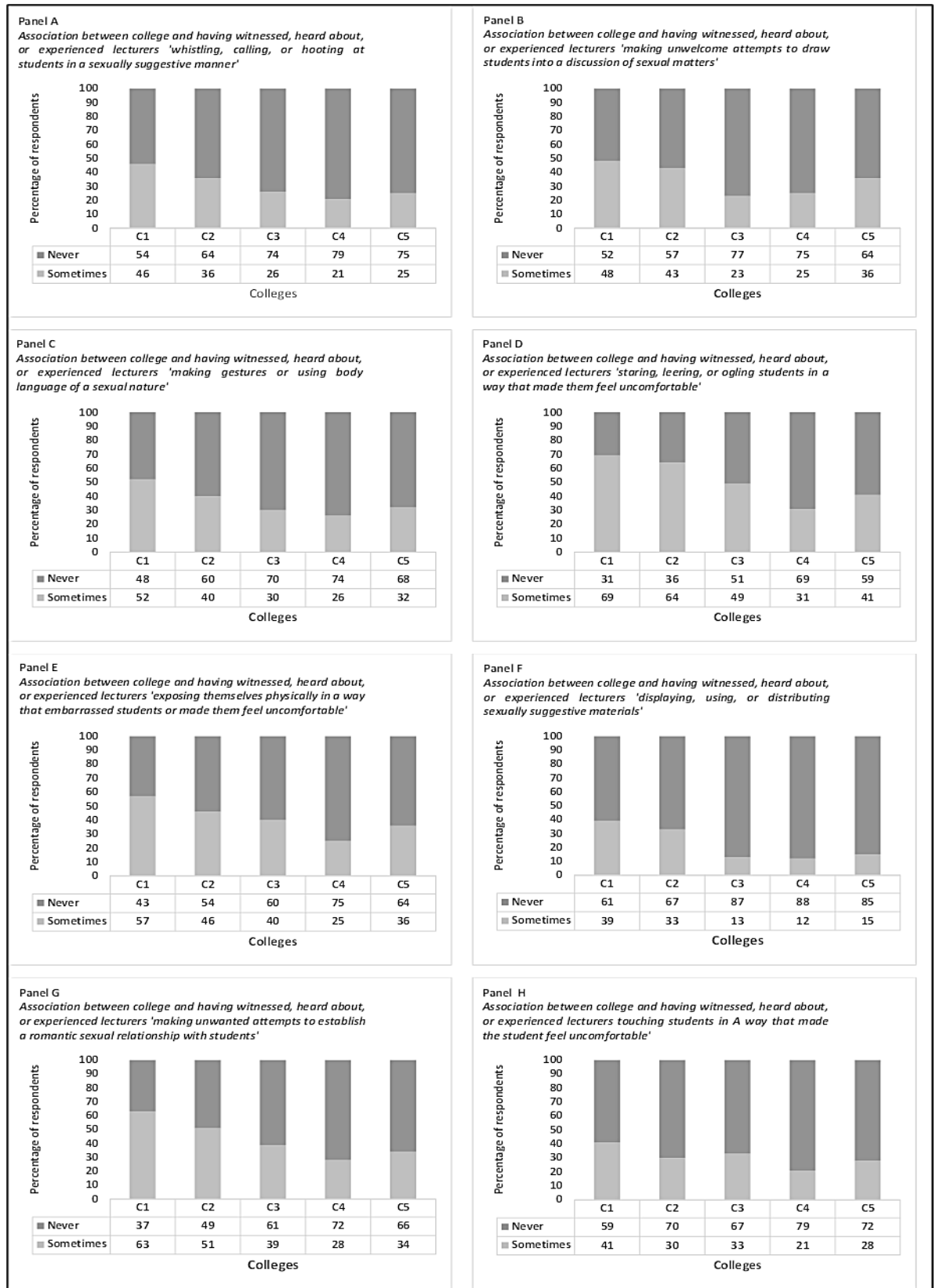
Results presented in Figure 5.8 (Panel A) show that college 1 had more respondents (46%) than other colleges (college 2 [36%], college 3 [26%], college 4 [21%], college 5 [25%]) who indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner". College 4 had the least respondents (21%) who indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner". Again, Figure 5.8 (Panel B) shows that more respondents (63%) in college 1 reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced "lecturers making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters" while college 4 had the least percentage of respondents (28%) indicating the same. In fact, more respondents from college 1 than respondents from other colleges reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced all the behaviours that constituted USA in this study while college 4 had the least percentage of respondents indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced all the behaviours that constitute USA except for "making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students" which was least reported in college 3 (23%) against 25% in college 4 (Panel G). Respondents in college 2 were the next most likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA behaviours. For example, 51% of respondents in college 2 reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students" (Panel G). This was less than the percentage of respondents in college 1 (63%) but more than respondents in college 3 (39%), college 4 (28%), and college 5 (34%) (Panel G). This trend of college 2 being second to college 1 is consistent across all the behaviours classified as USA except for respondents having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "touching students in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable" (college 1, college 2 [30%], college 3 [33%]. College 4 [21%], and college 5 [28%]) (Panel H).

5.5.3. Association between college site and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual coercion

Table 5.17 presents test results for association between college site and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC.

Table 5.17

χ²Test Results of Association Between College and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Sexual Coercion

Item	χ^2	p-value
18...making attempts to have sex with a student against the student's will that resulted in the student pleading, crying, or physically struggling	9.0887	0.05892
19...having sex with a student without the student's consent or against the student's will	8.1032	0.08787
20...making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour	30.2	*4.456e-06
21...making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative	32.78	*1.325e-06
22...treating students badly for refusing to have sex	18. 51	*0.0009807
23...implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative	30.904	*3.202e-06
24...making a student afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually	31.763	*2.138e-06

Note. *p < .05

For all the behaviours categorised as SC presented in Table5.17, the chi-square statistic was significant for five of the behavioural items. These behaviours include lecturers "making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatm5ent to engage in sexual behaviour" (χ^2=32, df=4, p=4.456e-06), "making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative" (χ^2=32.78, df=4, p=1.325e-06), and "implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative" (χ^2=3904, df=4, p=3.202e-06). Accordingly, there is evidence of an association between college and respondents indicating witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing SC.

Figure 5.9

Association Between College and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Sexual Coercion

Panel A
Association between college and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour'

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
Never	36	49	59	73	63
Sometimes	64	51	41	27	37

panel B
Association between college and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative'

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
Never	38	54	66	74	68
Sometimes	62	46	34	26	32

Panel C
Association between college and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers treating students badly for refusing to have sex'

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
Never	46	58	63	72	71
Sometimes	54	42	37	28	29

Panel D
Association between college and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative'

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
Never	36	45	52	72	62
Sometimes	64	55	48	28	38

Panel E
Association between college and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'making a student afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually'

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
Never	35	50	57	72	65
Sometimes	65	50	43	28	35

Figure 5.9 (Panel A) shows that more respondents (64%) in college 1 than any other college (college 2 [51%], college 3 [41%], college 4 [27%], college 5 [37%]) reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour". Similarly, in Figure 5.9 (Panel C), more respondents (54%) in college 1 indicated having witnessed, heard about, or

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experienced lecturers "treating students badly for refusing to have sex" than in all the other colleges. College 2 is the other college after college 1 in which many respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC. For instance, 50% (Panel E) of respondents in college 2 indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making a student afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually". This pattern is consistent for all the sexually coercive behaviours for which association was significant. Inversely, college 4 has the least percentage of respondents indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours classified as SC. For instance, in Figure 5. 9 (Panel E), 28% of the respondents in college 4 indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making a student afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually". The trend of college 1 having the highest and college 4 having the least percentage of respondents indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced the behaviours that constitute SC is consistent across all the behaviours that constitute SC. Accordingly, college 1 is more likely to have more respondents and college 4 to have the least percentage of respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC from lecturers than respondents from any other college.

5.5.4. Association between college site and respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual harassment

In Table 5.18, test results for association between college site and respondents' reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH are presented.

Table 5.18

χ^2 Test Results of Association Between College and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Lecturers Sexually Harassing Students

Item	χ^2	p-value
25/23...sexually harassing students at college	46.048	*2.407e-09

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square statistic (χ^2=46.048, df=4, p-value=2.407e-09) provides evidence of association

between college and perception that lecturers sexually harass students.

Figure 5.10

Association Between College and Respondents Reporting Having Witnessed, Heard About, or Experienced Lecturers Sexually Harassing Students

Association between college and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers 'sexually harassing students at college'

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
Never	31	52	63	76	68
Sometimes	69	48	37	24	32
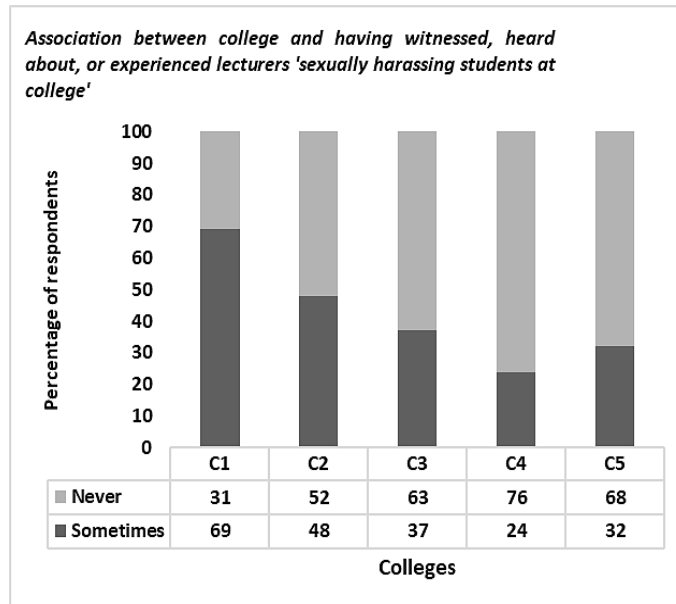
Figure 5.10 shows that more respondents (69%) in college 1 than in all the other colleges reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. After college 1, college 2 had the next highest percentage of respondents (48%) who reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. The least percentage of respondents (24%) indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students were established in college 4.

5.5.5. Conclusion on association between college and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual harassment

Results from the chi-square tests conducted provide evidence of association between college and respondents' having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH. Evidence indicates that respondents from college 1 are more likely than respondents from any other college to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexually harassing behaviours across all forms of SH. For example, Figure 5.43 shows that college 1 has more respondents (69%) than the

other colleges indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. This is also true for association between college and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH, USA, and SC. On the other end, college 4 had the least percentage of respondents than the other colleges who reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH in its varied forms. For example, 24% of respondents in college 4 indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "sexually harassing students". These results indicate that SH is reported more in college 1 than in any other college.

5.6. Respondents' perception of institutional tolerance for sexual harassment

Institutional tolerance for SH was measured using the Organisational Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (OTSHI). The OTSHI presents six vignettes and for each vignette, hypothetical questions are posed regarding the risk of filing a complaint, the likelihood of the reporting student being taken seriously, and the likelihood of the college appropriately sanctioning the lecturer offender. A tolerant climate is thus characterised by more risk for reporting harassment, less likelihood of the reporting student being taken seriously, and less likelihood of the reported offender being appropriately sanctioned. In determining the proportion of respondents perceiving it as risky to file a complaint, less likely for the college to treat the reporting student seriously, and less likely for college to appropriately sanction an offending lecturer, 95% confidence intervals were constructed. For investigating association between the relevant variables, chi-square tests were conducted. In both presenting and reporting on these data, the proportion of respondents perceiving it as risky to file a complaint, as less likely for college to treat a reporting student seriously, and as less likely for college to appropriately sanction an offending lecturer is given. This proportion is cited together with the confidence intervals. In like manner, presentation of results for tests of association includes the citing of the chi-statistic and the associated p-values.

5.6.1. Students and lecturers' perception of risk of filing a formal sexual harassment complaint with college

Risk perception is an important indicator of institutional tolerance for SH. Data on proportion of respondents perceiving it as risky to file an SH complaint with college, and on test results of association are presented below.

5.6.1.1. Proportion of students and lecturers perceiving it risky to file a complaint with college.

Table5.19 presents data on the proportion of respondents perceiving it as risky to file a harassment complaint with college.

Table 5.19

Proportion of Respondents Perceiving It Risky to File a Harassment Complaint with College

Item	Point estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
		Lower limit	Upper limit
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	0.71	0.67	0.75
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	0.67	0.63	0.71
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	0.72	0.68	0.76
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable	0.70	0.66	0.74
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	0.70	0.66	0.74
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	0.69	0.65	0.73
Average	0.70	0.66	0.74

As shown in Table 5.19, 70% of respondents, averaged across the six scenarios of the OTSHI), perceived it as risky to file an SH complaint with college. The proportion of respondents who perceived it as risky to file a harassment complaint with college was high for each of the scenarios of the OTSHI. The highest proportion of respondents 72% (p=431/598, 95% CI: 68, 78) perceived it as risky to file a complaint with college against a lecturer who attempts to establish a romantic and sexual relationship with a student despite the student discouraging it. The point estimates were above 70% for most of the scenarios. The lowest recorded percentage

was 67% (p=401/598, 95% CI: 63, 71). This indicates that there is a high perception that it is risky to file an SH complaint with college.

5.6.1.2. Association between respondents' gender and perception of risk in filing a formal complaint with college

Test results of association between respondents' gender and respondents' perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint are shown in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20

χ²Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Gender and Perception of Reporting Risk

Item	χ²	p-value
1… lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	2.2874	0.1304
2… lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	0.57658	0.4477
3… lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	2.1051	0.1468
4… lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	3.0934	0.07861
5… lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	1.6205	0.203
6… lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	0.54461	0.4605

Chi-square test results presented in Table 5.20 indicate that the p-values are not significant for association between respondent gender and the perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint. Accordingly, perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint is independent of respondents' gender.

5.6.1.3. Association between respondents' status and perception of risk in filing a formal complaint with college

Test results of association between respondents' status and respondents' perception of risk in filling a harassment complaint are presented in Table5.21.

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Table 21

χ²Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Status and Perception of Reporting Risk

Item	χ^2	p-value
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	8.2257	*0.00413
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	1.6287	0.2019
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	5.0999	*0.02393
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	3,8993	*0.04831
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	3.0627	0.08011
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	3.3236	0.06829

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square test results in Table 5.21 indicate association between respondents' status and perception of risk for filing a harassment complaint for scenarios 1 (χ^2=8.2257, df=1, p-value=0.00413), 3 (χ^2=5.0999, df=1, p-value=0.02393), and 4 (χ^2=3.8993, df=1, p-value=0.04831).

Figure 5.11

Association Between Respondents' Status and Respondent Perception of Sexual Harassment Reporting Risk
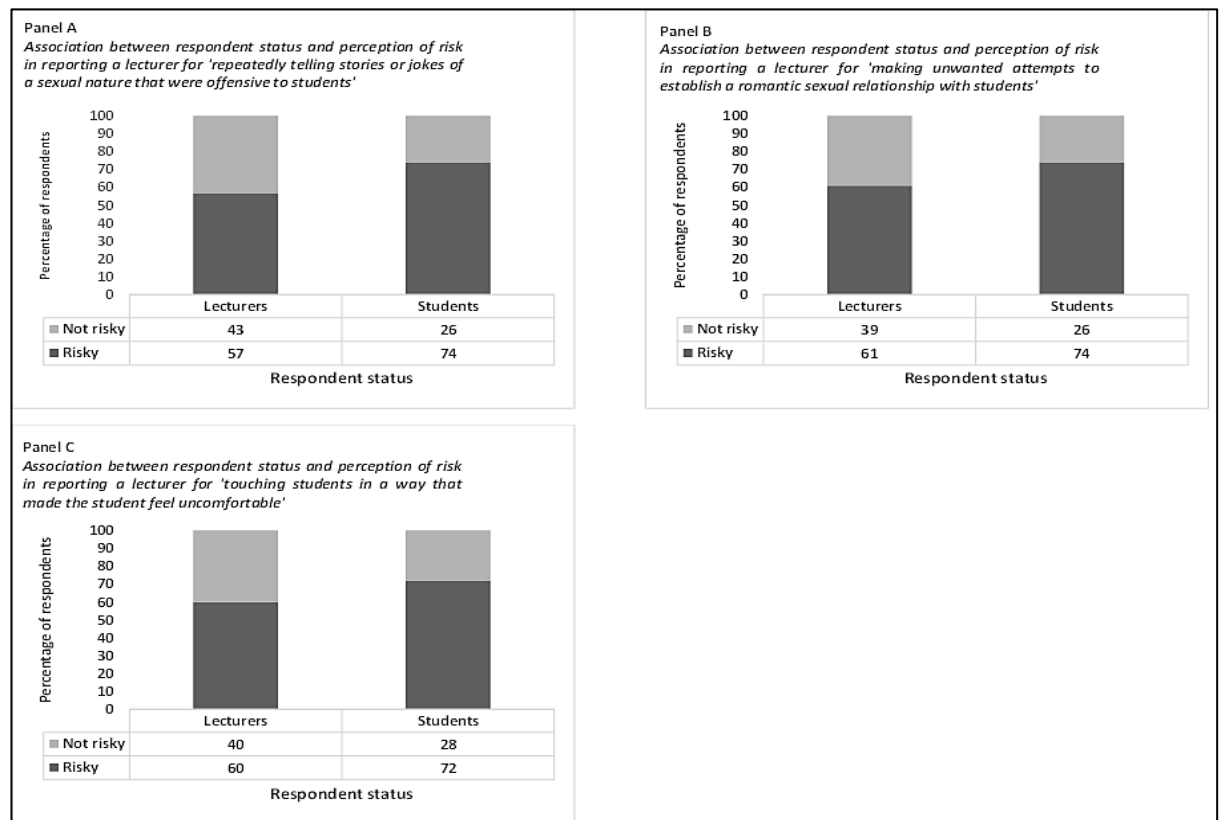
Figure 5.11 (Panel A) shows that more students (74%) than lecturers (57%) are likely to perceive it as risky to file an SH complaint with college against a lecturer who repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students. Similarly, in Figure 5.11 (Panel C), more students (72%) than lecturers (60%) are likely to perceive it as risky to file a complaint against a lecturer who would have "touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable". This trend of more students than lecturers perceiving it as risky to file an SH complaint is consistent across all the three scenarios for which test results of association were significant.

5.6.1.4. Association between college and perception of risk in filing a formal harassment complaint with college

Test results for association between college site and respondents' perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint are presented in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22

χ^2 Test Results of Association Between College and Respondent Perception of Reporting Risk

Item	χ^2	p-value
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	12.484	*0.01409
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	6.6721	0.1543
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	4.5212	0.34
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	1.9828	0.7389
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	13.776	*0.008046
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	13.038	*0.01109

Note. *p < .05

Significant p-values indicating association between college site and respondents' perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint were established for items 1 (χ^2=12.484, df=1, p-value=0.01409), 5 (χ^2=13.776, df=1, p-value=0.008046), and 6 (χ^2=13.038, df=1, p-value=0.01109).

Figure 5.12

Association Between College and Respondents' Perception of Sexual Harassment Reporting Risk

Panel A
Association between college and perception of risk in reporting a lecturer for 'repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students'

Percentage of respondents

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
◻ Not risky	16	24	33	28	33
◼ Risky	84	76	67	72	67

Colleges

Panel B
Association between college and and perception of risk in reporting a lecturer for 'making a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative'

Percentage of respondents

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
◻ Not risky	13	30	34	36	33
◼ Risky	87	70	66	64	67

Colleges

Panel C
Association between college and and perception of risk in reporting a lecturer for 'treating a student badly for refusing to have sex'

Percentage of respondents

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
◻ Not risky	14	37	33	34	32
◼ Risky	86	63	67	66	68

Colleges

Figure 5.12 (Panel B) shows that college 1 has more respondents (87%) who are likely to perceive it as risky to file a complaint against a lecturer who "made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative" than the other colleges. For all the three scenarios for which the p-value was significant (see Table5.22), college 1 respondents were more likely to perceive it as risky to file a harassment complaint with college against an offending lecturer. Respondents in college 2 were the next most likely to indicate that it was risky to file a harassment complaint with college. For example, Figure 5.11 (Panel A and B) show that 76% and 70% of respondents in college 2 perceived it as risky to file an SH complaint with college. There is no discernible pattern on colleges with respondents who were less likely to perceive it as risky to file a harassment complaint with college. However, college 3, 4, and 5

alternated between scenarios in respondents perceiving it as less likely to perceive it as risky to file a harassment complaint with college.

5.6.1.5. Conclusion on risk of filing a formal sexual harassment complaint with college

Survey data indicate that about 70% of respondents perceived it as risky to file an SH complaint with college against an offending lecturer. Chi-square test results of association between respondents' gender and perception of risk in filing a formal harassment complaint with college indicate no association between gender and perception of risk. However, test results indicate association between respondents' status and perception of risk in filing a formal complaint with college. For example, more students (74%) than lecturers (57%) are likely to perceive it risky to file a formal complaint with college against a lecturer who "repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students". The pattern is true for the other two scenarios for which association was established. Accordingly, students are more likely than lecturers to perceive filing a formal complaint with college as risky. Results for association between college and perception of risk suggest that respondents from college 1 are more likely than respondents from the other colleges to perceive filing a complaint report as risky. For example, in all the three scenarios for which association was established, above 80% of respondents in college 1 reported it to be risky to file a complaint for the three scenarios. No other college recorded proportions that were in the 80% range.

5.7. Students and lecturers' perception on the likelihood of college taking a student filing a sexual harassment complaint seriously

The other measure of institutional tolerance for SH is the likelihood of an institution to take a student filing a harassment complaint seriously. Accordingly, 95% confidence intervals were constructed to estimate the proportion of respondents who perceive it as likely that the college would take a student filing a harassment complaint seriously. In reporting data on proportion, the confidence intervals are cited. Additionally, chi-square tests were performed to investigate association between respondent characteristics and perception of the likelihood of the student

filing a harassment report being taken seriously by the college. Further to this, chi-square tests were also calculated to determine association between college and perception of likelihood of the college taking a student complainant seriously. Presentation of test results involves the citing of relevant chi-statistics and their associated p-values.

5.7.1. Proportion of respondents perceiving that a student complainant would be taken seriously

Results for the proportion of respondents perceiving that a harassment complainant would be taken seriously are shown in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23

Proportion of Respondents Perceiving That College Would Take a Complainant Seriously

Item	Point estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
		Lower limit	Upper limit
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	0.80	0.77	0.84
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	0.88	0.85	0.91
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	0.88	0.85	0.91
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	0.87	0.83	0.89
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	0.86	0.83	0.90
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	0.89	0.86	0.91
Average	0.86	0.83	0.89

Table 5.23 shows that the proportion of respondents, averaged across the six scenarios of the OTSHI, who perceive that a SSH complainant would be taken seriously by college is 86%. The highest percentage of respondents (89%, p=532/598, 95% CI: 86, 91) indicated that the college would take seriously a complaint about a lecturer who would have treated a student badly for refusing to have sex. The least percentage of respondents (86%, p=514/598, 95% CI: 83, 90) indicated that a complaint about a lecturer who would have made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative would be taken seriously.

5.7.2. Association between respondent gender and perception of student complainant being taken seriously

Table 5.24 presents test results for association between respondent gender and perception of student complainant being taken seriously.

Table 5.24

χ² Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Gender and Perception of College Taking Complainant Seriously

Item	χ^2	p-value
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	5.5223	*0.01878
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	2.8507	0.09133
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	1.7662	0.1839
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	3.9594	*0.04661
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	0.1745	0.6761
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	1.636	0.2009

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square test results were significant for item 1 (χ^2=5.5223, df=1, p-value=0.01878) and 4 (χ^2=3.9594, df=1, p-value=0.04661). For the other items, no significant associations were established.

Figure 5.13

Association Between Respondents' Gender and Respondent Perception of College Taking a Sexual Harassment Complaint Seriously

Panel A *Association between respondent gender and perception of a lecturer being appropriately sanctioned for 'repeatedly telling sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students'*		
	Male	Female
▪ Not seriously	13	22
▪ Seriously	87	78
	Respondent status	

Panel B *Association between respondent gender and perception of a lecturer being appropriately sanctioned for 'making a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative'*		
	Male	Female
▪ Not seriously	8	15
▪ Seriously	92	85
	Respondent status	

Data presented in Figure 5.13 (Panel A) show that more males (87%) than females (78%) were likely to perceive the college as likely to take the student complainant seriously. Again, in Figure 5.13 (Panel B), more males (92%) than females (85%) are likely to perceive that a student filing a report against a lecturer who would have inappropriately touched the student would be taken seriously.

5.7.3. Association between respondent status and perception of student complainant being taken seriously

Test results for association between respondent status and perception of student complainant being taken seriously are shown in Table 5.25.

Table 5.25

χ² Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Status and Perception of College Taking Complainant Seriously

Item	χ²	p-value
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	3.5796	0.05849
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	0.49921	0.4798
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	0.0059254	0.9386
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	1.278	0.2583
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	1.3927	0.2379
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	0.20836	0.6481

Chi-square test results presented in Table5.25 show no association between respondent status and the perception of a student filing a harassment complaint with college being taken seriously because the p-values were not significant.

5.7.4. Association between college site and perception of student complainant being taken seriously

Table 5.26 presents test results on association between college and perception of student complainant being taken seriously by the college.

Table 5.26

χ² Test Results of Association Between College and Respondent Perception of College Taking Complainant Seriously

Item	χ²	p-value
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	4.9713	0.2903
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	9.5675	*0.04838
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	0.64	0.9585
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	1.4283	0.8393
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	0.40389	0.9822
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	1.1671	0.8835

Note. *p < .05

Chi-square test results presented in Table5.26 indicate no relationship between college and perception of student filing a formal harassment report with college being taken seriously for all items measured except for item 2 (χ^2=9.5675, df=4, p-value=0.04838).

Figure 5.14

Association Between College and Perception of College Taking a Sexual Harassment Complainant Seriously
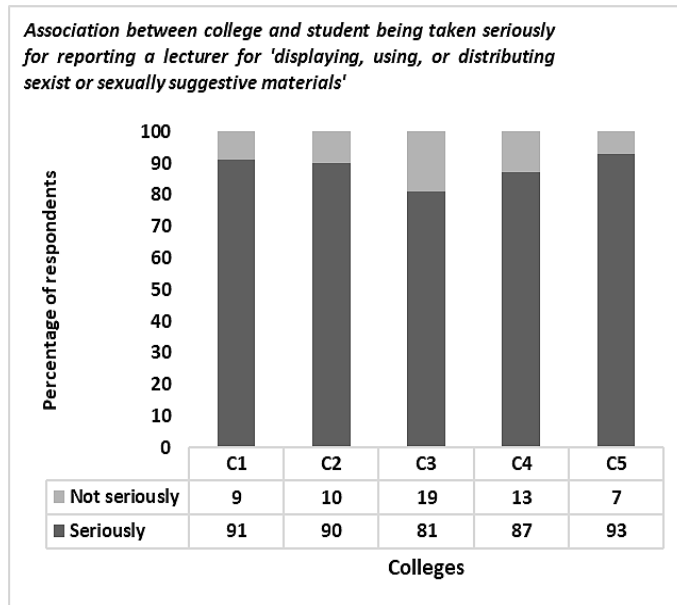
Figure 5.14 shows that respondents (93%) in college 5 than those in other colleges are more likely to perceive the college as taking a harassment complaint seriously when a student reports a lecturer for displaying, using, or distributing sexist or suggestive materials that the student finds offensive. College 3 has the least percentage of respondents (81%) likely to report that the college would take a harassment complaint seriously.

5.7.5. Conclusion on respondents' perceptions on the likelihood of college taking seriously a student reporting sexual harassment

Proportion estimates indicate that about 86% of respondents perceived it as likely that the college would take a student filing a harassment complaint seriously. Chi-square tests of association established association between gender and perception of the likelihood of the student complainant being taken seriously by college. Male respondents were more likely than female respondents to perceive it likely that the college would take a student complainant seriously. For example, 92% males against 85% female respondents perceive it likely that college would take a student reporting a lecturer for inappropriately touching the student

seriously. Generally, the perception of the likelihood of the college taking a student complainant seriously is very high. Chi-square test results of association between respondent status and perception of the likelihood of a student complainant being taken seriously by college did not yield any significant results.

5.8. Respondents' perception on the likelihood of college appropriately sanctioning a lecturer reported for sexual harassment

The third variable in the assessment of institutional climate is the likelihood of a college appropriately sanctioning a lecturer reported for SH. In measuring this variable, statistical operations were conducted. First, 95% confidence intervals were conducted to estimate the proportion of respondents who perceive it as likely that the college would appropriately sanction a lecturer reported for SH. Beyond this, chi-square tests of association were conducted to establish the association between respondent characteristics and perception of the likelihood of the offending lecturer being appropriately sanctioned. Further tests were also performed to determine the relationship between college and the perception of likelihood of college to appropriately sanction the harasser.

5.8.1. Proportion of respondents who perceive it as likely that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer.

Results on the estimation of the proportion of respondents perceiving it as likely that an offending lecturer would be appropriately sanctioned are presented in Table 5.27.

Table 5.27

Proportion of Respondents Perceiving It as Likely That College Would Appropriately Sanction an Offending Lecturer

Item	Point estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
		Lower limit	Upper limit
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	0.60	0.56	0.64
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	0.65	0.61	0.69
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	0.67	0.63	0.71
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	0.67	0.63	0.71
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	0.65	0.60	0.69
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	0.70	0.66	0.74
Average	0.66	0.62	0.70

Table 5.27 shows that the proportion of respondents who perceive that an offending lecturer will be appropriately sanctioned, when averaged across the six scenarios of the OTSHI, is 66% (p=395/598). The highest proportion of respondents (70%, p=419/598, 95% CI: 66, 74) indicated that a lecturer reported for treating a student badly for refusing to have sex would be appropriately sanctioned. The least proportion of respondents (60%, p=359/598, 95% CI: 56, 64) perceived it as likely that the college would appropriately sanction a lecturer reported for repeatedly telling sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students.

5.8.2. Association between perception of offending lecturer being appropriately sanctioned and respondent gender.

The test results for association between respondent gender and the perception that an offending lecturer would be appropriately sanctioned are presented in Table 5.28.

Table 5.28

χ² Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Gender and Perception That College Would Appropriately Sanction an Offending Lecturer

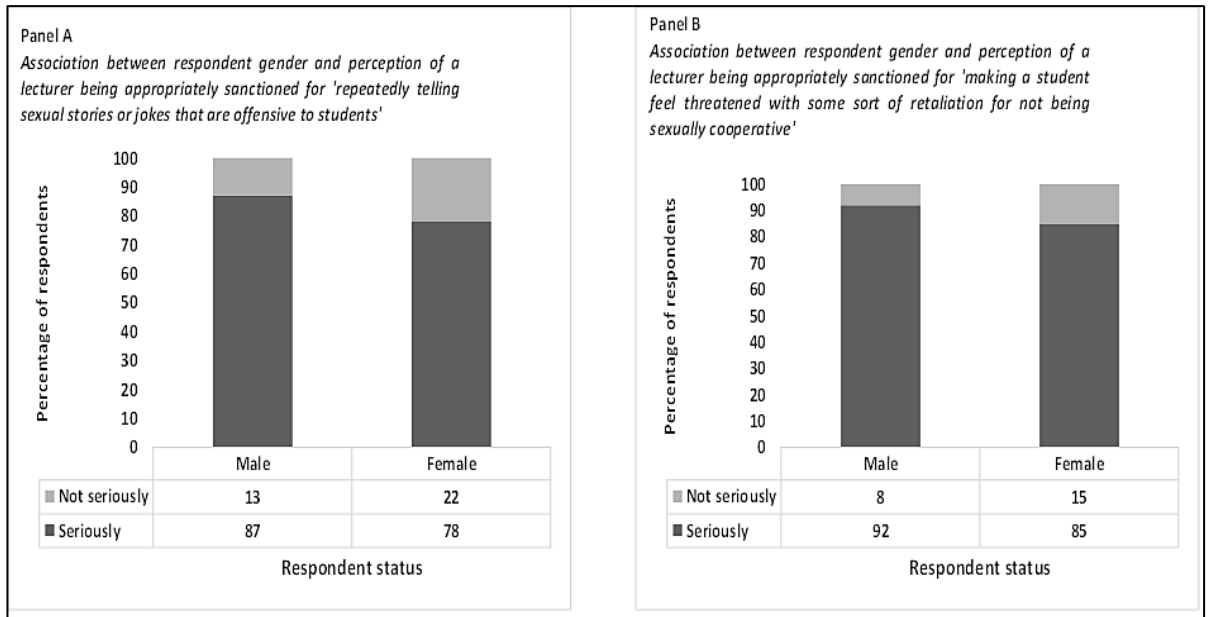| Item	χ²	p-value
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	4.2987	*0.03814
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	3.6294	0.05677
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	3.1154	0.07755
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	8.4382	*0.003674
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	5.8531	*0.01555
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	11.987	*0.0005358

Note. *p < .05

Test results presented in Table 5.28 were significant for four of the six items measured. The test results demonstrate association between gender and the perception that a lecturer who repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students will be appropriately sanctioned (χ^2=4.2987, df=1, p-value=0.03814). The results were also significant for items 4 (χ^2=8.4382, df=1, p-value=0.003674), 5 (χ^2=5.8531, df=1, p-value=0.01555), and 6 (χ^2=11.987, df=1, p-value=0.0005358).

Figure 5.15

Association Between Respondents' Gender and Respondent Perception of College Appropriately Sanctioning an Offending Lecturer
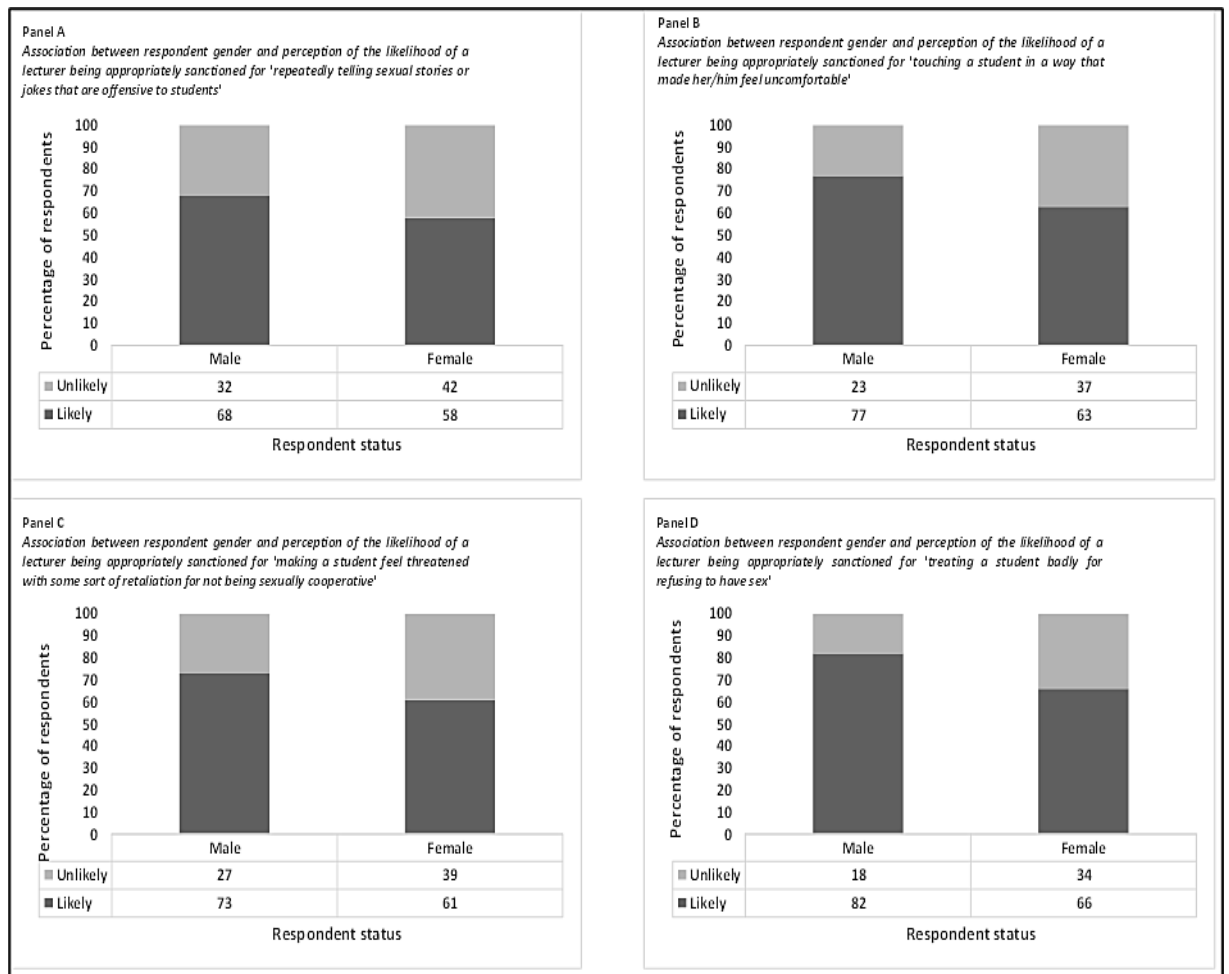
Figure 5.15 (Panel A) shows that more males (68%) than females (58%) perceive it as being more likely that a lecturer who repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students would be appropriately sanctioned. Again, data in Figure 5.15 (Panel B) indicate that more males (77%) than females (63%) hold the perception that a lecturer who touched a student in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable would be appropriately sanctioned. This trend of more males holding the perception that an offending lecturer would be appropriately sanctioned is sustained for the other two items displayed in Figures 5.15 (73% male, 61% female) and 5.56 (82% male, 66% female) for which the chi-square results were significant.

5.8.3. Association between respondents' status and perception of offending lecturer being appropriately sanctioned.

Table 5.29 presents test results for association between respondents' status and perception of college appropriately sanctioning an offending lecturer.

Table 5.29

χ^2 Test Results of Association Between Respondents' Status and Perception That College Would Appropriately Sanction an Offending Lecture

Item	χ^2	p-value
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	12.473	*0.000413
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	9.711	*0.001832
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	3.989	*0.0458
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	17.032	*3.676e-05
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	15.588	*7.875e-05
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	9.9528	*0.001606

Note. *p<.05

Chi-square test results were significant for all the items measured as shown in Table 5.29. For example, the test results for association between status and the perception of a lecturer who touched a student in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable were significant (χ^2=17.032, df=1, p-value=3.676e-05).

Figure 5.16

Association Between Respondents' Status and Respondent Perception of College Appropriately Sanctioning an Offending Lecturer

Panel A
Association between respondent status and perception of the likelihood of a lecturer being appropriately sanctioned for 'repeatedly telling sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students'

	Lecturers	Students
Unlikely	21	43
Likely	79	57

Panel B
Association between respondent status and perception of the likelihood of a lecturer being appropriately sanctioned for 'displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials '

	Lecturers	Students
Unlikely	19	38
Likely	81	62

Panel C
Association between respondent status and perception of the likelihood of a lecturer being appropriately sanctioned for 'making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discou

	Lecturers	Students
Unlikely	22	35
Likely	78	65

Panel D
Association between respondent status and perception of the likelihood of a lecturer being appropriately sanctioned for 'touching a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable'

	Lecturers	Students
Unlikely	12	37
Likely	88	63

Panel E
Association between respondent status and perception of the likelihood of a lecturer being appropriately sanctioned for 'making a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative'

	Lecturers	Students
Unlikely	15	39
Likely	85	61

Panel F
Association between respondent status and perception of the likelihood of a lecturer being appropriately sanctioned for 'treating a student badly for refusing to have sex'

	Lecturers	Students
Unlikely	14	33
Likely	86	67

Figure 5.16 (Panel A) shows that more lecturers (79%) than students (57%) perceive it as more likely that the college will appropriately sanction a lecturer who repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students. Similarly, Figure 5.16 (Panel D) demonstrates that more lecturers (88%) than students (63%) perceive it as likely that the college will appropriately

sanction a lecturer who touched a student in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable. The trend of more lecturers than students holding the perception that offenders will be appropriately sanctioned is consistent across the other items used in measuring perception of the likelihood of offenders being appropriately sanctioned.

5.8.4. Association between college site and perception of offending lecturer being appropriately sanctioned.

The test results for association between college and perception of the offending lecturer being appropriately sanctioned are presented in Table 5.30.

Table 5.30

χ² Test Results of Association Between College and Respondent Perception That College Would Appropriately Sanction an Offending Lecturer

Item	χ²	p-value
1... lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students	5.1428	0.273
2... lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials	0.95149	0.9171
3... lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it	2.2616	0.6878
4... lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?	2.7278	0.6044
5... lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative	3.4674	0.4828
6... lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex	1.719	0.7873

The chi-test results displayed in Table 5.30 indicate that there is no association between college and perception of the college appropriately sanctioning an offending lecturer because the p-values were not significant.

5.8.5. Conclusion on likelihood of college appropriately sanctioning a lecturer reported for sexual harassment

About 66% of respondents indicated that the college would appropriately sanction a lecturer reported for SH. Chi-square tests established association between gender and perception of college appropriately sanctioning a lecturer reported for SH for scenario 1 (χ^2 =4.2987, p=0.03814), 4 (χ^2 =8.4382, p=0.003674), 5 (χ^2 =5.8531, p=0.01555) and 6 (χ^2 =11.987, p=0.0005358) of the OTSHI. Accordingly, more males than females are likely to hold the

perception that colleges would appropriately sanction lecturers reported for SH. Additionally, respondent status was associated with perception of the likelihood of college appropriately sanctioning an offending lecturer reported for harassment. More lecturers than students were likely to perceive colleges as appropriately sanctioning reported lecturer offenders. Finally, no association was established between college and perception of the likelihood of colleges appropriately sanctioning lecturers reported for SH.

5.9. Discussion of results

This section discusses the results that have been presented in this chapter. These results answer the quantitative research questions of this strand of the study. Accordingly, the discussion focuses on the prevalence of SH, association between respondent characteristics and perception of prevalence of SH. Additionally, the discussion also centres on respondents' perception of institutional climate. In discussing this study's results, the results are validated by comparing them to results from prior research.

5.9.1. Prevalence of sexual harassment

The quantitative strand of the study sought to measure the prevalence of SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. In estimating the proportion of respondents who had witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexually harassing behaviours, confidence intervals were constructed at 95% confidence level. Additionally, chi-square tests were performed to investigate association between respondents' characteristics (gender and status) and respondents having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH. Furthermore, chi-square tests were also performed to establish association between college and respondents' reporting of having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH.

5.9.1.1. Proportion of respondents having witnessed, heard about, or experienced sexual harassment

SH persists in IHLs despite efforts to combat it. Results from this study indicate that about 40% of study respondents reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually

harassing students. The prevalence rate of 40% established in this study is within the range of prevalence rates of 41.8% (Romito et al., 2017), 36.7% (Ogbonnaya et al.,2011), 31% (Dhlomo et al., 2012), 46.8% (Cantor et al., 2019), and 50% (Kassahun, 2009) established in previous studies. This study, therefore, confirms that SH remains a persistent problem in IHLs with no signs that prevalence rates are on the decline despite efforts to address the scourge. However, findings from this study contradict prior study results that established outrageously high prevalence rates of SH (Lorenz et al., 2019; Shumba & Matina, 2002). The high rates established by Shumba and Matina are inconsistent with this study's results and a possible explanation for the inconsistence could be differences in sample sizes and composition, and analysis methods (Sivertsen et al., 2019). Their sample consisted of 83 male and female students from first-year and third-year students who had failed their mid-year and end of year examinations while this present study utilised a sample of 598 lecturer and student respondents of both genders. Failing or passing mid-year or end-of year examinations was not a criterion for sample selection in this study. Their sample comprised aggrieved students and the potential of those students being biased against their lecturers was very high. Such bias against lecturers could have led to response bias resulting in inflated prevalence rates. Additionally, their prevalence rates are based on simple frequency counts while rates for this study are based on confidence intervals. These methodological differences between their study and the present study may account for differences in prevalence rates between the two studies.

Results from this study also indicate that prevalence rates decline with SH severity. Accordingly, GH is the most prevalent type of SH followed by USA, and then SC. In this study, 41% of respondents indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH, 37% USA, and 35% SC. These prevalence findings resonate with findings from earlier studies. The results are thus consistent with findings by Romito et al (2017) who established a prevalence rate of 23.7% for GH and 15.5% for SC. In finding that prevalence declined with the severity of SH, this study is also consistent with findings from a study of graduate students in the United States

of America. In the United States of America study, Lorenz et al (2019) established a prevalence rate of 82% for sexist GH, 60% for crude GH, 42% for USA, and 17% for SC. Similarly, Yoon et al (2010) established 94% for GH, 92% for USA, and 43% for SC. Results from this study are thus consistent with results from other studies in establishing that prevalence rates of SH decline with the severity of the harassment type. More severe types of SH such as SC are less prevalent than less severe forms of harassment such as GH. This is possibly so because GH is may be experienced in both public and private spaces at the individual or group level while USA and SC are mostly experienced in private spaces and at the individual level. USA and SC are thus mainly hidden forms of SH. Accordingly, GH is most likely to be witnessed, heard about, or experienced than USA and SC.

Within the category of GH, the most witnessed, heard about, or experienced harassing behaviour was lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender" (54%) while the least witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviour was lecturers "displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials" (26%). These findings are consistent with findings from a study by Lorenz et al (2019) which established sexist GH as the most prevalent form of GH. Results are also consistent with results from a study in the UK that established that "making sexual comments and sexual noises that made the respondent feel uncomfortable" was the most prevalent form of GH that participants in the study had experienced (NUS, 2011, p. 12). Similarly, Cantor et al (2017, p. 29) established that the most prevalent GH behaviours included "making inappropriate comments about students' body, appearance, or sexual" (37.7%) and "making sexual remarks, or insulting or offensive jokes or stories" (29.5%). Of USA behaviours, respondents reported witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing more of lecturers "staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable" (49%) and less of lecturers "whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner" (29%). The most reported SC lecturer behaviour was "implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative" (45%) while the least reported was lecturers "having sex

with a student without the student's consent or against the student's will" (16%). These study findings are consistent with findings from a study in Zimbabwe by Dhlomo et al. (2012). Their study established that 22% of the respondents reported having been subtly threatened with retaliation for not being sexually cooperative and 15% had experienced sexual bribery.

5.9.2. Association between respondents' characteristics and witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing sexual harassment

In measuring SH prevalence, the study also investigated association between respondent characteristics and respondents' reports of having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH.

5.9.2.1. Association between respondents' gender and witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing sexual harassment

Study findings indicate limited association between respondent gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SH. Of the seven behaviours constituting GH in this study, evidence of association was established between respondent gender and GH in the form of lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students". Thus, more male (54%) than female (46%) respondents were likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students". This finding is inconsistent with findings from a South African study by Oni et al. (2019) which established that slightly more females (39.2%) than males (37.4%) had witnessed sex-related jokes at the university.

Results of tests conducted provided no evidence of association between respondent gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced both USA and SC. These findings are consistent with findings by Oni et al. (2019) which indicated no significant gender differences in the number of students who indicated having experienced SC for 18% of males and 10,2% of females reported having been personally coerced into a sexual relationship. About a fifth of both female (18.6%) and male (18.6%) students in the study by Oni et al. reported having observed other students being subjected to SC. This study's findings are however inconsistent

with findings from other studies. For example, Rosenthal et al. (2016) established that female graduate students were 1.64 times more likely to have experienced at least 1 of the 18 SEQ items from faculty or staff (38.3%) compared to male participants (23.4%). Results are also inconsistent with findings from a Cantor et al. (2015) campus climate survey of the University of Arizona that established that female students (62.4% undergraduate and 54.1% graduate students) reported having experienced SH more than male students (45.9% undergraduate and 32.6% graduate students). This study's findings are also inconsistent with findings from a 2011 study in Nigeria by Abe. Findings from the study by Abe established gender differences in experience of SH with 85% of female and 23% of male respondents reporting having experienced physical harassment.

5.9.2.2. Association between respondents' status and witnessing, hearing about, or experiencing sexual harassment

Study findings provide evidence of association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH. Test results were significant for all the seven questionnaire items that constitute GH. Accordingly, results indicate that lecturers are more likely than students to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in behaviours that constitute GH. For example, more lectures (82%) than students (49%) were more likely to report that lecturers "repeatedly [told] stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students". This finding diverges from findings by Imonikhe et al. (2011) who established that more students (99%) than lecturers (94.5%) reported high prevalence rates of sexual comment jokes and gestures.

Association was also established between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced some of the behaviours classified as USA. Of the behaviours for which the p-values were significant, lecturers and not students were more likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced such behaviours. For instance, more lecturers (66%) than students (28%) were likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making

unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters". Again, association was established between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced SC. Lecturers were more likely than students to report that lecturers sexually coerce students. For example, more lecturers (60%) than students (34%) reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative".

5.9.3. Association between college site and respondents' witnessing, hearing about, and experiencing sexual harassment

Further tests were conducted to test association between college and experiences of SH. Test results of association between college and respondents having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students were significant. College 1 had the highest percentage of respondents (69%) indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experiencing lecturers sexually harassing students. 48% of respondents in college 2, 37% in college 3, 24% in college 4, and 32% in college 5 indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. Accordingly, respondents in college 1 followed by college 2 were more likely than respondents from the other colleges to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. Respondents from college 4 were the least likely to indicate having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students.

Of the tripartite model of SH, test results were significant for association between college, GH, USA, and SC. Respondents from college 1 followed by respondents from college 2 were more likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in behaviours categorised as GH in this study. For example, 84% and 67% of respondents from college 1 and 2 indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender". The percentage of respondents in the other colleges were 50% (College 3), 38% (college 4), and 45% (college 5). This pattern of respondents in college 1 and 2 being more likely than respondents in other colleges to report having witnessed, heard

about, or experienced lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender" was consistent across all the behaviours categorised as GH in this study. The pattern is also consistent for USA and SC. Thus, more respondents from college 1 and 2 were more likely than respondents from other colleges to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced USA and SC.

These results suggest that while SH occurs across IHLs, students and lecturers in some IHLs report having had some SH experience more than students and lecturers in other IHLs. This finding suggests that there are certain contextual or institutional factors that either drive or inhibit SH perpetration. The quantitative phase of this study could not, however, examine these contextual or institutional factors. Accordingly, a follow-up qualitative study was necessary to explore those institutional factors that facilitate or inhibit SH perpetration. Exploring these contextual factors is significant given that Moore and Mennicke (2020) note that the nexus between institutional climate and SH remains under researched.

5.9.4. Respondents' perception of institutional tolerance for sexual harassment

Beyond measuring SH prevalence, the study also measured institutional tolerance for SH. Institutional tolerance for SH was measured based on three variables: risk of filing a harassment complaint, seriousness with which college would take a student filing a harassment complaint, and the likelihood of the college appropriately sanctioning the lecturer perpetrator of SH. Therefore, an institution where it is perceived risky to file a harassment complaint, where the student complainant would not be taken seriously, and where a harassment perpetrator is not appropriately sanctioned has an institutional climate tolerant of SH.

5.9.4.1. Proportion of respondents perceiving college sites as tolerant for sexual harassment

Results from this study indicate that about 70% of respondents perceive it risky for a student to report a lecturer for SH perpetration. Based on perception of risk, results indicate that the colleges studied are tolerant to SH for the riskier it is to report, the more reluctant victims are

to report. Accordingly, an institutional climate that makes reporting harassment risky not only discourages victim reporting of SH but also promotes perpetration for perpetrators revel in the knowledge that their victims will not report (Delaet & Mills, 2018).

In addition, 86% of respondents indicated that college was likely to take a SSH complainant seriously. This finding is consistent with extant literature. For example, Bystrynski and Allen (2017) established that 87% of respondents from their survey of the University of Illinois indicated that the university would treat grievance reports seriously. Lower but moderately high proportions were, however, established in other surveys such as a proportion of 67.2% (Cantor et al., 2019) and 63% (Cantor et al., 2017). Findings from this study and other studies, therefore, suggest that IHLs treat harassment complaints seriously. However, it is perplexing that while respondents generally perceive the colleges as likely to treat a harassment complaint seriously, the same respondents perceive it as risky for a student victim of lecturer perpetrated harassment to file a complaint with college. There is, therefore, discordance between perception of risk and perception of the seriousness with which college would treat a harassment complaint. Results from this quantitative strand of this study could not explain this discordance. To explain this discordance, a qualitative strand was necessary. Therefore, this discordance is explained in the follow-up qualitative phase of the study whose findings are presented in the next chapter.

Furthermore, 66% of respondents perceived that the college would appropriately sanction a lecturer reported for SH. Compared to the other variables in measuring institutional climate, respondents in this study had lower perceptions of the likelihood of the colleges appropriately sanctioning offending lecturers. The finding that 66% of study respondents perceive it as likely that the university or college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer is inconsistent with many other studies. Other studies have established lower proportions of respondents indicating that the university would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer. These low proportions include 43% (Cantor et al., 2017), 41% (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017). 32.3% (Cantor et al., 2015), 42.2% (Loui et al., 2019). This finding is consistent with

findings by Molla & Cuthbert (2014, p. 770) that "there is both a lack of protection against, and appropriate disciplinary responses to, the sexually hostile encounters [students] face on campus." Again, the lower perception of the likelihood of college appropriately sanctioning offending lecturers is discordant with the high perception of the likelihood of college treating a harassment complaint seriously. If colleges treat harassment complaints seriously, then sanctioning of offending lecturers should be high.

5.9.5. Association between respondent characteristics and perception of institutional tolerance for sexual harassment

It was also relevant to investigate the association between respondents' characteristics and perception of institutional tolerance for SH. Accordingly, the study determined association between respondents' gender as well as status with perception of institutional tolerance for SH.

5.9.5.1. Association between respondents' gender and perception of institutional tolerance for sexual harassment

Results from this study did not establish any association between respondent gender and perception of risk in filling a harassment complaint. Accordingly, both male and female respondents consider it risky for a student to file a harassment complaint with college. However, male respondents were more inclined than female respondents to believe that the college would take a student complaint of SH seriously. For example, 92% of the male and 85% of the female respondents indicated that a student complainant would be taken seriously by college for reporting a lecturer who would have touched a student in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable. Results from this study resonate with results from prior research. For example, Cantor et al. (2019) reports that 70.7% of male (70% undergraduate, 81.2% graduate) compared to 48.1% of female (48.1% undergraduate, 64.4% graduate) respondents perceived it as highly likely that a student complaint would be taken seriously by the universities surveyed. Study results are also consistent with results from a survey of the university of Manitoba which

indicate that more male (88%) than female students (76.3%) reported that the university would take a harassment complaint seriously (Peter et al., 2019).

While some association was established between respondent gender and perception that a student complainant would be taken seriously, no association was established between respondent status and perception that a complainant would be taken seriously by college. Association was however established between respondents' gender and the perception that the college would appropriately sanction offending lecturers. Accordingly, male respondents than female respondents were more likely to indicate that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer. For example, 77% of male and 63% of female respondents were more likely to report that the college would appropriately sanction a lecturer reported for touching a student in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable. This pattern is consistent for all the behaviours for which association was established. Results indicating gender variations in perception of whether the university or college would appropriately sanction a reported offender are consistent with several prior researches. For example, Cantor et al. (2015) established from a survey of the university of Arizona that male (53.1% undergraduate, 50.5% graduate) than female students (39.2% undergraduate, 34% graduate) were likely to report that the university would take appropriate action against a perpetrator.

5.9.5.2. Association between respondents' status and perception of institutional tolerance for sexual harassment

Association was established between respondents' status and perception of institutional tolerance for SH. Accordingly, more students than lecturers were likely to perceive it as risky for a student to file a harassment complaint against a lecturer. For example, more students (74%) than lecturers (57%) were likely to perceive that it is risky for a student to file a report against a lecturer for repeatedly telling sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students. This trend was consistent across all scenarios for which significant association was established.

Additionally, status was established to relate to perception that a lecturer reported for harassing a student would be appropriately sanctioned by college. Lecturer respondents were more likely than student respondents to indicate that an offending lecturer would be appropriately sanctioned by college. For example, 88% of lecturers compared to 63% of students were more inclined to indicate that an offending lecturer would be appropriately sanctioned by college. This pattern was consistent across all the six scenarios of the OTSHI. This finding is in some ways consistent with findings from a UK study by Moore and Mennicke (2019) who established that victims of harassment had lower-level perceptions of their university climate compared to those students identified as perpetrators. Accordingly, student respondents in this study constitute victims of harassment while lecturers constitute perpetrators of harassment. Thus, students in this study had lower perceptions of institutional climate compared to lecturers. Furthermore, no association was established between college and respondents' perception that the offending lecturer would be appropriately sanctioned by college.

5.9.6. Association between college site and respondents' perception of institutional tolerance for sexual harassment

Furthermore, college 1 respondents were more likely than respondents from other colleges to indicate a high-risk perception of formally reporting a lecturer for SH to college. For example, 87% of college 1 respondents perceived it as risky for a student to report a lecturer who would have made the student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative. For the other colleges, the percentages of respondents were 70% (college 2), 60% (college 3), 64% (college 4), and 67% (college 5).

Additionally, some association was established between college and perception that a complainant would be taken seriously by college. Respondents in college 5 were more likely than respondents from other colleges to hold the perception that the college would take a student complainant seriously. In the follow-up qualitative strand of this study, college specific conditions that nurture a high-risk perception of reporting are explored to compliment the

quantitative result that respondents in college 1 and college 2 have high perceptions of risk of reporting.

5.10. Conclusion

Results from this study indicate that SSH remains pervasive and persistent in IHLs with the reported prevalence in this study estimated at about 40%. The established prevalence rate of 40% is within the range of rates established in prior research (Cantor et al., 2019; Dhlomo et al., 2012; Ogbonnaya et al.,2011; Romito et al., 2017; Kassahun, 2009). Respondent perception on prevalence of SH varies with respondent status and college but not with gender. Lecturers (65%) were more likely than students (35%) to indicate having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. Of the colleges studied, respondents in college 1 (69%) were the most likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. Respondents in college 1 (69%) are followed by respondents in college 2 (48%) in holding the perception that lecturers sexually harass students. Respondents in college 4 (24%) were the least likely to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students.

Based on the tripartite model of SH, GH is the most prevalent form of SH with an average of 41% of respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours that constitute GH in this study. Results from extant literature also indicate that GH is the most prevalent form of SH (Lorenz et al., 2019; Romito et al., 2017; Yoon et al., 2010). The perception on the prevalence of GH varies with respondent status and college but does not vary with gender. Accordingly, lecturers were more likely than students to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours that constitute GH in this study. For example, more lecturers 82% than students 49% reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender". Similarly, more lecturers 71% than students 28% reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making offensive sexist remarks". This trend is consistent across all behaviours that constituted GH in

this study. Additionally, perception on the prevalence of GH also varied with college. For instance, respondents from college 1 were more likely than respondents from any other college to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced GH. For example, respondents from college 1 (84%) were more likely than respondents from the other colleges (college 2 [67%], college 3 [50%], college 4 [38%], college 5 [45%]) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "treating students differently because of their gender". Similarly, respondents from college 1 (71%) were more likely than respondents from the other colleges (college 2 [54%], college 3 [40%], college 4 [35%], college 5 [41%]) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities". The trend of more respondents in college 1 being more likely than respondents from other colleges to report some experience of GH is consistent across all the behaviours that constituted GH in this study.

After GH, the next most prevalent type of harassment was USA. The average proportion of respondents who indicated having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours that constitute USA was 37%. Again, results from this study resonate with results from prior research (Lorenz et al., 2019; Romito et al., 2017; Yoon et al.,2010). The perception on prevalence of USA differs with respondent status and college but not with respondent gender. For instance, more lecturers 66% than students 28% reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters". Additionally, more lecturers 59% than students 38% reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students". This pattern is sustained throughout all the behaviours categorised as USA in this study. Furthermore, respondents from college 1 (69%) were more likely than respondents from the other colleges (college 2 [64%], college 3 [49%], college 4 [31%], college 5 [41%]) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable". Similarly, respondents from

college 1 (63%) were more likely than respondents from the other colleges (college 2 [51%], college 3 [39%], college 4 [28%], college 5 [34%]) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students".

The least reported form of SH was SC with an average of 35% of respondents reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced behaviours classified as SC in this study (Lorenz et al., 2019; Romito et al., 2017; Yoon et al.,2010). Again, perception on the prevalence of SC differs with respondent status and college but not with respondent gender. Accordingly, more lecturers 57% than students 40% reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour". Additionally, more lecturers 60% than students 34% reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative". This pattern is sustained throughout all the behaviours categorised as USA in this study. Furthermore, respondents from college 1 (64%) were more likely than respondents from the other colleges (college 2 [51%], college 3 [41%], college 4 [27%], college 5 [37%]) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour". Similarly, respondents from college 1 (64%) were more likely than respondents from the other colleges (college 2 [55%], college 3 [48%], college 4 [28%], college 5 [38%]) to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers "implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative".

The data, therefore, show that prevalence rates decline with severity of harassment type. Additionally, the study established association between respondents' status and experiences with SH. Lecturers were therefore more likely than students to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in harassing behaviours that cut across the tripartite model of SH. Study findings also provide evidence of association between college and

prevalence of SH. College 1 had the most respondents indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced all forms of SH while respondents in college 2 were the next most likely to report some experience with SH. College had the least respondents reporting some experience with SH.

In respect of respondents' perception of institutional tolerance for SH, an average of 70% of respondents perceived it as risky to file an SH complaint across the six vignettes of the OTSHI. Perception of risk varies with respondent status and college but not with gender. Accordingly, more students than lecturers perceive it as risky to file a harassment complaint against a lecturer with college. For example, more students (74%) than lecturers (57%) were more likely to perceive it as risky to file a complaint against a lecturer who "repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students". Equally, more students (72%) than lecturers (60%) were more likely to perceive it as risky to file a complaint against a lecturer who would have "touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable". Additionally, respondents from college 1 (84%) were more likely than respondents from the other colleges (college 2 [76%], college 3 [67%], college 4 [72%], college 5 [67%]) to perceive it as risky to file a complaint against a lecturer who "repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students". Correspondingly, respondents from college 1 (87%) were more likely than respondents from the other colleges (college 2 [70%], college 3 [66%], college 4 [64%], college 5 [67%]) to perceive it as risky to file a complaint against a lecturer who would have "made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative".

Proportion of respondents perceiving that a harassment complainant would be taken seriously was averaged at 86%. This indicates high confidence in the colleges taking a harassment complaint seriously. Several prior studies have established similar high perceptions that the college would treat a harassment complaint seriously (Bystrynski & Allen, 2017; Cantor et al.,2017, 2019; Ohio State University, 2017). Perception that that a harassment complainant would be taken seriously by college does not vary with gender, status, and college. This implies

that there is consensus between male and female respondents, lecturer, and student respondents, and across the 5 colleges that once a report of harassment is made, the college reported to would treat the report seriously. This finding is inconsistent with other studies whose results indicate a gender variation in perception with male respondents reportedly perceiving it as highly likely that their university or college would take a harassment complaint seriously than female students (Cantor et al., 2019; Peter et al., 2019). Accordingly, those population segments at low-risk than those at high risk of victimisation tend to perceive the university as likely to treat a harassment complaint seriously.

When averaged across the six scenarios of the OTSHI, the proportion of respondents perceiving it likely that the college will appropriately sanction an offending lecturer is 66%. This finding is both consistent with a few prior studies (Ohio State University, 2017) but largely inconsistent with several other studies that have established lower proportions of respondents perceiving it as likely that the university would appropriately sanction an offender (Cantor et al., 2015a, 2015b, 2017). The perception of the likelihood of college appropriately sanctioning an offending lecturer differs with gender and status but does not change with college. Thus, more male than female respondents were more likely to perceive at as likely that the college will appropriately sanction an offending lecturer. For example, males (82%) than females (62%) were more likely to perceive the college reported to as likely to appropriately sanction a lecturer who would have "treated a student badly for refusing to have sex". Similarly, males (77%) than females (63%) were more likely to perceive the college reported to as likely to appropriately sanction a lecturer who would have "touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable". The finding that perception of the likelihood of college or university appropriately sanctioning varies with gender is consistent with previous studies (Cantor et al., 2017; Ohio State University, 2017). The perception that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer also varied with status. Thus, lecturers were more likely than students to perceive that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer. For example, more

lecturers (86%) than students (63%) were likely to perceive that college would appropriately sanction a lecturer reported for "touch[ing] a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable". Likewise, more lecturers (88%) than students (67%) were likely to perceive that college would appropriately sanction a lecturer reported for "treat[ing] a student badly for refusing to have sex". This trend is consistent across all the six scenarios of the OTSHI.

At a reported 40% prevalence rate, SH remains pervasive and persistent in TCs in Zimbabwe. when measured according to SH type, prevalence rates decrease with harassment type and severity. Accordingly, GH (41%) was reportedly the most prevalent followed by USA (37%), and then SC (35%). Lecturers were more likely than students to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. Additionally, respondents from college 1 followed by those from college 2 were more likely than respondents from the other colleges to report having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. Thus, colleges with high respondents' perception of institutional tolerance for SH were more likely to have more respondents indicating having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in sexually harassing behaviours than colleges in which respondents had a low perception of institutional tolerance for SH. Accordingly, respondents in colleges 1 and 2 had high perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH and reported having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students more than respondents from other colleges.

The high prevalence rates of SH established in this study together with association between prevalence and institutional tolerance for SH make it imperative to understand the campus climate conditions that drive prevalence rates and institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. Accordingly, the next phase of the study qualitatively explains the institutional factors that push up prevalence rates, explores institutional responsive strategies and the perceived efficacy in combating SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. To this end, colleges 1 and 2, being the colleges in which respondents have high perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH and

in which high prevalence rates of SH were reported, were selected as the study sites for the qualitative strand of the study.

5.11. Chapter summary

This chapter presented, analysed, and discussed quantitative data on the prevalence of SH and on perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH in the colleges studied. Confidence intervals were constructed at 95% confidence level to estimate the proportion of students and lecturers reporting having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers engaging in sexually harassing behaviours. The same statistical operation was performed to estimate the proportion of respondents perceiving it risky to file a complaint with college, proportion of respondents perceiving it as likely that the college would treat a harassment complaint seriously, and the proportion of respondents perceiving it as likely that the college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer. In addition to all this, chi-square tests were performed to determine association between respondents' characteristics (gender and status) and prevalence of SH as well as with perception of institutional tolerance for SH. Finally, the chapter also determined association between college site and prevalence of SH as well as perceptions of institutional tolerance for SH. Association was established between college, prevalence of SH, and perception of institutional tolerance for SH.

The quantitative data presented, analysed, and discussed in this chapter could not, however, explain the prevalence rates as well as the association between institutional climate and SH prevalence established in the quantitative strand of the study. To overcome this quantitative limitation and to achieve completeness, a follow-up qualitative study was conducted to explain the institutional factors that drive harassment prevalence rates, and the institutional strategies for addressing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe. Findings from this qualitative strand of the study are presented, analysed, and discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VI

QUALITATIVE DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

6.0. Introduction

The previous chapter presented, analysed, and discussed quantitative data generated in phase one of this study. Though statistically significant and illuminating, quantitative results could not provide the completeness and comprehensiveness required in understanding institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment (SSH) in teachers' colleges (TCs) in Zimbabwe. A subsequent qualitative strand was thus necessary to complement and expand on the quantitative strand. In this chapter, therefore, I present, interpret, and discuss data from the qualitative strand of this study.

6.1. Emergent themes, categories, and sub-categories

In analysing qualitative data, my objective was to identify the themes that were grounded in the data. Accordingly, my primary analysis strategy was thematic analysis. In developing themes from the data, I engaged in data coding and in qualitative content analysis. I also constantly compared codes to facilitate the grouping of related codes into sub-categories. I proceeded to compare the codes and further grouped them into larger units called categories. I then brought related categories together to develop themes that were emergent in the data. I present the themes, categories, and sub-categories in Table 6.1

Table 6.1

Emergent Themes, Categories, and Sub-Categories

Themes	Categories	Sub-categories
6.1. Theme 1: The SH scourge in TCs	6.1.1. Sexual harassment as a constant feature of students' lives in teachers' colleges	6.1.1.1. Pervasiveness of SSH 6.1.1.2. SH perpetrator profile 6.1.1.3. SH Victim/target profile 6.1.1.4. Locations in which SH is perpetrated
6.2. Theme 2: Institutional tolerance for SH	6.2.1. Institutional betrayal	6.2.1.1. Conflicted and incapacitated institutional prevention and response structures and systems 6.2.1.2. Inaccessible institutional prevention and response structures 6.2.1.3. SH perpetrator protection 6.2.1.4. SH trivialisation and normalisation
	6.2.2. Atmosphere of student fear to expose SH	6.2.2.1. Student fear of retaliation for reporting sexual harassment 6.2.2.2. Students' fear of being blamed for instigating own sexual harassment 6.2.2.3. Students' fear of stigmatization and ostracization
6.3. Theme 3: Institutional SH prevention and response strategies	6.3.1. Individual level sexual harassment prevention and response strategies	6.3.1.1. SH education and training 6.3.1.2. SH guidance and counselling
	6.3.2. Interpersonal level SH prevention and response strategies	6.3.2.1. Code of conduct regulation in teachers' colleges
	6.3.3. Institutional level SH prevention and response strategies	6.3.3.1. SH case management and support service structures 6.3.3.2. SH grievance procedures 6.3.3.3. Institutional collaboration with external agencies in responding to SH
6.4. Theme 4: Inadequate and ineffective institutional SH prevention and response strategies	6.4.1. Inadequacy and ineffectiveness of case management and support service structures	6.4.1.1. Authority deficits of case management structures 6.4.1.2. Conflicted and overburdened case management personnel 6.4.1.3. Personality and skills deficits of case management personnel
	6.4.2. Inadequate SH education and training	6.4.2.1. Infrequent and inadequate training opportunities 6.4.2.2. Student-focused SH training and education
	6.4.3. Ineffective Sexual harassment policy implementation	6.4.3.1. Stakeholders' ignorance of policy on SH

I present qualitative data under emergent themes, categories, and sub-categories as outlined in Table 6.1. Thus, I present a theme followed by the categories that make up the theme and then I present the associated sub-categories.

6.2. The sexual harassment scourge in teachers' colleges

Recurrent in field data across study sites was the theme that SSH is a scourge in the TCs. The theme consists of a main category and four sub-categories (see Table 6.1). I present the main category and sub-categories below.

6.2.1. Sexual harassment as a constant feature of students' lives in teachers' colleges

Regardless of status and college, study participants agreed that SSH is a constant feature of students' lives in TCs. This became a major category in the development of the theme that SH is a scourge in TCs. To unravel how SH as a constant feature of students' lives, I present the four sub-categories that built up this category (see Table 6.1).

6.2.1.1. Pervasiveness of student sexual harassment

Lecturer and student participants' narratives across study sites suggested a shared perception that SSH exists and is pervasive in the TCs. Jane (College 1 Student) illustrated this perception when she remarked that "the sexual harassment of students by lecturers is rife in the college". Rose (College 2 Student) reiterated Jane's observation when she intimated that the "sexual harassment problem…exists and it's a big problem". Lecturer participants concurred with student participants that SH is rife in the colleges with Mr Vernacular (College 1 Lecturer) admitting that "there is a sexual harassment problem within the institution but it's a problem that is not easy to identify".

While there was convergence between lecturers and students on the pervasiveness of SH in both TCs, research data revealed a tendency, among lecturers with administrative responsibilities, to downplay the magnitude of SH in both TCs. Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) demonstrated this tendency when he insinuated that "there are no sufficient documented cases to suggest that the institution has a sexual harassment problem". Similarly, Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer)

disclosed that "as Student Affairs, we have not encountered much of directly reported's cases of sexual harassment... If there are no formal reports, then there is no way we can become aware of the problem". Lecturer participants with administrative responsibilities, therefore, cited the absence or thinness of official complaint reports as indicative of a problem that, at worst, is peripheral and, at best, non-existent. The data presented here seem to suggest that even though SH is pervasive in the colleges, it remains disturbingly underreported. In a context where institutional decisions and actions are document driven, SH underreporting creates the illusion that SH is a peripheral or non-existent institutional problem that is not deserving of serious institutional attention (Delaet & Mills, 2018; Mellgren et al., 2018; Namaganda et al., 2021). Underreporting becomes justification for institutional inaction. Interestingly, while underreporting justifies institutional inaction, it is itself a result of institutional inaction for victims and targets are likely to underreport SH if there are high perceptions that the institution does not act on reported SH cases.

6.2.1.2. Sexual harassment perpetrator profile

Irrespective of college and status, participants identified perpetrators of SSH as male lecturers. The perception that perpetrators are male was illustrated by Mr Johns' (College 1 Lecturer) response that "it's more of male lecturers demanding sexual favours from their female students". Mrs. Thatcher (College 1 Lecturer) concurred when she affirmed that perpetrators were "mostly male lecturers".

Several perpetration risk factors were suggested. These factors included unrequited sexual overtures, lust, and abuse of institutional power. Accordingly, Joy (College 1 Student) asserted that "lecturers just lust for students". While lust is an important perpetration risk factor, Sue (College 1 Student), however, observed that SH occurs when a "lecturer would be [sexually] interested in [a] student but his interest is not reciprocated by the student. In the end, he ends up harassing [the student]". Harassment thus becomes a means to coerce an uninterested student into a sexual relationship with the harasser or as punishment for rejecting the lecturer's sexual

overtures. Lecturers also tended to view SH as being driven by lust for Mr Bismark (College 2 Lecturer) declared that SH "is about natural sexual drives" that motivate lecturers to sexually harass students.

Other students perceived lecturer perpetrated SH as driven by lecturer abuse of institutional power as students' academic supervisors. For example, Kate (College 2 Student) suggested that "a person [lecturer] in authority can … use their power to frustrate me or fail me. That's the fear that people have". Concerns about lecturer abuse of institutional power in sexually harassing students were also substantiated by Grace (College 2 Student) when she observed that:

> [lecturers] think students cannot turn them down because they are important and powerful since they are directly involved in the student's academic life. When such a lecturer is turned down, they take it as an attack on their ego and harassment becomes retaliation or a way of forcing the student to accept their proposal.

These exemplars demonstrate lecturers' abuse of institutional power in sexually harassing vulnerable students. Accordingly, power asymmetry between lecturers and students in which power is skewed in favour of the former is a potential driver of lecturer perpetrated SH (Cantalupo& Kidder, 2018; Joseph, 2015; Stabile, 2018; Whitley & Page, 2015). The presented data thus illustrate a shared perception that male lecturers, driven by lust and abuse of institutional power, are the prime perpetrators of SSH (Jacobs et al., 2015; Shanker et al., 2015). Lust and abuse of power are SH drivers located at the intra-personal level of a perpetrator's social ecology and are among factor 1 (the motivation to harass) of the four-factor theory (Mellgren et al., 2018; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009; see also 2.4.1; 2.5.1). While lust is innate to the individual, abuse of institutional power and authority is organisationally enabled (Kapila, 2017; Okoroafor et al., 2014; Rubino et al., 2018). Understanding perpetration risk factors across an individual's social ecology is critical for the primary prevention of SH.

6.2.1.3. Sexual harassment victim or target profile

Participants, irrespective of college and status, were agreed that victims or targets of lecturer perpetrated SH were almost always female students. This perception was reflected in Mrs Slytherin's (College 1 Lecturer) observation that "it is female students who experience sexual harassment more. We rarely hear about males being victimized by female harassers". Students also corroborated this with Josie (College 2 Student) remarking that "it's the female student who is often sexually harassed". The male perpetrator and female victim dyad is conceivable in a heterosexual culture in which, culturally, the male is expected to initiate sexual relations with females.

While female students are the primary targets or victims of lecturer perpetrated SH, there are certain students within this at-risk female category reportedly at heightened risk of victimisation. Those at heightened risk of victimisation were reported to include students who dressed indecently as Mary (College 2 Student) illustrated when she noted that,

> At times it's the way someone dresses. If I dress in ways that are sexually suggestive or ways that suggest that I am interested in things [sex], that might lead the lecturer on or may be interpreted as a sexual invitation by the lecturer.

Other students shared the same perception. For example, Cleo (College 1 Student) agreed with Mary's observations about indecent dressing but went further to couple indecent dressing with bodily appearance when she observed that,

> The physical appearance of an individual may also lead some students to be sexually harassed. For example, some students are endowed with bodily assets and they show off their assets by the way they dress. That may invite sexual harassment.

Accordingly, physical endowment compounded with indecent dressing were viewed as factors that heightened female students' risk of exposure to lecturer perpetrated SH. In addition to indecent dressing and student physical appearance, it was also alleged that students with a poor work ethic were vulnerable to lecturer perpetrated SH. For instance, Mrs Theresa (College 2

Lecturer) observed that "some … students are very lazy and want easy things. That exposes them to sexual harassment […] they are lazy […] they want to pass with the least of effort". In concurrence, Mr Vernacular (College 1 Lecturer) disclosed that "students with academic challenges can be harassed and are receptive to harassing behaviours in anticipation of being passed".

Additionally, certain personality traits were perceived as likely to increase students' vulnerability to SH. To illustrate this, Mr Divinity (College 1 Lecturer) submitted that,

Students are careless with their language and they become too friendly to male lecturers and this increases their chances of being harassed […] There are certain ways of conduct that expose students to harassment such as the language they use; the way they carry themselves around.

In view of participants responses cited, it was evident that there are factors that heighten a students' vulnerability to lecturer perpetrated SH. These factors were succinctly captured by Mr Vernacular (College 1 Lecturer) in his observation that "there are several characteristics that include the way a student dresses, students facing academic challenges. Students with academic challenges can be harassed and are receptive to harassing behaviours in anticipation of being passed".

The data presented suggests that several factors that include being academically challenged, dressing indecently, being lazy as a student (Eckert & Steiner; 2018; Hennekam & Bennett, 2017; Kima et al., 2016; Synovitz &Byrne, 1998), and being too friendly to and outgoing with lecturers heighten students' vulnerability to lecturer perpetrated SH. These factors, with the exception of a student being too friendly to and outgoing with lecturers, function at the intra-personal level of the student's social ecology. Additionally, as suggested by factor 4 (overcoming victim's resistance) of the four-factor theory of SH, the identified factors are likely to weaken a target's resistance to lecturer perpetrated SH (see 2.4.4). The other identified factor, being too friendly to and outgoing with lecturers, reflects both the intra-personal and inter-

personal layers of a student's social ecology and also belong to factor 4 of the four-factor theory of SH that deals with victim factors that heighten exposure and weaken resistance to SH.

6.2.1.4. Location in which sexual harassment is perpetrated

There was consensus among participants from both TCs that, even though SH could be perpetrated almost anywhere on college campuses, lecturers' offices were the prime locations for SH perpetration and victimisation. Grace (College 1 Student) illustrated this perception when she highlighted that "in most cases, harassment occurs in offices". This perception was corroborated by Getty (College 2 Student) who alleged that "lecturers have turned their offices into their lodges. We are being harassed in lecturers' offices".

Lecturers' offices were perceived as ideal for SH perpetration because, as Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) observed, "offices are secluded spaces that offer a lot of privacy". The privacy and seclusion that offices provide are conditions necessary for SH perpetration (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016; Waugh, 2010). Research evidence seem to suggest that while milder forms of SH such as gender harassment and some benign forms of unwanted sexual attention may occur in public spaces such as in lecture rooms or on college grounds, the more serious forms of SH such as obscene sexual comments and sexual coercion occur away from witnesses in lecturers' offices. This could explain why gender harassment is reportedly more prevalent than unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion (see 3.1; 5.2). While factor 3 (the overcoming of external inhibitors) focuses on women working in private spaces (Waugh, 2010; see 2.4.3; 2.5.3), I turn this factor on its head and suggest that men working from private spaces are at heightened risk of perpetration if they are constantly visited by vulnerable women in their private work spaces. For example, lecturers working from private offices are likely to sexually harass if they are constantly visited in their private offices by vulnerable female students such as students with academic challenges. SH prevention and response efforts should thus focus on organisational enablers of SH such as the privacy and seclusion of lecturer offices if a reduction in lecturer perpetrated SH is to be realised.

6.3. Institutional tolerance for sexual harassment

Institutional tolerance for SH emerged, from data analysis, as the second theme in this qualitative strand of the study. The theme comprises two categories and seven associated sub-categories (see Table 6.1). I present data on the identified categories and associated sub-categories below.

6.3.1. Institutional betrayal

Institutional betrayal denotes institutional acts of omission (i.e., failure to invest the required authority for case management to sanction lecturer offenders; see 6.5.1.1) or commission (i.e., staffing case management structures with comprised and conflicted personnel; see 6.5.1.2) that create a campus climate tolerant to SH perpetration and victimisation. Under this category, four sub-categories were identified and are presented below (see Table 6.1):

6.3.1.1. Conflicted and incapacitated sexual harassment response structures and systems

Field data suggested that students lacked confidence in the case management structures. There was a shared perception between lecturers and students that management structures and some lecturing staff seconded to these structures did not inspire students' confidence in institutional SH response structures and systems. This lack of confidence was articulated by Joy (College 2 Student) when she intimated that "there is no way that one lecturer would want to complicate life for his lecturer colleague. Thus, the student will always end up being isolated. As such, we have no trust". The sentiment that case management structures and systems were conflicted and incapacitated was also reiterated by Jerry (College 2 Student) who commented that "reporting one lecturer to another lecturer is not easy because the one reported to and the one reported about may have occasions where they interact and they may discuss the reported

case" to the detriment of the reporting student.

The lack of confidence in case management and support systems communicated by students in the exemplars cited earlier was validated by some lecturer participants. Lecturer participants indicated that faculty members seconded to institutional prevention and response structurers

were not only conflicted but also incapacitated to handle cases alleging lecturer SH of students. For instance, Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) hinted that,

> The problem is that the warden to whom the report is made and the perpetrator are at the same level as lecturers. The warden may not be too sure on what would happen if he takes the case up or how the case will be solved or fears that he might be regarded as having caused trouble for his fellow lecturer.

To add to this, Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) admitted to being incapacitated in dealing with lecturer perpetrated SH cases when she intimated that "I am not allowed by rules and regulations to sit on such cases [SH cases involving lecturers]. I take it up to the principal or vice principal"

The presented evidence suggests that existing institutional prevention and response structures and systems are so conflicted and incapacitated that they do not inspire confidence in students to utilise them for they are unlikely to result in institutional action on reported lecturer perpetrators of SH (see Aguilar & Baek, 2020; Bloom et al (2021; Cantor et al., 2015; DeLoveh and Cattaneo, 2017; Holland & Cortina, 2017; see also 3.2.3). Since institutional prevention and response strategies are conflicted and incapacitated, they cannot serve as strong external inhibitors (factor 3 of the four-factor theory of SH) of perpetration at the institutional layer of the social ecology for its easy for individuals with a proclivity to harass to overcome those inhibitors (see 2.4.3; 2.5.3)

6.3.1.2. Inaccessible institutional prevention and response structures

When perceived as inaccessible, institutional prevention and response structures become symbolic structures that students hardly use to report SH. Research data indicate a shared perception among students in both TCs that institutional SH prevention and response procedures are inaccessible. This perception was communicated by Sue (College 1 Student) when she observed that "the people who we are supposed to report to should be people who are free and approachable. Some of them are scary. You cannot tell them that you have been

harassed. So, you end up not reporting". Student concerns also revolved around the lack of confidentiality that discouraged students from reporting lecturer perpetrated SH. Mary (College 2 Student) articulates this concern when she noted that,

> this is the reason why people say they are not comfortable with reporting. It's an issue of lack of trust because the person being reported to is the student's lecturer and so is the person who has been reported.

The alleged inaccessibility of SH prevention and response structures and systems contributed to SH underreporting as illustrated by Mr Johns (College 1 Lecturer) who claimed that,

> As dean of students for that long I stayed there…we were just hearing about it. I don't remember anyone a lady or a gentleman bringing an official issue to say there is sexual harassment. Then as VP for the 2 years, I don't remember.

The underreporting highlighted in Mr Jones' response cited above was also alluded to by Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) who intimated that "as Student Affairs, we have not encountered much of directly reported cases of sexual harassment. If there are any cases, they have been rare cases".

The data presented suggest that while SH is pervasive, it remains an underreported vice because targets or victims are reluctant to engage with institutional prevention and response structures that they have no faith in. Past research explains SH underreporting as stemming from targets or victims' lack of confidence in institutional SH prevention and response structures and systems (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017: Cantor et al., 2019; Cantor et al., 2017; Deloveh and Cattaneo, 2017; Holland & Cortina, 2017; Mamaru et al., 2015; Namaganda et al., 2021; Sabir et al., 2018). Prevention and response structures are SH prevention and response efforts that belong to the organisational layer of the social ecology and factor 3 of the four-factor theory of SH (see 2.4.3; 2.5.3; see also Ollo-López & Nuñez, 2018; Theocharous & Philareto, 2009). If these are weak and inaccessible, then factor 3 (the overcoming of external

exhibitors) of the four-factor theory can easily be satisfied and an individual with a proclivity to harass is likely to engage in SH perpetration.

6.3.1.3. Sexual harassment perpetrator protection

Participants in both TCs perceived that the colleges extended protection to SH perpetrators through colleges either not conducting satisfactory investigations or not appropriately sanctioning perpetrators. Mr Calculus (College 1 Lecturer) alluded to perpetrator protection when he admitted that,

> The challenge is that some of the cases would not be proved but we heard about such cases of this and that lecturer having done this and that to this or that student. But some issues, because of protection from the Administration, the harasser would be called and the issue is talked over. That would be the end of the issue.

Students from both colleges also alleged institutional protection of SH perpetrators with Anna (College 2 Student) decrying that "it's pointless to report because lecturers support each other and cover up for each other". Such lecturer support for one another would result in, in the words of Mercy (College 2 Student), "nothing [being] done to the perpetrators". However, if the college does sanction an SH perpetrator, Ropa (College 2 Student) alleged that "the punishment is so inconsequential that the perpetrator will continue harassing students in the future". An example of an inconsequential sanction common in the TCs takes the form of, in Mr Vernacular's words, the perpetrator being "cautioned against repeating the same offence in future".

The perceptions that the TCs offer protection to perpetrators functions to undermine confidence in the case management structures and to fuel SH underreporting. Accordingly, by protecting SH perpetrators, the colleges betray targets and victims of SH. Such betrayal of targets and victims indicate a malfunctioning of the organisational layer prevention and response strategies of the social ecology and weak external inhibitors that constitute factor 3 of the four-factor theory (see 2.4.3; 2.5.3). Past research has documented the extension of protection to

perpetrators by institutions that fail to treat harassment complaints seriously and appropriately sanction lecturer perpetrators (see Cunningham et al., 2019; Rubino et al., 2017; Decker & Littleton, 2018; Molla & Cuthbert, 2014; Phipps, 2020; Robertson et al., 1988).

6.3.1.4. Sexual harassment trivialisation and normalisation

There was consensus across participants at both study sites that SH is not only trivialised but also normalised in the TCs. When SH is trivialised, it is normalised such that perpetrators do not perceive the harm of their criminal conduct and targets accept victimisation as an expected way of life. The trivialisation and normalisation of SH was illustrated by Mrs Thatcher (College 1 Lecturer) when she hinted that "some of these things [sexual harassment] they [colleges] consider them like private things […] And you find very few students who approach us may be because they feel, no, it's not something they should take up". When a college treats SH as "private things", an institutional tendency not to act on reports is nurtured as Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) attested that "at times… the report may be received but not acted on".

When an institution trivialises and normalises SH, the students too come to trivialise and normalise the vice. Such student trivialisation and normalisation of SH was reflected in the observation by Jane (College 2 Student) that "sexual harassment is an established problem but, because we are adults, we keep quiet […] We don't talk about it because we are adults". This student perception seemed to reinforce the institutional perception that SH is a "private thing" that the individual student should deal with on her own. So trivialised and normalised is SH in the colleges that Nikita (College 2 Student) intimated that when a student reports a case of SH,

> They will ask you what intake you are in and you say intake 23. You are then asked what
>
> it is that is special about you. You are told that this college started with intake 1. What is
>
> it that you have done that he has not seen in other students over these years?

Evidence presented here, therefore, suggests that SH trivialisation and normalisation reflects institutional betrayal for when SH is trivialised and normalised, institutions do not perceive the need for proactively preventing and responding to it (see 2.4.3; 2.5.3). Furthermore, the

trivialisation and normalisation of SH makes it a tolerated behaviour which, in turn, makes it difficult for targets or victims to report (see Ali et al., 2015; Chafai, 2017; Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016).

6.3.2. Atmosphere of student fear

Atmosphere of student fear is the second main category that made up the theme institutional tolerance for SH. Constituting this category were three sub-categories that include student fear of retaliation for reporting SH, student fear of being blamed for own victimisation, and student fear of stigmatisation. Data on these sub-categories are presented below.

6.3.2.1. Student fear of retaliation for reporting sexual harassment

Student fear of retaliation was a recurrent motif in participants' narratives from both study sites. Students' fear stems largely from student concerns about being punitively failed by their lecturers in retaliation for not acquiescing to or for reporting lecturer perpetrators of SH. Participants, therefore, perceived the TCs as environments that instil fear of retaliation within students. Student accounts demonstrated this pervasive fear. For example, Faith (College 1 Student) stated that "we are afraid that if you report, you will earn a bad name and when time for exam marking comes, you will be failed". Similar sentiments were expressed by Kate (College 2 Student) when she intimated that "I am afraid that if I report I will be failed or stigmatized. Even if I report, questions remain: what if the tables are turned against me? What if the lecturer fails me in future?"

Lecturer participants also admitted to the existence of a paralyzing fear of retaliation in students. For instance, Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) observed that students "do not report harassment because they think the lecturers may victimize them and mark them down in their assignments and exams". This perception was corroborated by Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) who noted that "students may have fears that reporting may adversely affect their success and studies at college". Some lecturers, however, believed that these student fears of retaliation were unfounded. For instance, Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) pointed out that,

these fears [cannot be] genuine because […] there are several stages involved that make it impossible for a single lecturer to undeservedly fail or pass a student. However […] a student may be scared that they may be victimized in the process of building up towards the final mark such as in coursework.

Despite college efforts to dispel this student fear, the fear of being undeservedly failed is palpable among students. Student fear of being failed in retaliation for reporting lecturer SH perpetrators or for not being receptive to lecturer harassing behaviours has been established in prior studies (Bloom et al., 2021; Cantalupo& Kidder, 2018; Crittenden et al. 2018; Dhlomo et al., 2012; Joseph, 2015; Stabile, 2018; Whitley & Page, 2015; Eller, 2014; Namaganda et al., 2021). This fear is nurtured during inter-personal interactions at the relational layer of the social ecology and, consistent with factor 4 of the four-factor theory, is a victim specific variable that severely weakens a student's resistance to lecturer perpetrated SH.

6.3.2.2. Students' fear of being blamed for instigating own sexual harassment

Participant accounts illustrated a shared perception between lecturers and students that SH victims instigate their own victimisation. Accordingly, students fear that they may be blamed for provoking their own victimisation if they report incidents of lecturer perpetrated SH. This fear of being blamed was illustrated by Keith (College 2 Student) when she observed that "I may not be keen to report because I am afraid that if I report I will be failed or stigmatised. People will start to ask what I was looking for when I went to the lecturer's office". Similar sentiments were expressed by Linah (College 2 Student) when she intimated that "if you report, the tables turn against you and they ask you what you were looking for at the lecturer's office, you are accused of provoking lecturers by visiting their offices"

The tendency to blame the victim was also evident among lecturers. For example, Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) blamed students when she pointed out that "our students also harass lecturers because when they go to these offices they will be dressed provocatively and they act in ways that may provoke lecturers into sexually harassing them". Her perception was shared

by Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) who alleged that "some of our students are very lazy and want easy things. That exposes them to sexual harassment […] They are lazy. They don't want to do things on their own. They want to pass with the least of effort".

From this study, there is, therefore, a propensity by both lecturers and students to blame SH targets or victims for their sexual victimisation. Such a tendency breeds fear of being blamed in students. Victim blaming condones SH perpetration through discouraging reporting and not taking students who file SH complaints seriously (Avendaño, 2018; Ali et al., 2015; Chafai, 2017; Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016).

6.3.2.3. Students' fear of stigmatisation and ostracisation

The climate in the TCs fosters negative perceptions of those students who report lecturers for SH. The fear of being stigmatised and ostracised dissuades victims from reporting incidents of SH. Niki (College 2 Student) illustrated this fear when she insinuated that "there is nothing one can do except to keep silent because if you report other students will laugh at you". Similar fears were alluded to in college 2 with Tanaka (College 2 Student) observing that "sometimes the students who report will suffer within college. People will be pointing at her and describing her as the student who was sexually harassed".

Lectures also shared the perception that students fear stigmatisation. For instance, Mrs Green (College 1 Lecturer) exhibited this perception when she noted that,

> Stigma and discrimination discourage students from reporting. For example, the student could be a married person and it's difficult for them to be found in positions where they are said to have had someone touch their bodies in inappropriate places.

Evidence from this study thus demonstrates that reporting SH invites stigmatisation from both lecturers and students with those students who report lecturer SH perpetrators being labelled trouble makers by both lecturers and students. Such students are unpopular among both students and lecturers. This fear of stigmatisation has been documented in past research (Holland & Cortina, 2017; Namaganda et al., 2021; Sabir et al., 2018; see also 3.3.2**).**

Using evidence from the qualitative strand of this study, I developed the pathway to SSH which

I graphically represent in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1

The Pathway to Student Sexual Harassment
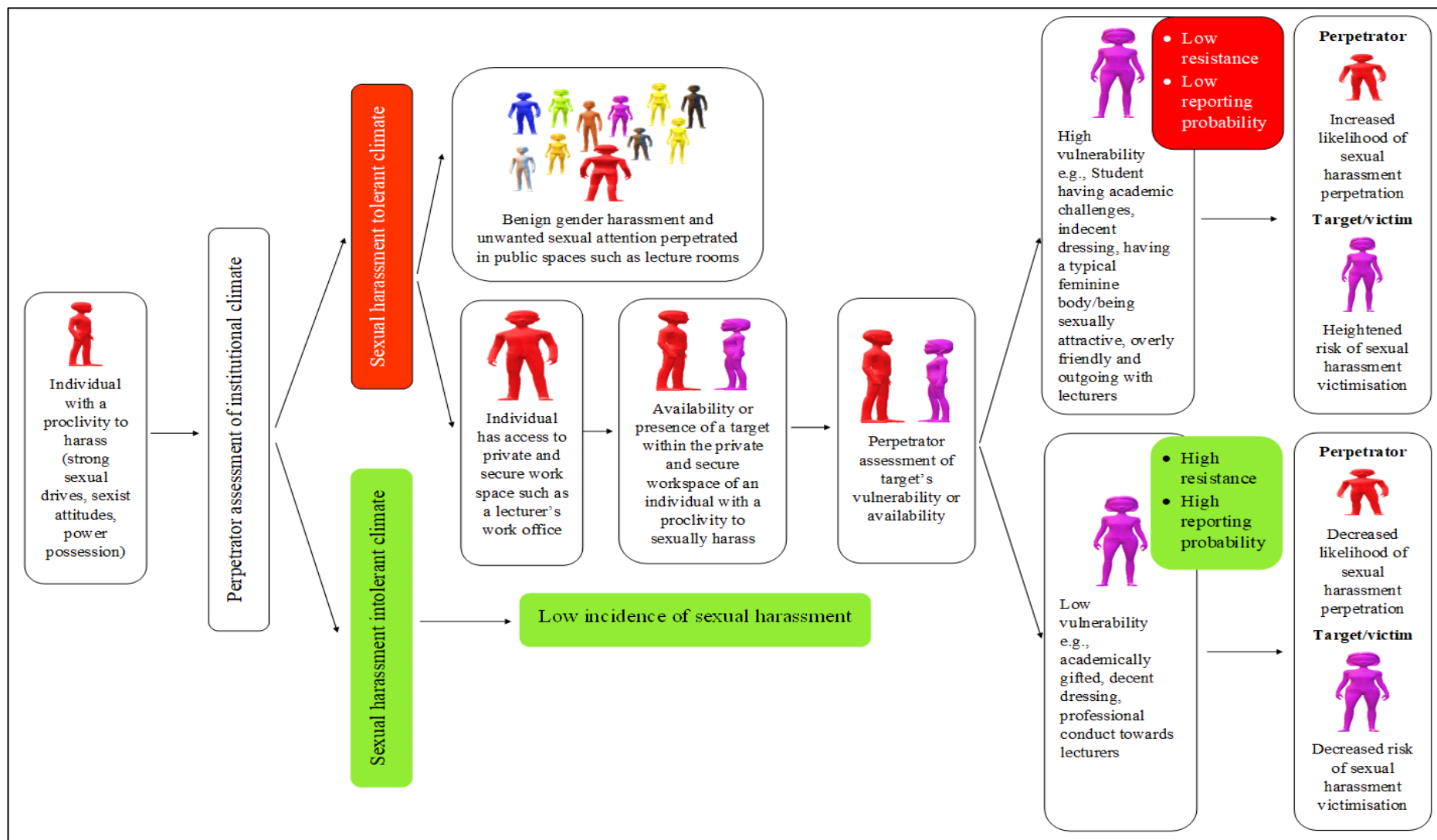
The pathway to student sexual harassment in Figure 6.1 is critical in that it delineates how SSH perpetration unfolds in IHLs. An understanding and appreciation of the pathway to SSH can reveal the factors that contribute to SSH. In so doing, the pathway may be useful in identifying intervention points along the pathway, in developing effective strategies, and in determining the appropriate time for implementing identified strategies. In this way, the pathway to SSH can be blocked and SSH prevented.

6.4. Institutional sexual harassment prevention and response strategies

The third theme that emerged from the qualitative data was institutional SH prevention and response strategies. In constructing categories under this theme, I used the four-factor driven ecological framework to identify and organise institutional prevention and response strategies to SSH in the TCs. Accordingly, I developed three categories that built up the theme institutional SH prevention and response strategies (see Table 6.1). I present the sub-categories and the supporting data below.

6.4.1. Individual level sexual harassment prevention and response strategies

I identified and organised institutional prevention and response strategies under the first category of individual level prevention and response strategies. This category permitted me to identify and group together those prevention and response strategies targeted at the individual or intra-personal level of a student or lecturer's social ecology. The category thus consists of two sub-categories of response strategies targeted at the individual level which are presented below.

6.4.1.1. Sexual harassment education and training

Participants across status and college concurred that the TCs offer training on SH as part of orientation programmes for newly enrolled students. Orientation serves, among other things, to raise awareness about SH, makes students aware of campus resources, educate students on how they can avoid harassing situations, and educate them about reporting procedures. Excerpts from conversations with both students and lecturers prove that the TCs offer orientation

programmes on SH. For example, Sue (College 1 Student) hinted that "we were told during orientation when we were first years. First week of orientation. That's the only time it [sexual harassment] was mentioned". This was corroborated by Mercy (College 2 Student) who observed that "when we arrive at college, we undergo an orientation exercise in which issues of sexual harassment are addressed".

While orientation programmes exist for students, the same cannot be said for lecturers. For example, Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) said that "I don't think there is anything being done directed to lecturers and other workers but our students receive training during the orientation weeks when they join college". Further evidence suggesting the absence of training for lecturers was provided by Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) who observed that,

> I don't remember such platform in which we talked about sexual harassment. I, however, remember that when I arrived here, many other new lecturers arrived in the same year when I did. These things were touched on in the orientation exercise we underwent.

From the evidence presented, it appears orientation programmes for lecturers were offered in the past but these have since been discontinued.

Orientation programmes are complemented by Family Health and Life Skills (FHLS) lectures. FHLS is a subject component in the teacher education curriculum that provides health, sexuality, and life skills education to students. Both students and lecturers acknowledged that FHLS is a mode through which training on SH is provided. In acknowledging this, Tim (College 2 Student) revealed that "the college itself has introduced an FHLS subject in which issues to do with sexual abuse and sexual harassment are addressed". Tim's observations were supported by Mercy (College 2 Student) who also pointed out that "sexual harassment is also mentioned in FHLS lectures".

The students' perception that training on SH is also offered through FHLS lectures was validated by lecturer participants from the 2 colleges. Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) stated that the "FHLS team … teaches students about these things [sexual harassment] throughout the

students' life at college". In stating this, she was supported by Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) who indicated that the responsibility of the FHLS department was, among other things, "to raise awareness on sexual harassment among students".

The data shows that the TCs offer training on SH in the form of orientation programmes and through FHLS lectures into which SH is integrated. While orientation programmes are common modes of SH training delivery (Garcia et al., 2011; Granskog et al., 2018; Oliveira et al., 2018; Swedish Research Council, 2018; Zapp et al., 2018), they are not dedicated SH training programmes. They thus betray a tendency to trivialize SH by making it a tiny component in other programmes. Additionally, orientation programmes are inadequate because of the short time in which they are delivered and their once-off delivery character.

6.4.1.2. Sexual harassment guidance and counselling

In responding to SSH, the TCs' default response is victim guidance and counselling. Lecturers seconded to case management structures and support systems defined their roles as that of guiding and counselling SH victims. Guidance and counselling are offered in the colleges as prevention and response strategies respectively. As a prevention strategy, Clara (College 1 Student) noted that "[students] are always told to dress decently and to avoid visiting lecturers as individuals but in groups". The advice that students should avoid visiting lecturers as individuals but in groups is a rudimentary and underdeveloped bystander approach to preventing SH. As a response strategy, it is written in college 2's SH policy on page 8 that "counselling shall be arranged for the victim with the Health and Life skills Department". In this context, counselling is offered as a post-traumatic psycho-therapy service.

Lecturer participants also concurred that the college offers guidance and counselling as a prevention and response strategy to SH. Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) confirmed this when she stated that there are "many trained counsellors in the college. We display their names so that students are aware of these counsellors". The observation that the colleges offer guidance and counselling to students was also endorsed by Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) who

indicated that "student[s] may approach the FHLS department where they also offer counselling services".

There was evidence from research data that the two TCs provide guidance to students on how they can avoid SH situations that include a rudimentary form of bystander approach in which students are advised to visit lecturers' offices in pairs or groups to minimise vulnerability to SH. In addition to this, both TCs provide psychotherapy in the form of victim counselling immediately following victimisation. Guidance and counselling are common services offered in higher education to at-risk students and victims of SH (Kirk et al., 2017; Daniel et al., 2019; Holland & Cortina, 2017; Lee & Wong, 2019). Quite disconcertingly, however, guidance and counselling services are not extended to lecturers in the TCs to discourage them from SH perpetration. In not offering guidance and counselling to lecturers, the colleges miss on opportunities to go upstream at stem perpetration at the source (Degue et al., 2012; Iverson & Issadore, 2018).

6.4.2. Interpersonal level sexual harassment prevention and response strategies

Under this category, I present data on institutional strategies targeted at the interpersonal or relational level of the social ecology. Strategies operating at this level seek to regulate and direct interactions between institutional members. I, therefore, present data, under the code of conduct regulation in teachers' colleges sub-category.

6.4.2.1. Code of conduct regulation in teachers' colleges

In preventing SH, IHLs provide official regulations on conduct between institutional members. TCs thus must specify acceptable and inacceptable conduct for institutional members as they relate to and with each other in the teaching and learning process. One means of regulating conduct of institutional members is through institutional policies. Research data point to variability with respect to the policy environment in the two colleges. College 2 has an institutional SH policy while college 1 did not have an institutional policy at the time when research fieldwork was conducted. In the absence of an institutional SH policy in college 1, the

college depends, as Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) pointed out, on "the principle of loco-parentis to guide student-lecturer relationships. So, ethically, if you are standing in for the parent, then it becomes unthinkable to have sexual relations with students. It's just an ethical and moral obligation". In addition to ethical principles of loco-parentis, college 1 also relies on statutory instrument 1 of 2000 as evidenced by Mr Calculus (College 1 Lecturer) who observed that the college "depended on statutory instruments. … The instrument would tell us what to do if it were a lecturer being accused of sexual harassment".

College 2, however, had an institutional SH policy that Ms Eros (College 2 Lecturer) alluded to when she pointed out "[students] have been told about sexual harassment and a sexual harassment policy was given to them…members of staff are also aware of this policy". Statements about the existence of a policy in college 2 were confirmed when the institutional policy was availed to the researcher. In its preamble on page 1, the policy proscribes SH "as a form of discrimination [that] will not be tolerated". In addition, the policy in college 2 describes SH, on page 1, as "unlawful conduct". To ensure that the college is clear on the behaviours that it finds offensive and inacceptable, the policy defines and gives examples of what the college considers as SH. Accordingly, the policy offers an adapted United Nations definition of SH as,

> an unwelcome, unwanted, usually repeated, sexually determined behaviour as physical contact and unreciprocated sexual advances, sexually coloured remarks, showing pornography and sexual demands, whether by words or actions. Such conduct can be humiliating and may constitute a health and safety problem; it is discriminatory when the victim has reasonable grounds to believe that his/her objection to the advances would disadvantage his/her studies or employment or when it creates a hostile learning or working environment (p. 2)

The policy enjoins aggrieved parties to report SH to college authorities.

Data from this study demonstrate differences between the two colleges in relation to policy adoption and implementation. These differences reflect the lack of and underline the importance

of guidance at the national or ministerial level on what the SH policy position should be in TCs. In the absence of such guidance, policy adoption and implementation become an institutional discretionary practice leading to variability in policy adoption and implementation between colleges (Lee & Wong, 2019; Mohamed et al, 2014). However, adopting a policy on its own does not guarantee effective policy implementation for there can exist an "apparent gap between words and deeds" (Thomas, 2004, p. 145).

6.4.3. Institutional level sexual harassment prevention and response strategies

The third category-institutional level SH prevention and response strategies-was made up of three sub-categories that included SH case management and support service structures, SH grievance procedures, and collaboration with external agencies (see Table 6.1). I, therefore, present each sub-category separately and show how under each sub-category, the TCs are purportedly preventing and responding to SH.

6.4.3.1. Sexual harassment case management and support services structures

Responding effectively to SH requires that institutions set up student safety, support, and case management structures. These structures demonstrate institutional readiness to deal with SH, reflect institutional intolerance to SH, and commitment to students' health and wellbeing. Case management structures and support services are the launch pads for preventing and responding effectively to SSH. Such structures and systems exist in the TCs in the form of the Student Affairs Department, the Student Support Centre, the Student Representative Council, the peer educator network, and the college clinic. The Student Affairs Department is the nerve centre of institutional responsiveness to SSH and all the other structures fall under its administrative control.

6.4.3.1.1. The student affairs department

The Student Affairs Department is the hub of institutional prevention and response to SSH in TCs. The department oversees and coordinates the activities of several sections under its wing whose mandate is to promote the physical and social wellbeing of students. Among its various

mandates, the Student Affairs Department functions to receive, investigate, process, and resolve student complaints including SH complaints. Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) described the Student Affairs Department as the "department that must also investigate sexual harassment issues. They are supposed to raise awareness about sexual harassment among students and to handle cases of sexual harassment". In corroboration, Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) noted that "students usually come to the Student Affairs Department when they experience sexual harassment".

Student narratives also pointed to the existence of the Student Affairs Department in both colleges. For example, Sue (College 1 Student) hinted that "the student affairs office also offer[s] counselling services to victims of sexual harassment". Similarly, Junis (College 2 Student) attested to the investigative role of the Student Affairs Department when she stated that,

> A victim of harassment reports to the dean of students. The dean requests that the reporting student submit a written complaint. When the report is submitted, the dean carries out investigations. The accused perpetrator is summoned and advised of the allegations levelled against him.

Further evidence of the existence of the Student Affairs Department was contained in college 2's institutional SH policy. The policy document, on page 7, states that "all cases [of sexual harassment] should be reported to the Student Affairs Department".

As the cited exemplars indicate, the Students' Affairs Department, an institutional level structure on the social ecology, carries out several functions related to prevention of and response to SSH. These functions include receiving SSH complaints, investigating received complaints, counselling students, conducting SH awareness and training programmes. The Student Affairs Department is thus the nerve centre of institutional responsiveness to student SH in many IHLs (California State Auditor Report 2013-124, 2014; Latham, 2018).

6.4.3.1.2. The students support centre

In preventing and responding to SSH, the TCs were reported to have a Students Support Centre or a Counselling Centre which is a structure that falls under the Student Affairs Department. Its mandate is to offer informational, grievance handling, and psycho-social services to students. Mr Darwin (College 1 Lecturer) referred the Student Support Centre as the place "where [students] have their own facilities and they have got their own peer advisors". In the words of Mary (College 1 Student), "[students] learn about sexual harassment through the support centre".

Personnel in the Student Support Centre are FHLS lecturers seconded to the centre. These lecturers hold counselling qualifications which make them better placed to offer guidance and counselling to SH victims. For instance, Mrs Green (College 1 Lecturer) intimated that she is "a registered counsellor [who] hold[s] a bachelor of science in counselling and then a masters' degree in student affairs management". Again, Mrs Thatcher (College 1 Lecturer) indicated that she "had a course in Guidance and Counselling".

The Students Support Centre is thus a specialised structure under the Student Affairs Department that is designated with addressing students' issues including SSH. The centre trains and educates students on SH, and offers counselling services to student victims of SH. It thus functions at the organisational layer of the social ecology to empower students with SH information, to process SH complaints, and to provide post-traumatic psycho-social support. Consistent with factor 4 of the four-factor theory of sexual harassment, the Student Support Centre serves to strengthen students' resistance to SH by addressing students' weaknesses such as lack of information about SH and ignorance about institutional grievance procedures (see 2.4.4; 2.5.4).

6.4.3.1.3. The students' representative council

In fulfilling their mandate, the Student Affairs Department and the Students Support Centre are assisted by the Students' Representative Council (SRC). The SRC is an institutionally

recognised elected student body that offers opportunities for students to report SH through their peers. This is attested to by Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) who observed that "the reporting of sexual harassment can be channelled through responsible student bodies such as the SRC". His observations were supported by Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) who noted that they "encourage [their] students to approach any SRC representative" with SH complaints.

The lecturers' reference to the SRC as a reporting structure was corroborated by students in both colleges. For instance, Sam (College 2 Student) concurred that "if a student is sexually harassed at college, the student approaches the SRC gender secretary who then takes the student victim to the dean of students". This was reinforced by Carol (College 2 Student) when she hinted that "a victim of sexual harassment may initiate reporting by informing the SRC which will then take up the case to the dean of students".

Thus, the SRC is an integral component of the institutional SH reporting structure that is most proximal to students. The SRC is a common feature in higher education even though different institutions use different names to refer to it. Again, the SRC is a prevention and response structure that operates at the organisational layer of the social ecology and it can be understood as belonging to factor 3 (overcoming of external inhibitors) as an external inhibitor of SH.

6.4.3.1.4. The network of peer educators

In combatting the scourge of student sexual on campus, the TCs also make use of networks of peer educators. The network of peer educators is a student level institutional structure that works among students in combating SSH. Peer educators primarily function to educate other students about sexual and reproductive health (including SH) that affect students during their years of study on campus. The peer educators are trained by the Students Support Centre in collaboration with external agencies such as SAYWHAT. The functions of the peer educator network in responding to SH include receiving SH complaints from aggrieved students as Mrs Green (College 1 Lecturer) noted that "a student who has been sexually harassed by a lecturer

may find it more comfortable to talk to a peer about their experiences than talking to another lecturer. Trained peer educators advise on procedures to follow"

Additionally, peer educators, like their name implies, function, according to Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) to "raise awareness about sexual harassment among students". This was corroborated by Gail (College 2 Student), a peer educator, who described her role as that of "educat[ing] students on sexual reproduction and how they can navigate their way through college".

The peer network is thus an important cog in institutional responsiveness to SSH in the TCs. Peer educators are students trained in sexual health and reproduction who are deployed to raise awareness about sexual health related issues among students. being students, however, raises questions about their utility as a response structure in that peer educators are also victims of student fear alluded to in 6.3.2.

6.4.3.1.5. The role of college clinic in responding to SH

The college clinic is an important component of the institutional responsiveness to SSH. If the SH is such that it results in physical injuries or involves engagement in risky behaviours, the student may be referred to the clinic for treatment. This function of the clinic is highlighted by Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) when she noted that "after assessing the case as Student Affairs, we can refer the case to […] the clinic sister". Similar functions of the clinic were alluded to by Mrs Green (College 1 Lecturer) who observed that "if we find that a student has been engaging in risky behaviours, we refer them to the clinic for HIV testing and the nurse takes over from there"

Evidence from the study pointed to multiple SH reporting channels for aggrieved students. An intricate reporting and disclosure web that starts with reporting or disclosing to persons within a student's inner circle such as friends thus emerges. The nerve centre of this reporting web is the student affairs office. I represent this web in figure 6.2.

6.4.3.2. Sexual harassment grievance procedures

Grievance procedures are similar in both TCs. Aggrieved students have access to multiple reporting and disclosure options within the victim's immediate ecological layer. Thereafter, the procedure becomes more streamlined and narrower. For example, Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) described the grievance procedure in college 2 in the following words:

> We encourage our students to approach any member of staff or SRC representatives that they trust. However, students usually come to the Student Affairs Department when they experience sexual harassment. If we can't handle the reported case as student affairs, we refer the case to the vice-principal. If the VP feels that the case is bigger than him, he takes it to the principal.

The procedures described by Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) above are like procedures in college 1. Describing grievance procedures in college 1, Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) pointed out that,

> There are multiple reporting avenues open to the student if the student experiences harassment. The first avenue is the student affairs. I am sure the student affairs has structures about how a student can file their complaint. Secondly, the student may approach the FHLS department where they also offer counselling services. The student may also approach anyone that he or she is comfortable with. It could be the warden, a lecturer, the vice-principal.

The grievance procedures outlined by the lecturers were corroborated by students for Sam (College 2 Student) asserted that,

> If a student is sexually harassed at college, the student approaches the SRC gender secretary who then takes the student victim to the dean of students. The case is then discussed at the dean of students' level. In most cases, then dean forwards the case to the vice-principal who, in turn, takes it up to the principal.

The grievance procedure is also outlined in college 2's SH policy. The policy distinguishes between a formal and an informal procedure. According to the policy document on page 7, the formal procedure involves "report[ing] to the Student Affairs Department" while the informal procedure involves, as described on pages 7-8 of the policy document, the person reported to "organis[ing] an informal meeting with the complainant and the alleged offender so that the issue is handled amicably in their presence".

Grievance procedures function at the institutional layer of the social ecology where they serve as external inhibitors (factor 3 of the four-factor theory of sexual harassment). To encourage their utilisation, grievance procedures have to be seen to be fair and to be efficient (Butler & Chung-Yan, 2011). If grievance procedures are negatively perceived, students may not utilise them (Broad et al., 2018; Eyre, 2010). The grievance procedures in the TCs are open and flexible to encourage student reporting of SH. Multiple reporting and disclosure avenues create an intricate reporting and disclosure web which I present in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2

Sexual Harassment Reporting and Disclosure Web

Notes:
- (High level options) Power and authority to sanction offending lecturers
- (High level options) Power and authority to sit over and refer cases involving offending lecturers but no power to sanction
- (Middle level options) Power and authority to receive, counsel and refer victim but not to sit over cases involving offending lecturers. May engage offending lecturer
- (Low level options) Power and authority to receive, advise, and refer bot not to sit over cases involving offending lecturers
- Red broken arrows represent breaches in the reporting procedures
- Reporting and disclosure options

Figure 6.2 illustrates the disclosure and reporting options open to SH victims in the TCs. As shown in Figure 6.2, the TCs have multiple reporting options. At the lowest possible level, victims can report or disclose to friends, SRC members, peer educators, wardens, and lecturers. Victims also have the option of by-passing these low-level options to report directly to the Student Affairs Department and the Student Support Centre. An SH complaint can also be progressively referred up the reporting hierarchy until it gets to the parent ministry. Within the college, there is no structure or office with authority to sanction an offending lecturer. The sanctioning of lecturers is the responsibility of the parent ministry.

6.4.3.3. Institutional collaboration with external agencies in responding to sexual harassment

The TCs also collaborate with external agencies in preventing and responding to SSH. Both lecturer and student participants confirmed collaboration between the colleges and external agencies. For example, Mrs Havisham (College 1 Lecturer) noted that "we have organisations that we collaborate with. For example, SAYWHAT [Students And Youth Working on Reproductive Health Action Team]. We refer students to such organisations". These external agencies organise and facilitate workshops as attested to by Mrs Green (College 1 Lecturer) who claimed that "we attend workshops organized by organizations such as ECOS, SAYWHAT, and CARE international".

Additionally, the colleges, as observed by Sam (College 2 Student) "conduct awareness campaigns in partnership with external organisations such as SAYWHAT. They bring flyers and conduct awareness campaigns". Similar observations were made by James (College 2 Student) who noted that "the college is working together with organisations such as SAYWHAT which are coming to educate us".

Research data indicate that the TCs have multiple prevention and response strategies to SSH. I represent these strategies in Figure 6.3. It should, however, be noted that having several prevention and response strategies as an institution does not translate to effective prevention

and response to lecturer perpetrated SH. What matters most is not how many strategies an institution has but how efficiently and effectively the strategies are deployed and implemented. The crux of preventing and responding to SH lies in the implementation of prevention and response strategies.

Figure 6.3

Sexual Harassment Prevention and Response Strategies in Teachers' Colleges Organized Across the Social Ecology
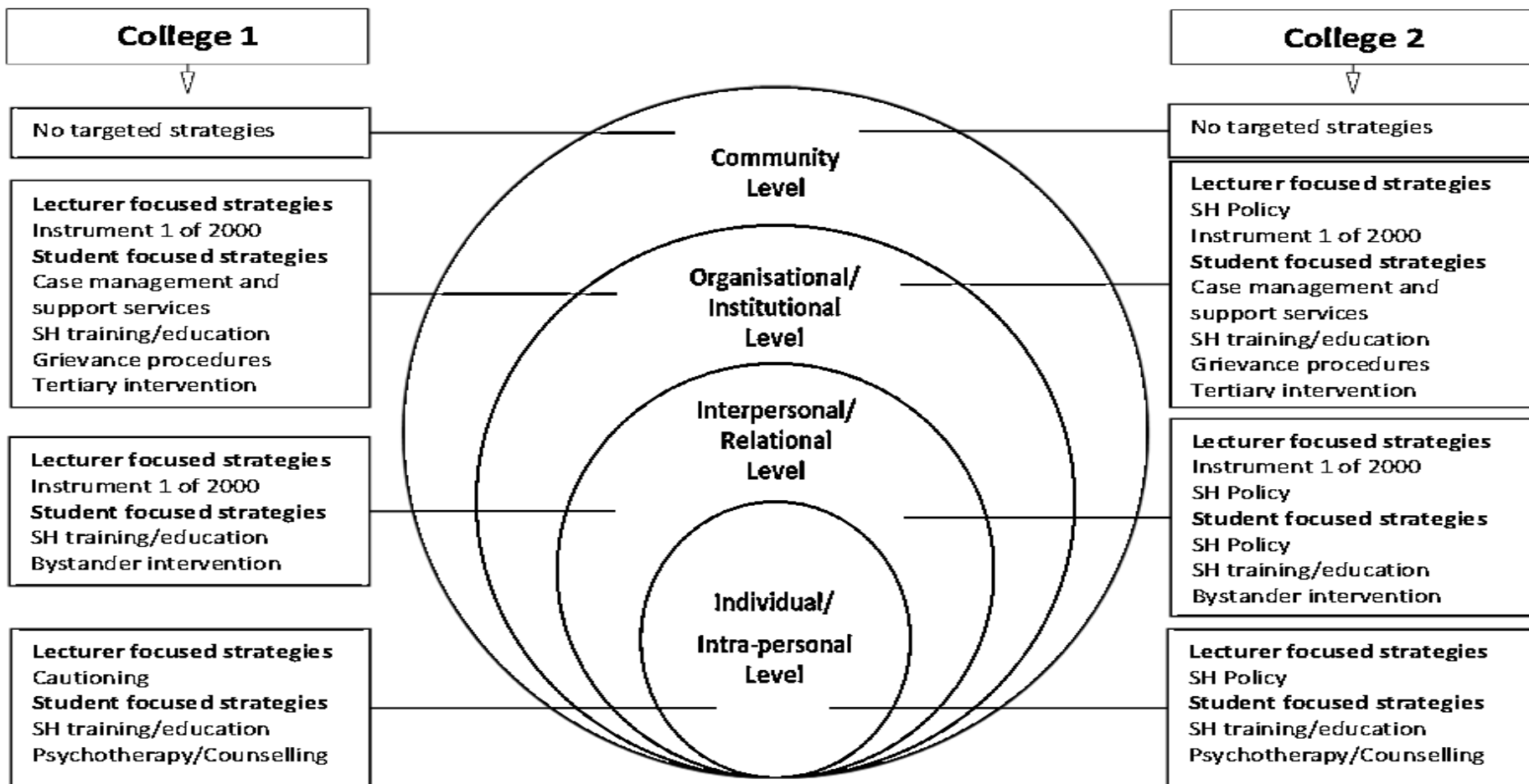
Figure 6.3 highlights similarities and differences in the SH prevention and response strategies adopted in each college. At the individual level, both TCs respond to SH by offering SH training, and victim counselling services. College 1 also cautions perpetrators. At the interpersonal level, college 1 relies on the Public Service Commission Instrument 1 of 2000 while college 2, in addition to the public service instrument 1 of 2000, depends on an institutional SH policy to regulate relations between lecturers and students. Strategies at the institutional level include case management structures, psychotherapy services, and grievance procedures in both TCs. College 2 also has an institutional policy that operates at the institutional level. Both TCs, however, had no strategies at the community level.

6.5. Inadequate and ineffective institutional sexual harassment prevention and response strategies

Recurrent in the qualitative data was the perception that institutional SH prevention and response strategies were largely inadequate and ineffective. This theme consisted of three main categories and six sub-categories (see Table 6.1). I present each category and its related sub-categories below.

6.5.1. Inadequacy and ineffectiveness of case management and support service structures

This category consisted, as shown in Table 6.1, of three sub-categories. These sub-categories reflect participants' perceptions on the effectiveness of case management structures and support service systems. I present data on each sub-category below.

6.5.1.1. Authority deficits of case management structures

Lecturer participants in both colleges indicated that institutional prevention and response structures lacked the requisite authority to handle cases alleging the sexual harassment of students by lecturers. Accordingly, case management structures were handicapped in processing cases involving lecturer perpetrators of SH. In admitting to this lack of authority to process SH cases involving lecturers, Mr Calculus (College 1 Lecturer) pointed out that the disciplinary committee in college 1 "never sat over a case involving a lecturer accused of

sexually harassing a student. In fact, there must have been a clause that the board [disciplinary committee] could not investigate and sit over a case involving a lecturer because we were also lecturers". This lack of authority was corroborated by Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) when she indicated that "after his [the principal] investigations, he may find that he cannot assist the lecturer, he may forward the case to the ministry". This apparent lack of authority to process cases involving lecturers results in reluctance by case management structures to handle cases involving lecturers as reflected in Mrs Theresa's (College 2 Lecturer) response that "I assess the case and determine if I can approach the lecturer concerned. If I think I can't, I refer the case to the vice-principal".

The above lecturer responses indicate that though the institutional prevention and response structures have a mandate to receive and process student complaints, they lack the authority to act on cases alleging lecturer SH of students. In fact, there is no structure within the college, including the office of the principal, that has authority to sanction offending lecturers. Such authority only lies with the relevant parent Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science, Innovation, and Technology Development. This lack of authority to sanction lecturer perpetrators reduces institutional responsiveness to SH to a tragic charade. It is a tragic example of the scarecrow. Once the wild animals it is intended to scare away realise that it's a lifeless thing, they will invade the field without fear. Similarly, when perpetrators realise that the colleges have no authority to sanction them, perpetration will continue unabated. Authority deficits thus weaken external inhibitors of perpetration and allow an individual with a proclivity to harass to overcome institutional external inhibitors (see 2.4.3; 2.5.3). Authority deficits reduce case management structures to mere symbolic structures of no consequence designed to keep up appearances of preventing and responding to SH (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018; Phipps, 2020).

6.5.1.2. Conflicted and overburdened case management personnel

Lecturers and students in both colleges expressed dissatisfaction with institutional case management structures, support services, and grievance procedures. The dissatisfaction stemmed from perceptions that case management structures, support services, and grievance procedures were conflicted. This perception raised doubts about the impartiality of these structures and procedures in processing SH cases involving lecturer perpetrators. Accordingly, Cathy (College 2 Student) represented disenchantment with case management structures when she bemoaned the futility of reporting lecturer perpetrators. She noted that

It's pointless to report because lecturers support each other and cover up for each other.

It's impossible to report one lecturer to another lecturer because the lecturer reported to will just call the accused lecturer and talk to him informally and that will be the end of it.

Similar sentiments were expressed in college 1 with Tom (College 1 Student) intimating that reporting one lecture to another lecturer is "a waste of time [and] not an easy thing". Lecturer participants also concurred that students may not find it comfortable to report one lecturer to another lecturer. For instance, Mr Darwin (College 1 Lecturer) observed that

[Students] sure can be afraid to report one lecturer to another lecturer […] they think these people are the same and really reporting this one to that one is like going to the very same person who is victimizing you and trying to report something.

The same concerns were raised in college 2 with Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) noting that

It's not easy for students to report one lecturer to another lecturer […] the student may be scared to report one lecturer to another lecturer because the student may not be sure about how the reported case may be processed.

The above exemplars demonstrate a shared student and lecturer dissatisfaction with reporting configurations that require victims to report a lecturer perpetrator of SH to another lecturer seconded to case management structures and support systems. Grievance procedures that require victims to report a harassing lecturer to another lecturer do not inspire trust and

confidence in the system. Accordingly, both student and lecturer participants raised pertinent questions about the impartiality of lecturers tasked with receiving and processing victims' complaints about other lecturers' harassing behaviours.

Furthermore, Lecturers seconded to the case management structures and support systems also reported that work overload compromised their effectiveness in assisting student victims. The work overload stems from these lecturers doubling up as lecturers with full teaching responsibilities and as case management personnel. Working in the case management structures thus becomes an additional responsibility. Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) alluded to compromised efficiency when she noted that "since we are doubling up as support service staff and lecturers, sometimes we get overwhelmed resulting in our failure to assist students satisfactorily". Her concerns were also expressed by Mrs Havisham (College 1 Lecturer) when she intimated that "it's not easy to reconcile being a lecturer and providing support services to students. It's too much work for one person. So, we end up doing what is humanly possible. You assist those you can assist".

Work overload thus compromises the effectiveness of service delivery in the case management structures and support systems.

6.5.1.3. Personality and skills deficits of case management personnel

Students also expressed disenchantment with case management personnel. Case management personnel were described as rude, discourteous, inconsiderate, and hostile. These personnel characteristics make both the staff and the structures they work in inaccessible. For instance, Grace (College 1 Student) alleged that

> the moment you get there [case management structure], before you even present your case, you are harassed and asked what you want from them. They start harassing you about the way you are dressed and the way you are walking.

The same sentiments were expressed by Eva (College 2 Student) when she noted that "apart

from sexual harassment, lecturers scold and demean students to the extent that students become scared of them". Furthermore, John (College 1 Student) described case management personnel in college 1 in unflattering language as "belligerent like a bulldog that has been released and instructed to go and bite someone". Additionally, students alleged a generational disconnect between them and the case management personnel that renders such personnel unapproachable. For instance, Sue (College 1 Student) suggested that

> it is important to staff the support centre with people who are not far removed from the generation of students who are coming into college now. We have grannies in the support centre who are stuck in old beliefs and values and are out of touch with modern trends.

In terms of knowledge and skills, case management personnel tend to have some qualification in counselling as indicated by Mrs Green (College 1 Lecturer) that she is "a registered counsellor". Similarly, Mrs Thatcher (College 1 Lecturer) indicated that she had taken "a course in Guidance and Counselling". These exemplars indicate that there is a preponderance to staff the case management structures with lecturers who either hold some counselling qualification or who have done a degree programme in which guidance and counselling is a component. Additionally, there is an expressed need for capacitation through training workshops. Mrs Theresa (College 2 Lecturer) admitted to this need when she observed that "it's critical that we do special programmes to empower us to assist students satisfactorily".

6.5.2. Inadequacy and ineffectiveness of training on sexual harassment

The TCs offer SH training and education in the form of orientation programmes for newly enrolled students. training and education on SH is also offered as a component of a subject called Family Health and Life Skills. While SH training and education were considered important, they were mostly perceived as inadequate and ineffective. The category-inadequacy and ineffectiveness of SH education and training-consists of two sub-categories. I present data on each sub-category below.

6.5.2.1. Infrequent and inadequate training opportunities

In responding to SSH, the TCs offer SH training and education in the form of orientation programmes to students. Orientation programmes are short programmes run in the first two weeks of the first term for newly enrolled students. Though considered important, orientation programmes were perceived as ineffective in addressing SH because they were insufficient, infrequent, and lacked follow-up. Accordingly, Mary (College 1 Student) lamented that

> Awareness campaigns should be held regularly and not just once when people from the support centre teach us during orientation when we join college. It ends with orientation. They don't come back for follow-up campaigns to reinforce what they teach us during orientation.

Similar sentiments were shared by Eva (College 2 Student) when she observed that "the college does not teach us about sexual harassment on a regular or frequent basis".

Lecturer participants were also critical of sexual harassment training in the form of orientation programmes. For example, Mr Darwin (College 1 Lecturer) bemoaned the ritualistic nature of orientation programmes when he stated that "sometimes I think the orientation [is] just a routine kind of programme which doesn't sound authentic even to the students". Additionally, there appears to be no dedicated SH training in the colleges for orientation programmes offer, in the words of Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) "training on many issues. Sexual harassment is a small component of that training". Even in FHLS lectures, Mrs Green (College 1 Lecturer) noted that "sexual harassment is just a component of comprehensive sexuality education just like other issues like domestic violence".

While students acknowledge that college 1 and college 2 offer training in the form of orientation programmes, the student participants also viewed such programmes as insufficient and lacking follow-up. Students thus think it is important that there be regular follow-up to orientation programmes and that such training and education programmes be offered in sufficient doses to be effective.

In addition to SH training insufficiency, lecturers raised concerns about the authenticity of orientation programmes. These concerns indicate that orientation, as currently practiced in the TCs, is not meaningful but just a calendar event that has degenerated into a mere ritual that even the students do not take seriously. Accordingly, there exist dissatisfaction in both students and lecturers on the efficacy of orientation programmes as institutional prevention and response strategies to SSH in the TCs.

6.5.2.2. Student focused sexual harassment training and education

Participants also dismissed SH training and education as inadequate and ineffective because the programmes only had a student focus. There were hardly any training programmes designed for lecturers. For example, Mrs Slytherin (College 1 Lecturer) noted that there is not "anything being done directed to lecturers and other workers but our students receive training during the orientation weeks when they join college". This observation was reinforced by Mr Einstein (College 1 Lecturer) when he noted that he has not "received formal sexual harassment training from college in the form of staff development". Given the lack of SH training opportunities for lecturers, Sue (College 1 Student) implored that "lecturers … be exposed to [SH] workshops to revise their conduct with students".

The exemplars above demonstrate that SH training and education in the TCs is offered to students and not to lecturers. As such, SH training and education is target or victim focused and is not extended to lecturers who are at-risk of perpetration. Accordingly, SH training and education is deficient in that it is target or victim focused and not also perpetrator focused even though prior studies have demonstrated that SH decreases when perpetration is made the target of prevention and response efforts.

6.5.3. Ineffective sexual harassment policy implementation

Under this category I present data on students and lecturers' perceptions on policy effectiveness. Perceptual differences were observed between lecturers and students regarding SH policy effectiveness. The overriding perception, however, was that the SH policy in college

2 was ineffective because of policy ignorance. Policy ignorance is thus a sub-category under the category SH ineffectiveness.

6.5.3.1. Stakeholders' ignorance of policy on SH

In principle, all study participants in both TCs acknowledged the importance of a zero-tolerance policy in combating SSH. However, college 1 did not have an institutional zero-tolerance policy at the time when fieldwork for this study was conducted. Though college 2 had a policy on SH, there was no consensus between lecturers and students on the efficacy of policy implementation. Despite its existence, however, most students in college 2 did not perceive the institutional SH policy as effective for, according to Junis (College 2 Student) "the students are not aware of the policy. [they] have not seen. If it is there then it must be widely circulated so that we all get to be familiar with it". In college 1, Nikita (College 1 Student) professed total ignorance of an SH policy when she indicated that "if there is a policy, we have not yet heard about it". To overcome policy ignorance, Sally (College 2 Student) indicated that "the policy must be widely circulated so that students are aware of it"

Even though students in college 2 intimated that they were unaware of the college's SH policy, lecturers in the college perceived the policy as an adequate instrument that was widely circulated to both lecturers and students. Accordingly, there were inconsistencies between lecturers and students' perception on policy implementation in college 2. For example, Mr Bismark (College 2 Lecturer) noted that "we have empowered our students. They have been told about sexual harassment and a sexual harassment policy was given to them. They have it. Members of staff are also aware of this policy". This view was also shared by Ms Eros (College 2 Lecturer) when she pointed out that "I would like to think that what the college is doing is adequate because our policy states that the student is the number one client and because of that students' concerns are taken seriously".

There is, therefore, consensus among students that the institutional policy is not widely shared with students which renders it ineffective. However, the student perception differed from that

of lecturers in the college who emphasised on the existence of an institutional policy that they described as shared with every constituency of the campus community.

6.6. Discussion of key observations from qualitative data

The qualitative strand of this mixed methods study sought to complement and build on the quantitative results discussed in the preceding chapter. The data generated in this phase of the study addressed even research questions that were designated as quantitative questions in chapter 1. Thus, the data provide answers to questions on the extent of SSH in the TCs, perceptions on institutional tolerance for SSH, institutional responsive strategies, and perceptions on the effectiveness of institutional responsive strategies to SSH. This section thus discusses the research findings that address these research questions.

6.6.1. The scourge of sexual harassment in teachers' colleges

One major observation from this study was that SSH is pervasive in the TCs of this study with male lecturers and female students respectively identified as perpetrators and victims. This observation is consistent with prior studies (Bloom et al, 2021; Das, 2015; Dykstra-Devette & Tarin, 2019; Hill & Silva, 2005; Marshall et al, 2014; Morley, 2011; Tlou, 2014). SH perpetration was found to be driven by lust, unrequited sexual overtures, and abuse of institutional authority. These perpetration drivers fall under factor 1 (the motivation to harass) of the four-factor theory and are largely located in the intra-personal layer of the social ecology even though abuse of power originates from the organisational layer of the social ecology (see 2.4.1; 2.5.1). This highlights the interaction between variables across layers of the social ecology in facilitating SH perpetration.

While there was consensus that SH is pervasive, it emerged that being a lecturer and having some administrative responsibilities predisposed one to downplay the pervasiveness of SSH by citing the absence or thinness of documented complaint reports as suggestive of a peripheral or a non-existent problem. This finding reinforces previous conclusions that underreporting distorts the magnitude of SH and creates the illusion that SH is a non-existent or a marginal

problem (Mellgren et al, 2018; Namaganda et al, 2021). In support of existing literature and factor 3 (the overcoming of external inhibitors) of the four-factor theory of SH which states that privacy of work space increases chances of both perpetration and victimisation (see 2.4.4; 2.5.3), SH was found to occur mainly in lecturers' offices that guarantee seclusion and privacy (Mohamed et al, 2014; The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016; O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998).

The study also revealed that female students are at heightened risk of victimisation (see 6.2.1.3). This corroborates earlier research findings (Aguilar & Baek, 2020; Bovill et al., 2019; European Parliament, 2019; Lorenz et al, 2019). Within this at-risk of victimisation category, however, students with academic challenges, students with stereotypical feminine bodies, and students who dress indecently were at more heightened risk of victimisation (Chukwudi & Gbakorun, 2011; Haruna, 2014: Kur, 2012; Mohamed et al, 2014; Norman et al, 2013; Synovitz et al, 1998). In contributing new knowledge, this study established that gregarious students who are overly friendly and outgoing with lecturers are also at heightened risk of victimisation for their conduct could be misconstrued as invitations to sexual relationships which could trigger lecturer harassing behaviours. These student risk factors operate at the intrapersonal level of the socio-ecological framework and are reflective of factor 4 (the overcoming of victim resistance) of the four-factor theory of SH that embodies target level characteristics that heighten target vulnerability to victimisation or weaken target resistance to SH (see 2.4.4; and 2.5.4).

6.6.2. Institutional tolerance to sexual harassment

This study also established tolerance for SH with institutional betrayal and an atmosphere of student fear being constituent elements of a climate of SH tolerance in the colleges. This finding corroborates prior research (Hart et al., 2018; Hersch, 2015; Hill & Silva, 2005; Johansson et al., 2018; Knapp, 2015; Phipps, 2020). Institutional betrayal manifested in the form of incapacitated college case management structures that lack authority to properly investigate and

appropriately sanction lecturer SH perpetrators. Even the highest office in the colleges, the office of the principal, does not have the authority to sanction lecturer perpetrators. The principal can only refer an offending lecturer to the parent ministry which retains the authority to sanction lecturer SH perpetrators. Setting up case management structures and then not investing in them the required authority to discharge their mandate is a classic example of institutional betrayal. It is a window dressing gesture that creates and sustains the illusion that the institution is being responsive to SSH when, in fact, it is not. Resultantly, investigations and hearings that follow formal student complaints of SH are a farce for the perpetrator is almost always never appropriately and proportionately sanctioned. Accordingly, the recurrent perception that nothing gets done to perpetrators betrays institutional incapacity to sanction lecturer perpetrators of SSH.

In addition, the TCs betrayed SH victims by seconding lecturers as staff to the case management structures and support systems. There exists scepticism regarding the partiality of lecturers seconded to case management structures given that such lecturers are work colleagues with and of the same status as reported perpetrators (see 6.5.1.2). This scepticism leads to underutilisation of the structures for justice and satisfactory resolution of reported cases are least expected from conflicted and incapacitated case management structures (Holland & Cortina, 2017). Underutilisation of the case management structures breeds SH underreporting which, in turn, promotes SH perpetration (Peirce et al, 1997). In establishing this scepticism about the impartiality of lecturers seconded to case management structures as staff, this study resonates with prior studies (Namaganda et al, 2021; Elkins et al, 2008). Conflicted and incapacitated institutional SH case management structures thus reflect institutional betrayal and nurture the perception that the institutions studied are tolerant of SH.

The study also found that case management structures were also inaccessible (see 6.3.1.2). The personalities of case management and support services staff discouraged targets and victims from accessing the structures and services. Lecturers deployed to these structures were found

to be rude, discourteous, inconsiderate, and hostile. These personality attributes discouraged victims from seeking and accessing important services. Accordingly, as prior research has demonstrated, structures and systems that do not inspire confidence or are inaccessible increase targets/victims' reluctance to file complaints (Bloom et al, 2021; Broad et al, 2018; Dykstra-DeVette & Tarin, 2019; Holland & Cortina, 2017; Johns Hopkins University, 2019). Additionally, a culture of lecturer incivility within the TCs discouraged victims of SH from seeking and accessing help. This study finding thus concurs with earlier findings that SH and incivility co-occur for a culture of incivility condones SH perpetration (Cunningham et al., 2021; Ollo-López & Nuñez, 2018; Robotham & Cortina, 2019; Thomas, 2015; Wood & Toppelberg, 2017). The finding that case management structures are inaccessible to victims is evidence of institutional betrayal and institutional tolerance for SH.

Institutional betrayal was found to also take the form of perpetrator protection (see 6.3.1.3). When an institution wittingly or unwittingly extends protection to perpetrators, it creates conditions that facilitate perpetration and inhibit SH reporting. In the TCs, perpetrator protection was exhibited through reluctance to engage with reported harassers and through failure to appropriately sanction offending lecturers (Bloom et al, 2021; Dykstra-DeVette & Tarin, 2019; Namaganda et al, 2021). Institutional failure to engage with and appropriately sanction offending lecturers is tantamount to institutional betrayal and communicates institutional tolerance of SH through condoning perpetration and discouraging victim reporting (Johns Hopkins University, 2019; Molla & Cuthbert, 2014). Perpetrator protection thus promotes the perception that it is futile to report harassers because nothing will be done to them while reporting students experience retaliation and stigmatisation which compounds their suffering (Dykstra-DeVette & Tarin, 2019; Molla & Cuthbert, 2014).

It also emerged from the study that the TCs betrayed at-risk student populations by engendering a climate that trivialises and normalises SH (see 6.3.1.4). SH normalisation and trivialisation indicate institutional tolerance for SH. When SH is normalised and trivialised, institutions do

not feel obliged to treat cases of SH with the seriousness they deserve, student complainants are not taken seriously, students choose not to report incidents of SH, and harassers are not appropriately sanctioned (Broad et al, 2018; Thomas, 2015). In college environments that trivialise and normalise SH, SH is regarded as an expected outcome of lecturer and student interactions (Dykstra-DeVette & Tarin, 2019). SH normalisation and trivialisation function to discourage reporting by making SH a normal student experience on college campus. Additionally, SH normalisation and trivialisation discourage student reporting and foster notions that student victims should address SH by lecturers on their own or keep quiet about it because they are adults. By expecting victims to manage their experiences with SH, the TCs renege on their obligation to protect and promote student welfare. This finding supports previous research conclusions that SH normalization and trivialization result in victims being blamed and stigmatised for SH reporting (Avendaño, 2018).

In addition to the above, this study also established a pervading atmosphere of student fear that feeds into institutional tolerance for SH. Students were found to be afraid of retaliation for reporting lecturer SH, of being blamed for own victimisation, and of being stigmatised (see 6.3.2). The power asymmetries between lecturers and students in which the latter are dependent on the former for academic success present opportunities for lecturer retaliation (Bakari & Leach, 2009; Dhlomo et al., 2012; Kur, 2012; Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Harris et al, 2018; Herovic et al, 2019; Jacobs et al, 2015; Shumba & Matina, 2002; Sundaresh et al, 2013; Bloom et al, 2021; Whitley & Page, 2015). This finding resonates with prior research that has reported student fear of reporting lecturer perpetrators of SSH (Bloom et al, 2021; Johns Hopkins University, 2019). With the scales of power tilted against them, students can neither hardly resist nor report lecturer perpetrated SH (Aguilar & Baek, 2020; Joseph, 2015; Morley, 2011; Namaganda et al, 2021; Whitley & Page, 2015). Thus, this study buttresses previous research conclusions that power and authority are key organisational drivers of SH (Bloom et al, 2021;

Kapila, 2017; Okoroafor et al, 2014; Pina & Gannon, 2012; Rubino et al, 2018). Student fear of retaliation thus betrays institutional tolerance for SH.

Study findings also suggest that victim blaming is a norm in the studied TCs. Accordingly, SH victims refrain from reporting lecturer perpetrated SH because they fear being blamed for own victimisation. Institutions in which victim blaming is rife have a propensity to neither believe nor take victims and their complaints seriously. Such institutions are prejudiced against victims and make it impossible for victims to be believed. They are, therefore, SH tolerant. Victims of SH were blamed for seeking to pass through favours from their lecturers, for allegedly dressing provocatively, and for being overly friendly to and outgoing with lecturers. These victim characteristics, prior research has established, heighten student vulnerability to SSH (Goldner, 2018; Haruna, 2014; Synovitz &Byrne, 1998). The outcomes of victim blaming are that it simultaneously inhibits SSH reporting for reports will not be believed and encourages perpetration by absolving perpetrators of responsibility for their harassing behaviours while holding victims or targets responsible for own victimisation. Thus, the perception that victim blaming is rife in the TCs feeds into the overall perception that campus climates in the studied TCs are tolerant of SSH.

Overall, study findings indicate the interaction between several factors that, together, build a shared perception that the TCs are tolerant of SSH. Though this was a shared perception, students were, however, found to be more negative than lecturers in their perception of institutional tolerance for SSH. The factors that feed into the main study finding that the TCs are SH tolerant fall under two broad categories of institutional betrayal and atmosphere of student fear (see 6.3).

6.6.3. Institutional SH prevention and response strategies

Among the objectives of this study was to unearth the SH prevention and response strategies implemented in TCs. To this end, study findings demonstrate no substantial differences in the TCs' SH prevention and response efforts. In responding to SSH, the TCs have an assortment of

structures and systems in place despite these structures and systems not being expressly dedicated to SH prevention. These include case management structures and support systems, SH training and education, victim guidance and counselling, codes of conduct to regulate relations between lecturers and students, grievance procedures, and collaboration with external agencies. The similarity in responding to SSH reflects the fact that both TCs are government-run institutions and are thus similarly structured.

The TCs have responsive case management structures and support systems in place to manage and address SSH and other related student issues. This is consistent with findings from earlier studies that have identified multiple case management structures in IHLs such as Women's Resources Centres, Offices of Violence Prevention, Counselling and Psychological Services Centre, Health Centre, Student Health and Wellness Centres, Office of Institutional Equity/Title IX coordinator (Bystrynski and Allen, 2017; Latham, 2018; Johns Hopkins University, 2019). However, findings from this study depart from existing literature in that case management structures in the TCs are not SH dedicated structures which implies that the TCs have no specialised structures to deal with SH. At the core of institutional responsive structures in the TCs is the Student Affairs Department whose mandate is oversight over students' welfare. This oversight function includes receiving and processing students' grievances such as SH complaints. It is to this department that student victims of SH are expected to file their complaints.

Study findings also indicate that the TCs have a Student Support Centre set up to receive, among many other issues, SH complaints, provide psycho-social support, and offer training on sexual reproductive health. The Students Support Centre operates under the Student Affairs Department. FHLs lecturers are seconded to the unit to manage and provide services to students. Lecturers seconded to the Student Support Centre are either certified counsellors or individuals with some qualification in counselling. This betrays an institutional propensity to deal with SH victimisation than perpetration.

The TCs also partner external agencies such as Students And Youth Working on Reproductive Health Action Team (SAYWHAT) in combating SH on campus. This finding is consistent with research conclusions by Amar et al (2014) that universities invited community agencies to provide SH training on campus. In collaboration with external agencies, the Student Support Centre trains and manages a network of peer educators drawn from the student population. The peer educator network is an important cog in addressing SH that works to educate students on issues that affect them on campus such as SH (Amar et al, 2014). Additionally, student victims of SH may also approach peer educators with their complaints. Upon receiving these complaints, peer educators are expected to guide complainants on which offices to approach and on how to process their complaints. Peer educators represent a reporting and disclosure option most proximal to students.

In addition to the structures discussed above, the colleges also have a Student Representative Council whose functions include, inter-alia, receiving SH complaints from student victims and assisting students in filing formal reports. Also working under the Student Affairs Department are hostel wardens responsible for student welfare in residence halls. Victims of SH may also report victimisation through hostel wardens who are then expected to forward such reports to student affairs.

In addition to institutional structures and systems, the TCs offer SH education and training. SH education and training are offered as part of orientation programmes and infused into Family Health and Life Skills lectures. This finding is consistent with findings from several studies that report that IHLS hold orientation programmes for incoming students (Amar et al, 2014; Cantor et al, 2017; McDonald, 2019; Cantor et al, 2015; Cantor et al, 2019; Garcia et al, 2011). Orientation programmes are run as a once off programme in the first two weeks of students' first year in college. It is during these programmes that students are educated about what SH is and the procedures to follow if they are sexually harassed. In addition to SH training, the TCs also offer guidance and counselling. The study found guidance and counselling to be victim

focused and motivated to make the victim come to terms with their victimisation. Out of this guidance and counselling emerged a rudimentary or underdeveloped bystander approach that is not formally acknowledged as a prevention and response strategy. In this rudimentary bystander approach, students are advised to visit lecturers in their offices as pairs or in groups to inhibit perpetration by breaking the privacy and seclusion that offices provide. This finding departs from prior studies that have documented the formal adoption and implementation of bystander strategies in preventing and responding to SH (Banyard et al., 2018; Camp et al., 2018; Coker et al., 2019; Edwards et al.; 2017; Elias-Lambert & Black, 2016; Kettrey & Tanner-Smith, 2017; Mabry & Turner, 2016; Marine & Nicolazzo, 2017; Miller, 2018). There is need to formalise this bystander approach and implement it to the fullest for bystander intervention is an established evidence-based SH prevention strategy.

While the TCs are similar in the responsive strategies described, they are different in respect of policy. College 2 has an institutional SH policy while college 1 did not have a policy at the time when this study was conducted. However, college 1 was reported to be in the process of developing an institutional policy. This difference in institutional policy adoption could be a result of the absence of constitutional or ministerial mandates requiring TCs to adopt and implement zero-tolerance policies. Accordingly, adopting a policy is an institutional prerogative.

6.6.4. Inadequate and ineffective institutional sexual harassment prevention and response strategies

The TCs recognise their duty of care responsibility towards students. To this end, they have instituted and deployed a variety of strategies to address SSH on campus. However, field data indicate that institutional SH prevention and response strategies are perceived as both inadequate and ineffective. Accordingly, there exist dissatisfaction with institutional responsive strategies.

6.6.4.1. Inadequate and ineffective SH case management and support service structures

Study findings indicate that the TCs have a multiple reporting system that allows student victims choice on which persons and structures to approach with an SH complaint. Both lecturers and students acknowledged the importance of multiple disclosure and reporting structures available to SH victims. Participants noted that multiple disclosure and reporting structures gave victims the latitude to approach those persons and structures that victims were most comfortable with thereby increasing the chances of students reporting lecturer perpetrated SH. Despite this multiplicity in reporting and disclosure options, students indicated reluctance to report sexual victimisation and case management and support services staff acknowledged that SSH is an underreported problem in the TCs. This, thus suggests that there is an underutilisation of reporting channels that betrays a lack of confidence in the reporting system. Accordingly, having multiple reporting channels in place does not guarantee their utilisation. TCs need to inspire confidence in the reporting avenues if students are to utilise them.

Study participants were also dissatisfied with personnel seconded to case management structures and systems. The TCs staff the case management structures and support systems with lecturers. Participants perceived seconding lecturers to case management structures and support services as unacceptable for they argued that such persons are compromised and conflicted in handling and processing SH cases involving other lecturers. Accordingly, it was perceived as ineffectual to report an offending lecturer to another lecturer. Prior studies have documented scepticism about the impartiality of internal grievance handling personnel in IHLs (Namaganda et al, 2021). Accordingly, participants in this study intimated a preference for case management and support services to be staffed by non-teaching staff and be located off campus. In establishing students' lack of confidence in case management personnel and a preference for staffing case management structures with non-teaching staff, this study validates findings from studies by Elkins et al (2008) and Holland and Cortina (2017). On one hand, Elkins et al established that participants perceived internal investigators as biased and demonstrated a

preference for pursuing the legal route in having their SH complaints satisfactorily resolved. On the other hand, Holland and Cortina concluded that student participants in their study did not perceive institutional case management as effective for they feared that reporting an incident of SH would lead to inappropriate consequences for themselves or that their complaints would not be believed or satisfactorily acted upon.

Additionally, staffing the case management structures and support systems with lecturers was also perceived as compromising the efficiency of case management structures in processing student complaints because lecturers seconded to case management structures are of the same status as the lecturers reported for SSH. Consequently, such lecturers lack the authority and power to investigate and sanction other lecturers. Students thus expressed a lack of confidence in the case management and support system for there are no guarantees that their complaints would be taken seriously and that harassers would be appropriately sanctioned. In fact, students expressed fear that reporting lecturers for SH would only serve to bring trouble to the reporting student. In establishing this lack of confidence in the case management and support system, this study corroborates conclusions by Peirce et al (1997) that institutional policies and procedures were inadvertently discouraging the reporting of SH because their implementation did not inspire confidence in the policy and grievance handling procedures. To increase the efficiency of case management structures, therefore, it was felt that there was a need to staff case management structures and support systems with non-lecturing personnel. Doing so, it was argued, would increase victim confidence in the case management structures and support systems.

The study also established student disenchantment with the personalities of lecturers seconded to case management structures and support systems. Lecturers seconded to case management structures and support services were reported to be rude, hostile, discourteous, and indifferent to students' needs. These personnel traits rendered the case management structures and support services inaccessible to students. Additionally, students harboured fears about confiding in such

lecturers because the lecturers could not be trusted to confidentially treat students' SH reports and to guarantee victims' anonymity. Students intimated that they feared reporting because they could be used as examples during lectures when case management and support services personnel assume their teaching responsibilities. The personalities of lecturers seconded to case management structures and support services thus jeopardise the effectiveness of those structures and services by discouraging victim reporting of SH. This finding resonates with earlier findings by Bloom et al (2021) who established entrenched cynicism about the adequacy of university systems in protecting graduate students and their anonymity following the filing of SH complaints. Participants in this present study thus emphasised the need to staff case management structures and support services with empathetic staff. Students also introduced a new dimension to staffing of case management structures in which they communicated a need to staff the structures with personnel of students' generation or those close to students' generation to ensure that there is no generational disconnect between staff and the students.

Findings also point to students' lack of trust in the case management and support system because of a glaring absence of lecturers who had been appropriately sanctioned for sexually harassing students. They alleged that known harassers walked the campus environments freely and persisted in harassing students without remorse and any fear of reprisals. This is consistent with findings by Namaganda et al (2021) who established that student participants in their study perceived institutional strategies as ineffective because reporting was almost always followed by institutional inaction. The same cynicism about institutions taking any action against harassers was also established in a climate survey of the university of Manitoba in which students intimated that they did not report cases of sexual assault because they were cynical about the institution doing anything regarding their complaints (Sexual Violence Steering Committee University of Manitoba, 2019). Similarly, Peirce et al (1997) found that respondents in their study were sceptic about complaints being taken seriously and harassers being appropriately sanctioned. The absence of past and present appropriately sanctioned offending

lecturers nurtures the perception that institutional responsive strategies are both weak and ineffective. Such a perception, in turn, breeds hopelessness and a sense of futility in reporting lecturer perpetrators of SH.

Furthermore, the study established work overload for lecturers seconded to the case management structures that compromised personnel efficiency in processing complaints and offering support to student victims. When seconded to case management structures and support services, lecturers do not shed off their lecturing responsibilities. As such, they must shoulder both the responsibilities of being lecturers and of being case management and support service providers. They thus ae overburdened and this overburdening compromises their discharge of responsibilities in the case management structures and support systems.

6.6.4.2. Inadequacy and ineffectiveness of training on sexual harassment

SH training and education is provided in the studied TCs mainly in the form of orientation programmes offered as a once off two-weeks session to freshmen in their first term at college. Consistent with findings by Jozkowski et al (2015), participants in this study perceived orientation programmes as inherently important in raising awareness about SH among students, informing them on the grievance procedures, and educating them on how they can avoid harassment.

An emergent study finding on SH training was that orientation programmes implemented in the TCs are victimisation and not perpetration oriented. Accordingly, orientation programmes in the TCs are student and not lecturer focused. There are currently no SH training opportunities for lecturers. Orientation programmes that have an exclusive focus on students fall short on efficacy because they do not reach an entire population irrespective of risk (Evans, 2010; McDonald et al, 2016; Swedish Research Council, 2018). Participants were thus justified in calling for SH training programmes for lecturers. SH training programmes for lecturers are important if TCs are sincere in addressing SSH because such programmes target those institutional members at heightened risk of SH perpetration. If SH is to be addressed, then more

efforts should be expended on preventing perpetration for significant reductions in SH can only be realised when perpetration is made the focal point of intervention (DeGue et al., 2012).

The study also established that even though there is some satisfaction with orientation programmes, there is also cynicism about the authenticity of orientation programmes. It was argued by some participants that orientation programmes had been reduced to a ritual or a college calendar event of no significance to both the institution and the students. This is consistent with observations that SH training is merely a symbolic gesture with no demonstrable effect outcomes on the prevention of SH (Roehling & Huang, 2018; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018). Additionally, orientation programmes were described as covering a plethora of issues relevant to students joining college and SH was one of those issues touched on during orientation programmes. Accordingly, participants raised pertinent questions about the adequacy of orientation programmes as SH training platforms.

This study findings also indicate dissatisfaction with the once-off nature of orientation programmes. Orientation programmes were perceived as inadequate. Accordingly, students bemoaned what they referred to as the lack of follow-up programmes. Participants indicated a need to constantly reinforce orientation programmes with subsequent programmes throughout the students' life on campus. This finding is consistent with findings from a UK study by Hennelly et al (2019) in which student participants expressed the need for constant training to improve awareness in both perpetrators and victims on what is acceptable and inacceptable behaviour as well as educating the campus community on whom to approach, where to take a complaint to, and how to report. In addition, findings indicate doubts about the authenticity of orientation programmes. While findings from this study corroborate those from Hennelly et al, they diverge with findings from a study by Garcia et al. (2011) that found orientation programmes to be extremely effective in providing training on SH.

6.6.4.3. Inadequacy and ineffectiveness of institutional policies on sexual harassment

This study established variability in policy adoption and implementation in the two college case sites with college 2 having an institutional SH policy and college 1 note having one. Such variability in policy adoption and implementation has been established in other jurisdictions (Mohamed et al., 2014). Variability in policy adoption and implementation is attributable to the absence of constitutional guidance for policy adoption and implementation in higher education (Lee & Wong, 2019). The lack of constitutional guidance on policy adoption and implementation makes policy adoption an institutional remains an institutional discretionary practice resulting in some institutions adopting and implementing policies and others not doing so. This highlights the importance of having a constitutional framework that drives and monitors policy adoption and implementation in higher education such as Title IX of the 1972 Educational Amendments Actin the United States of America.

In college 2 where there was an institutional policy, findings indicate perceptual differences between lecturers and students on policy effectiveness. Lecturers in the college believed that the policy was an effective tool in containing SSH. However, students were sceptical about policy effectiveness because they argued that they were ignorant of the policy despite claims by lecturer participants that the policy was widely circulated to students and other campus communities. Findings from this study that students are ignorant of the institutional policy on SH are consistent with findings from earlier studies (Firestone & Harris, 2003; Norman et al., 2013; Peirce et al., 1997; Singh et al., 2016; see also 3.4). Policy ignorance reflects deficits in implementation that result in policies being of no significant consequence (Thomas, 2004; Marshall et al., 2014). Adopting a policy, therefore, is no guarantee of policy effectiveness for, according to Reese and Lindenberg (2004, p. 114), "the 'devil is in the details' of policy implementation". It is how a policy is implemented that is critical to policy effectiveness and not the mere adoption of a policy. A policy that is poorly implemented only serves to maintain appearances that an institution is doing something to prevent and to respond to SH.

6.7. Chapter summary

This chapter presented and discussed data generated during the qualitative phase of this study. Study findings indicate that SH is a pervasive scourge in the TCs with male lecturers reported to be the main perpetrators and female students the prime victims. Even though SSH is an acknowledged phenomenon, it remains an invisible and underreported scourge. This is despite institutional responsive strategies that include case management structures and support services, and an elaborate SH reporting web. The absence of past and present offenders that have been appropriately sanctioned nurtures the perception that TCs offer protection to perpetrators. There exists, therefore, profound mistrust and a lack of confidence in the case management and support services. This mistrust and lack of confidence leads to SH underreporting as reporting is perceived as a futile exercise. Underreporting is also a function of power differentials between students and lecturers that are skewed in favour of the latter. Dependent on their lecturers for academic guidance and tutoring, students fear being failed in retribution for reporting lecturers for SH. Victims, therefore, prefer to suffer in silence rather than risk antagonising their lecturers through filing formal complaints. There are, thus, few, if any, reports alleging lecturer SH of students. This dearth in formal reports is used to justify claims that SSH is a non-existent or peripheral problem.

Having presented and discussed the quantitative results and the qualitative findings from this study in the previous chapter and in this present chapter respectively, the chapter that follows integrates, as required in a mixed methods study, the quantitative results and the qualitative findings into meta and expanded findings.

CHAPTER VII

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF META AND EXPANDED INFERENCES

7.0. Introduction

The qualitatively driven sequential explanatory design adopted dictated that the study be conducted in two distinct but related quantitative and qualitative strands. In this chapter, I bring the two strands together to achieve completeness in understanding institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment (SSH) in teachers' colleges (TCs) in Zimbabwe. On one hand, though the two data sets were complementary in addressing research questions (RQs) 1 and 2 on the prevalence of SSH and on perception of institutional tolerance for SH respectively, the qualitative strand also expanded on the quantitative strand in answering RQ 1 and RQ 2. Thus, both strands of the study generated data that addressed the same RQs. This presented opportunities for developing meta-inferences on those two RQs. On the other hand, being a qualitatively driven design, the qualitative strand expanded on the prevalence of SH and perception of campus climate to explore answers to RQ 3 and RQ 4 on institutional responsive strategies and students and lecturers' perceptions on the efficacy of institutional responsive strategies respectively. The quantitative strand thus did not address RQ 3 and RQ4. The qualitative strand thus not only complemented but also expanded on the quantitative strand. This complementarity and expansion permitted completeness in understanding institutional responsiveness to SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe. I structure the discussion under subheadings formulated from the RQs so as not to lose focus of the questions that the study sought to answer. In Table 7.1, I present the meta-inferences on RQ 1 and RQ2, and the qualitative inferences on RQ 3 and RQ4 that expanded on the quantitative strand.

Table 7.1

Meta-and Expanded Inferences

Research questions	Sub research questions	Quantitative inferences	Qualitative inferences	Mixing purpose	Meta/or expanded inferences
RQ1 What is the prevalence of SH in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe?	i. What is the proportion of respondents who have ever witnessed, heard about, or experienced some form of SH?	The prevalence rate of sexual harassment is 40% with gender harassment (41%) being the most prevalent followed by unwanted sexual attention (37%) and the least prevalent being sexual coercion (35%)	Student sexual harassment is pervasive and mainly perpetrated in offices by male lecturers against female students with those students who are academically challenged, overly friendly with lecturers, and who dress indecently being at heightened risk of victimisation.	**Confirmatory** • Sexual harassment is a pervasive albeit hidden scourge in teachers' colleges with the prevalence rate of sexual harassment estimated to be about 40%. **Expansion** • Male lecturers are prime perpetrators who are motivated by lust, unrequited sexual overtures, and abuse of institutional power • Female students constitute an at-risk of victimisation group with students who are academically challenged, overly friendly with lecturers, and those who dress indecently being at heightened risk of victimisation • Much of sexual harassment, particularly more severe of harassment such as sexual coercion, occur in the privacy and seclusion of lecturers' offices	Though ubiquitous across teachers' colleges, student sexual harassment is more prevalent in some than in other colleges with male lecturers identified as main perpetrators and female students as an at-risk group with, within this at-risk group, the academically challenged, those overly friendly to male lecturers, and those who dress indecently considered at heightened risk of victimisation.
	ii. What is the association between gender and perception of SH prevalence?	There is no association between respondents' gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students			
	iii. What is the association between respondent status and perception of SH prevalence?	There is some association between respondent status and perception of sexual harassment prevalence lecturers were more likely than students to report having with having witnessed, heard about, or experienced (a) lecturers sexually harassing students, (b) gender harassment, (c) unwanted sexual; attention, and (d) sexual coercion.			
	iv. What is the association between college and prevalence of SH?	There is association between college and prevalence of sexual harassment with sexual harassment being more prevalent in colleges than in others			

Research questions	Sub research questions	Quantitative inferences	Qualitative inferences	Mixing purpose	Meta/or expanded inferences
RQ2: What is the lecturer and students' perception of institutional tolerance for SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe?	i. What is the proportion of respondents who perceive the climate in TCs as tolerant to SSH?	• Campus climate is saturated with sexual harassment reporting risk despite espoused beliefs that sexual harassment complaints would be taken seriously and that offending lecturers would be appropriately sanctioned. • About 70% of respondents perceived it as risky for a student to file a sexual harassment complaint with college against an offending lecturer while 86% perceived it as likely that the college would treat a sexual harassment complaint seriously. 66% of respondents perceived it as likely that the college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer.	The colleges studied are sexual harassment tolerant with campus tolerance manifesting in the form of institutional betrayal and an atmosphere of student fear of exposing lecturer perpetrated sexual harassment	**Confirmatory** • Reporting lecturers for sexual harassment is risky for students in teachers' colleges. **Expansion** • Reporting risks include fear of retaliation, fear of being blame for provoking own harassment, fear of not being believed, fear of not being taken seriously, and fear that a reported case would not be dealt with satisfactorily, fear of stigmatization • Some indicators of institutional tolerance for sexual harassment include incapacitated case management structures, conflicted case management personnel, case management personnel personality and skills deficits, inaccessible case management structures, perpetrator protection, sexual harassment normalisation and trivialisation, victim blaming **Incongruent** • Quantitative results indicated high perceptions (86% of respondents) that colleges would treat sexual harassment complaints seriously and sanction offending lecturers appropriately (66%) while qualitative findings revealed scepticism about sexual harassment complaints being taken seriously and about offending lecturers being appropriately sanctioned.	Institutional betrayal and an atmosphere of student fear for exposing lecturer perpetrated harassment engender a campus climate that facilitates sexual harassment perpetration and accentuate the risk of sexual harassment reporting despite institutional assurances that sexual harassment complaints would be taken seriously and harassers appropriately sanctioned.
	ii. Is there an association between perception of institutional tolerance and gender?	• There is no association between respondents' gender and perception of institutional tolerance for sexual harassment.			
	iii. Is there an association between perception of institutional tolerance and respondent status?	• There is association between respondents' status and perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint with more students than lecturers perceiving it as risky to file a complaint. • There is association between respondent status and perception that college would treat a harassment complaint seriously with more lecturers than students holding that perception. • There is association between respondents' status and perception that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer with more lectures than students holding that perception			
	iv. Is there an association between college and perception of institutional tolerance for SSH?	• There is association between college and perception of risk in filing a harassment complaint with college 1 respondents perceiving it as riskier to file a complaint than respondents from other colleges • There is no association between college and perception that a complaint would be taken seriously by college • There is no association between college and perception that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer.			

Research questions	Sub research questions	Quantitative inferences	Qualitative inferences	Mixing purpose	Meta/or expanded inferences
RQ3: How are teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe preventing and responding to SSH?	There were no sub-research questions	Not addressed by the quantitative strand.	The colleges studied deploy several prevention and response strategies across the social ecology that include, inter alia, case management structures and support services, sexual harassment training and education, guidance and counselling, and sexual harassment policies. However, there is split between espoused policy, procedures and structures on SH and practices on the ground	Expansion and completeness • The colleges studied deploy several prevention and response strategies across the social ecology that include, inter alia, case management structures and support services, sexual harassment training and education, guidance and counselling, and sexual harassment policies.	The colleges studied deploy several prevention and response strategies across the social ecology that include, inter alia, case management structures and support services, sexual harassment training and education, guidance and counselling, and sexual harassment policies.
RQ4: How do students and lecturers perceive institutional mechanisms for addressing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe?	There were no sub-research questions	Not addressed by the quantitative strand.	Though of importance, improper constitution and poor implementation render institutional prevention and response strategies ineffective	Expansion and completeness • Though of importance, improper constitution and poor implementation render institutional prevention and response strategies ineffective	Though of importance, improper constitution and poor implementation render institutional prevention and response strategies ineffective

Adapted from Maharaj et al. (2009, p. 191). A mixed methods sequential explanatory study: Police referrals to a psychiatric facility. In S. Andrew, & E. J. Halcomb (Eds.), *Mixed methods research for nursing and the health sciences*(pp. 181-194). West Sussex: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

7.1. Integrated and expanded inferences from the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study

Student sexual harassment by lecturers in higher education has been extensively studied across the globe (Bloom et al., 2021; Dykstra-DeVette & Tarin, 2019; Joseph, 2015; Marks & An, 2019; McCartan & Brown, 2019; Phipps, 2020; Sabri et al., 2019; Sivertsen et al., 2019). Studies of this vice have been concentrated in the developed world with the United States of America leading the pack. In Africa, studies on sexual harassment in higher education have been growing in recent years in some countries and not in others. Zimbabwe is one such country where research on sexual harassment in higher education remains scant (Mawere, 2019). The majority of studies across the globe have predominantly focused on universities because researchers tend to be clustered in universities. Very little focus has been directed at other higher education institutions that are not universities. This study shifted focus to teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe. Using a qualitatively driven sequential explanatory mixed methods design, the study sought to measure the prevalence of SH, to assess institutional tolerance for SH in the colleges, to explore institutional SH prevention and response strategies, and to examine the effectiveness of institutional response and prevention strategies in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe. Here, I discuss study findings in relation to the research objectives and research questions.

7.1.1. Pervasiveness of sexual harassment in teachers' colleges

An integrated finding of this study demonstrates that, though reportedly ubiquitous across TCs, SSH is more prevalent in some colleges than in others with male lecturers identified as main perpetrators and female students as an at-risk group with, within this at-risk group, the academically challenged, the overly friendly to lecturers, and those who dress indecently considered at heightened risk of victimisation (see 5.2; 5.3; 5.4; 5.5; 6.2). Results from the quantitative strand of the study estimated an aggregated SH prevalence rate of about 40% (239/598, 95% CI: 36, 44) in the five colleges studied in this strand. Individual college SSH

prevalence rates, measured from frequency counts of responses, were 69% (55/80) for college1, 48% (53/110) for college2, 37% (54/146) for college3, 24% (26/110) for college4, and 32% (49/152) for college5. The established aggregated 40% prevalence rate of SSH is within the range of and confirms previously established rates (Romito et al., 2017; Ogbonnaya et al.,2011; Dhlomo et al.,2012; Cantor et al., 2019; Tibede, 2009). When sexually harassing behaviours were categorised into gender harassment (GH), unwanted sexual attention (USA), and sexual coercion (SC), quantitative results indicated that prevalence rates decreased with harassment severity such that the more severe the harassment, the lower the prevalence rate. Accordingly, estimated prevalence rates for GH was 41%, USA 37%, and SC 35% (see 5.2.2; 5.2.3; 5.2.4). This study thus demonstrated that SH is prevalent in TCs with at least 4 in every 10 of respondents indicating that lecturers sexually harass students. This quantitative result was confirmed in the qualitative strand of the study in which participants, irrespective of gender, described SSH as "rife in the college" and "a big problem" (see 6.2.1.1). The fact that earlier quantitative results were confirmed by subsequent qualitative findings increases the validity of the conclusion that lecturer perpetrated SSH is pervasive in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe. Additionally, the quantitative strand of the study established independence between having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students and respondents' gender. Accordingly, both male and female respondents were likely to indicate having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students (see 5.3.4 and 5.9.2.1). This result was subsequently confirmed by qualitative findings for both male and female participants admitted that lecturers sexually harass students in the colleges (see 6.2). This study's finding that the reporting of SH is independent of gender validates prior research (Oni et al.,2019). While the quantitative strand established no association between respondent gender and having witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students, quantitative results demonstrated association between respondent status and having witnessed, heard about or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students. Accordingly, lecturers (65%,

57/88) were more likely than students (35%, 179/510) to report having "witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers sexually harassing students". This quantitative result was not entirely substantiated by qualitative findings which suggested that some lecturers with administrative responsibilities were more likely to downplay the pervasiveness of SSH (see 6.2.1.1). Such lecturers cited the thinness or absence of student complaint reports to dismiss SSH as either a non-existent problem or a peripheral problem that is so trivial that it does no warrant serious institutional attention.

The thinness or absence of complaint reports, however, ought not be interpreted as evidence of a non-existent or peripheral problem but as evidence of SH underreporting. SH underreporting, in document driven institutions, distorts the magnitude of the vice by creating and sustaining the illusion that SH is, at worst, a peripheral and, at best, a non-existent problem (Broad et al., 2018; Holland & Cortina, 2017; Thomas, 2015). The tendency to deny the pervasiveness of SH by some lecturers with administrative responsibilities was motivated by a need to protect themselves from criticism as administrators and to project an untarnished image of the college for SH pervasiveness can easily be interpreted as a consequence of administrative failure. This tendency is consistent with prior research conclusions that university grievance procedures served to protect institutional image rather than ensuring student welfare (Phipps, 2020).

While the quantitative results indicated a 40% SH prevalence rate (see 5.2.1), quantitative data, however, could neither illuminate the profiles of perpetrators and victims nor inform on the location for perpetration in TCs. Though without records on who the actual victims were, the qualitative strand of the study, consistent with prior research, revealed that female students are an at-risk group (Aguilar & Baek, 2020; Bovill et al., 2019; European Parliament, 2019; Lorenz et al., 2019). The findings further illuminated that, within this at-risk female group, students who are academically challenged, overly friendly to lecturers, and those who dress indecently were reportedly at heightened risk of victimisation (Kabat-Farr & Cortina, 2013; Lopez et al., 2009; Synovitz et al., 1998; Chukwudi and Gbakorun, 2011; Haruna, 2014). The identified

target and victim characteristics are theoretically consistent with O'Hare and O'Donohue's factor 4 (the overcoming of victim resistance) of the four-factor theory of SH (see 2.4.4; 2.5.4). The study identified target or victim characteristics weaken a target's resistance to victimisation which enables a perpetrator to overcome victim resistance.

Furthermore, the qualitative strand of the study also established that severe forms of SH are perpetrated in secluded spaces such as lecturer offices (Mohamed et al., 2014; The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016; O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998) by male lecturers who are driven by lust or strong sexual drives and abuse of institutional power (Bloom et al., 2021; Das, 2015; Dykstra-Devette & Tarin, 2019; Hill & Silva, 2005; Marshall et al., 2014; Morley, 2011; Tlou, 2014). Other milder forms of sexual harassment such as GH can occur anywhere on campus including in lecture rooms during lectures. This study finding that SH perpetration often occurs in private and secluded locations is again theoretically consistent with factor 3 (the overcoming of external inhibitors) of the four-factor theory of SH that identifies privacy of workspace as a risk factor for perpetration and victimisation (see 2.4.3; 2.5.3). Accordingly, if lecturers do not have access to private offices, then opportunities for lecturer perpetration of severe forms of SH such as SC are severely curtailed.

7.1.2. Institutional tolerance for sexual harassment

Regarding institutional tolerance for SH, the synthesized findings from this study demonstrate that the colleges studied are SH tolerant. Institutional SH tolerance was measured based on three variables that included perception of reporting risk, of the likelihood of an SH complaint being taken seriously by college, and of the likelihood of college appropriately sanctioning an offending lecturer. Quantitative findings indicated a high perception (70%, 419/598) of SH reporting risk for students despite high perceptions that SH complaints would be treated seriously (86%, 514/598) and that lecturer perpetrators of SH would be appropriately sanctioned (66%, 395/598). In establishing high perceptions that college would treat SH complaints seriously, the quantitative results confirmed earlier studies (Cantor et al., 2019;

Cantor et al., 2017) while high perceptions that an offending lecturer would be appropriately sanctioned contradicted prior research findings (Cantor et al., 2017; Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017; Cantor et al., 2015; Loui et al., 2019).

The quantitative findings, however, presented a perplexing perceptual contradiction for high perceptions on the likelihood of college treating harassment complaints seriously (86%) and sanctioning reported lecturer offenders appropriately (66%) are inconsistent with a high perception of reporting risk (70%). Quantitative findings thus presented a puzzling perceptual paradox for the perceptions did not logically align. In explaining this paradox, the qualitative findings that college espoused statements of intent in proscribing SH that are mainly communicated during orientation programmes (see 6.4.1.1) and through institutional policies (see 6.4.2.1) most likely feed into high respondent perceptions that complaint reports would be taken seriously and that offending lecturers would be appropriately sanctioned. However, qualitative findings also demonstrate that college statements of intent that communicate SH intolerance were not affirmed by the lived experiences of respondents in the colleges. Such a mismatch between colleges' espoused statements of SH intolerance and respondents' lived experiences with SH in the colleges possibly engendered this perceptual contradiction. In offering this explanation, this study confirmed findings by Thomas (2004, p. 145) that there exists an "apparent gap between words and deeds" in addressing SH in higher education.

The qualitative findings were useful in resolving the perceptual contradiction that emerged from the quantitative strand of the study. Qualitative and quantitative findings converged in establishing that it is risky to file an SH complaint with college against an offending lecturer (see 5.6.1; 5.9.4.1; 6.3.2; 6.6.2). Beyond confirming that it is risky to file a complaint with college, the qualitative findings extended the quantitative finding by establishing the risks associated with filing a complaint with college. Some of the suggested risks, consistent with prior research, included target or victim fear of retaliation, fear of being blamed, fear of stigmatisation, fear of not being believed, fear of not being taken seriously, and fear that a

reported case would not be dealt with satisfactorily (see 6.3.2) (Aguilar & Baek, 2020; Joseph, 2015; Morley, 2011; Namaganda et al, 2021; Whitley & Page, 2015). In establishing these risk factors, the qualitative strand of the study contradicted the high perceptions that a harassment complainant would be taken seriously by college and that a lecturer offender would be appropriately sanctioned. When blended, the quantitative and qualitative findings make a strong case for supporting conclusions by Molla and Cuthbert (2014, p. 770) that "there is both a lack of protection against, and appropriate disciplinary responses to, the sexually hostile encounters students face on campus."

The qualitative findings further contradicted the quantitative results pointing to a high perception (666%) that the colleges would appropriately sanction offending lecturers. In contradicting this, the qualitative strand established that the colleges were incapacitated to appropriately sanction offending lecturers because the case management structures, including the office of the principal which is the pinnacle of authority in the colleges, lacked authority to sanction lecturer perpetrators of SH. This finding appears to be peculiar to this study. Authority to sanction offending lecturers was found to lie with the parent Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science, Innovation, and Technology Development under which the colleges fall. Not only did case management structures lack authority to sanction reported lecturer offenders, they were also found to be conflicted in processing cases involving lecturer offenders because case management staff were lecturers seconded to those structures. Accordingly, the study established scepticism about the impartiality of lecturers who doubled up as case management personnel (see 6.5). It was perceived as highly improbable that such conflicted case management personnel would appropriately sanction reported lecturer harassers given the fraternal and collegial relations between case management personnel and harassers as lecturers. In establishing scepticism regarding the impartiality of case management personnel, findings from this study corroborate prior findings (Omorogiuwa, 2018; Namaganda et al., 2021).

Rich and thick qualitative data also produced findings that expanded on the quantitative findings in aiding understanding of institutional tolerance for SH in the colleges. The qualitative strand thus unearthed several other factors that reflect institutional tolerance for SH that could not be unearthed by the quantitative component of this mixed study. An interesting qualitative observation was that rude, discourteous, inconsiderate, and hostile personality traits of case management personnel rendered case management structures and support services inaccessible (see 6.3.1.2). The identified case management staff personality traits thus, in concurrence with prior studies, prevented SH targets and victims from reporting incidents of lecturer perpetrated SH (Holland & Cortina, 2017; Marks & An, 2019; Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency. 2020). Additionally, qualitative data also revealed what appears to be a new dimension regarding staff characteristics and inaccessibility of institutional SH case management structures. While other studies identified staff gender as a potential barrier to accessing case management structures (Marks & An, 2019), this study established age differences between staff and targets or victims as a barrier to accessing institutional structures. Students in this study reported that wide age differences between them and case management personnel created a generational disconnect that created misunderstandings over values and norms between them and SH personnel. The generational disconnect between students and staff reportedly discouraged students from accessing institutional case management structures. When rendered inaccessible, case management structures degenerate into white elephants that students hardly ever use.

Another factor that this study identified as a key ingredient of institutional tolerance for SH was SH normalization and trivialization in the colleges studied. Institutional environments in which SH is normalised and trivialized betray tolerance for SH. The ubiquity of SH in the colleges studied estimated at 40% and reflected in participant observations that "the sexual harassment of students by lecturers is rife in the college"(see 5.2; 6.2.1.1) and institutional inaction against perpetrators (see 6.3.1) have nurtured perceptions that SH is a part of college life with male

lecturers perceiving themselves as entitled to sexually prey on their female students while statements such as "we keep quiet […]about it because we are adults" betray students' trivialization and normalisation of the vice. Institutional normalisation and trivialization of SH create an institutional climate that condones SH perpetration while discouraging SH reporting (Ali et al., 2015; Chafai, 2017; Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016). In such an institutional climate, SH underreporting serves to conceal the magnitude of SH perpetration which leads to institutional perceptions that SH is a peripheral or non-existent problem that does not deserve serious institutional attention. Consequently, the colleges studied were found to adopt a nonchalant and insincere approach in preventing and responding to SH.

7.1.3. Institutional responsive strategies to student sexual harassment

Preventing and responding to SH in higher education requires a multi-pronged approach involving the simultaneous deployment of multiple strategies. Accordingly, findings from the qualitative strand of this study indicate that the colleges studied have deployed an assortment of prevention and response strategies that can be organised on the social ecological framework to understand which layer or layers of the social ecology a specific prevention and response strategy targets.

In exploring college prevention and response strategies, it emerged that extensive similarities exist between the two colleges that made up the case study sites for the qualitative strand of this study. The only difference noted in college prevention and response strategies lay in the adoption and deployment of an SH zero-tolerance policy. At the intra-personal level of the social ecology, prevention and response strategies were found to include sexual harassment education and training and sexual harassment guidance and counselling. Qualitative findings indicate that the colleges provide education and training on SH mainly through orientation programmes and through curriculum infusion in Family Health and Life Skills lectures. Study findings reinforce findings from previous studies that established that higher education institutions offer SH training and education as well as guidance and counselling in preventing

and responding to SH (Amar et al., 2014; Granskog et al., 2018; Kirk et al., 2017; Lee & Wong, 2019; Oliveira et al., 2018; Swedish Research Council, 2018; Zapp et al., 2021). Findings from the qualitative strand of the study show that SH training and education is student oriented to the extent that "there is hardly any training that is directed at lecturers". Training programmes that are exclusively student oriented suggest that the colleges studied are inclined towards addressing victimisation and not perpetration. Thus, college focus on victimisation and not perpetration betray college reluctance to going upstream in addressing the root causes of SH (DeGue et al., 2012; Iverson & Issadore, 2018). Consequently, significant reductions in SH incidents cannot be realised if perpetration is not made the focus of prevention and response efforts (DeGue et al., 2012)

In addition to SH training and education, the colleges also offer, at the intra-personal level, SH guidance and counselling. Again, guidance and counselling is student focused with no guidance and counselling for perpetrators. Findings indicate a nascent and underdeveloped bystander approach from SH guidance in which students are advised not to visit lecturers' offices as individuals but as pairs or groups to forestall any lecturer harassing behaviours. This budding approach is not yet formalised into an institutional strategy even though it is a widely recognised and implemented evidence-based strategy in the developed world (Banyard et al., 2018; Camp et al., 2018; Coker et al., 2019; Kettrey & Tanner-Smith, 2017; Miller, 2018). This highlights the need to institutionalise the bystander approach to SH prevention and response. The bystander approach is currently not formalised and its use is still grossly limited in the colleges. At the inter-personal level of the social ecology, study findings demonstrate differences and similarities in college strategies for regulating conduct between lecturers and students as they engage in the interactive processes of teaching and learning. Both colleges indicated reliance on the Public Service Commission Instrument 1 of 2000 in regulating contact between lecturers and students. The instrument specifies acts of educator misconduct which include sexual liaisons with minors under the care of an educator or any other minors. A notable drawback of

the instrument is that it was reported to be inapplicable in teachers' colleges where students are adults. Findings also revealed differences in the adoption and implementation of policies in regulating the conduct of institutional members. College 2 was found to have adopted and implement an institutional SH policy that prohibits SH. The policy provides a definition of SH, specifies examples of this obnoxious conduct, and enjoins aggrieved institutional members to report cases of SH to specified college offices. At the time when this study was conducted, college 2 did not have an SH policy though it claimed that it was in the process of developing one. Variations in policy adoption and implementation have been established before (Mohamed et al., 2014)

Study findings reveal that college prevention and response strategies at the institutional layer of the social ecology include case management structures and support services, SH grievance procedures, and institutional collaboration with external agencies such as non-governmental organisations that are into sexual and reproductive health education. Case management structures and support services in the colleges were found to include the Student Affairs Department, the Student Support Centre, the Student Representative Council, the network of peer educators, and hostel wardens. Similar prevention and response structures have been established in other studies (Bystrynski and Allen, 2017; California State Auditor, 2014; Latham, 2018). These structures were found not to be SH specific structures but structures that, nevertheless, receive and process SH complaints among other student issues. Related to these case management structures are grievance procedures that specify how an aggrieved student can make a report and how such a report will be handled. In addition to case management structures and support services, and grievance procedures, the colleges also work with external agencies such as SAYWHAT in preventing and responding to SH. External agencies facilitate SH training in the form of workshops for students and staff from these organisations are invited as resource persons during orientation programmes. The finding that colleges collaborate with external agencies in addressing SH validates earlier findings (Amar et al., 2014; Garcia et al.,

2011; Granskog et al., 2018; Oliveira et al., 2018; Swedish Research Council, 2018; Zapp et al., 2021).

The difference in policy adoption may signify the absence of constitutional and ministerial mandates and guidelines on policy adoption and implementation. These strategies identified included established prevention measures such as institutional case management structures and support systems in the form of the Student Affairs Department, the Students Support Centre, the Student Representative Council, and the network of peer educators (see 6.4.3). Additionally, College 2 also had, despite the absence of constitutional or ministerial mandates and guidance, a zero-tolerance policy in effect. In Figure 7.1 the institutional prevention and response strategies are organised across the individual's social ecology.

Figure 7.1

Institutional Sexual Harassment Prevention and Response Strategies Organized Across the Social Ecology

Student focused interventions

No indicated response strategy

Sexual harassment policy
Grievance procedures
Case management structures
and support services

Sexual harassment
policy

Sexual harassment policy
Sexual harassment training
and education
Guidance and counselling

Community
Level

Organisational/
Institutional
Level

Relational/
Interpersonal
Level

Individual/
Intra-personal
Level

Lecturer focused interventions

No indicated response strategy

Sexual harassment policy
Public service statutory
instrument of 2000

Sexual harassment
policy
Public service
statutory instrument
of 2000

Sexual harassment policy
Cautioning

Figure 7.1 shows institutional prevention and response strategies organised across the social ecology. On the left, in boxes, are institutional strategies that have a student focus while on the right, again in boxes, are strategies with a lecturer focus. The figure demonstrates that there are more strategies that focus on the student than there are strategies that focus on the lecturer. This betrays a victim rather than a perpetrator centred approach to SH prevention and response in the colleges. More importantly, Figure 7.1 indicates that colleges are virtually doing nothing to prevent or respond to SH at the community level. This points to the fact that the colleges are disengaged from the wider community in which they are located in preventing and responding to SH.

In Figure 7.2, the institutional responsive strategies are organised across the prevention continuum to demonstrate which strategies are primary, secondary, and tertiary strategies.

Figure 7.2

Institutional Sexual Harassment Prevention and Response Strategies Organized Across the Prevention Continuum
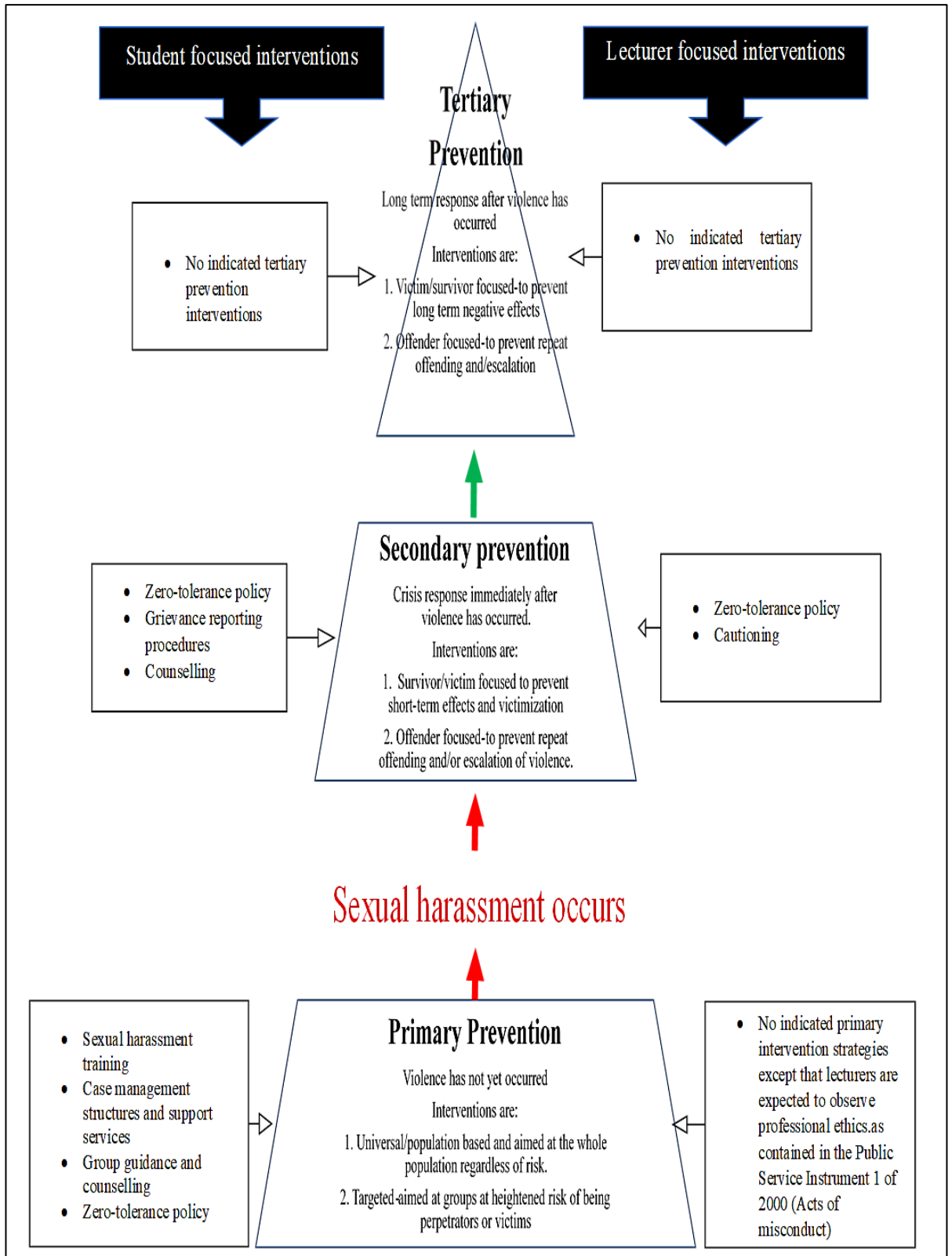
Figure 7.2 shows that there are more strategies deployed at the primary prevention level than at any other level. However, some strategies overlap between levels. It is disturbing that there are no indicated strategies at the tertiary level which suggests that victims of sexual harassment are generally left to their own devices in coping with harassment experiences. In so doing, the colleges betray victims of sexual harassment. Figure 7.2 also shows that there is very little being done to address or contain perpetration for there are very few strategies directed at lecturers who are at risk of perpetration. The colleges thus need to do more to stem perpetration for significant reductions in SH incidents can only be achieved when perpetration is made the focus of prevention and response strategies.

7.1.4. Perceptions on efficacy of institutional responsive strategies

Perceptions on the efficacy of institutional SH responsive strategies were explored in the qualitative strand of the study. Study findings indicated lecturer and student satisfaction with multiple reporting and disclosure channels that were perceived as widening the reporting choices available to targets and victims. Multiple reporting and disclosure avenues were perceived as likely to target and victim of reporting of SH. Satisfaction with multiple reporting and disclosure avenues did not, however, translate into utilisation of those channels for SH remains an underreported phenomenon in the TCs. target and victim reluctance to utilise reporting channels betrayed a lack of confidence in the reporting system including the case management structures and support services. The lack of confidence in grievances is accentuated in institutional environments where the procedures are perceived as "determined upon concealing problems of sexual harassment and protecting male faculty and male students" (Eyre, 2010, p. 293).

Despite satisfaction with multiple reporting channels, the study established an overarching perception that institutional SH strategies were both inadequate and ineffective. Participants were found to be particularly disenchanted with case management and support services personnel who are lecturers seconded to the case management structures and support services.

Such lecturers were perceived as compromised and conflicted in handling and processing lecturer perpetrated SH cases. Accordingly, it was perceived as "pointless to report because lecturers support each other and cover up for each other" (see 6.5.1.2). There was, therefore, an expressed lack of confidence in lecturers seconded to case management structures and support services by most students in the TCs (see 6.5.1.2; 6.6.4.1). These findings are consistent with prior studies that have established doubts about the impartiality of internal grievance handling personnel in IHLs (Elkins et al., 2008; Holland & Cortina, 2017; Namaganda et al., 2021). Given doubts raised about the impartiality of lecturers seconded to case management structures, many participants expressed a preference for staffing the case management structures with non-teaching personnel.

Additionally, staffing the case management structures and support systems with lecturers was also perceived as compromising the efficiency of case management structures in processing student complaints because lecturers seconded to case management structures are of the same status as the lecturers reported for SSH. Consequently, such lecturers lack the authority to investigate and sanction other lecturers. Students thus expressed a lack of confidence in the case management and support system for there are no guarantees that their complaints would be taken seriously and that harassers would be appropriately sanctioned. In fact, students expressed fear that reporting lecturers for SH would only serve to bring trouble to the reporting student or the victim (see 6.3.2) as lecturers seconded to case management structures were likely to collude with alleged lecturer perpetrators in frustrating SH targets and victims. When grievance procedures are perceived as unlikely to result in satisfactory processing and resolution of complaints but in revictimisation of victims and retaliation, victims and targets hardly utilise them (Namaganda et al., 2021; Sabir et al., 2018).

In establishing this lack of confidence in the case management and support system, this study corroborates prior conclusions that institutional policies and procedures were inadvertently discouraging the reporting of SH because their implementation did not inspire confidence in

the policy and grievance handling procedures (Peirce et al., 1997; Phipps, 2020). To increase the efficiency of case management structures, therefore, it was felt that there was a need to staff case management structures and support systems with non-lecturing personnel. Doing so, it was argued, would increase victim confidence in the case management structures and support systems.

Students were also dismayed by the personalities of lecturers seconded to case management structures and support systems. Lecturers seconded to case management structures and support services were reported to be rude, discourteous, hostile, and inconsiderate to students' needs (see 6.5.1.3). Rude, hostile, discourteous, and indifferent case management personnel thus rendered the case management structures and support services inaccessible to students for such personality traits scared away students from the case management structures. In scaring away students from case management structures, personnel personalities effectively denied students to services provided by case management structures and support services. The importance of case management staff personality traits has been reported in other studies as an important factor in students' use or lack of use of institutional prevention and response structures and services (Holland & Cortina, 2017; Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency. 2020). Additionally, students harboured fears about confiding in such lecturers because the lecturers could not be trusted to confidentially treat students' SH reports and to guarantee victims' anonymity. Students intimated that they feared reporting because they could be used as examples during lectures when case management and support services personnel assumed their teaching responsibilities. This finding resonates with earlier findings by Bloom et al (2021) who established entrenched cynicism about the adequacy of university systems in protecting graduate students and their anonymity following the filing of SH complaints. Participants in this present study thus emphasised the need to staff case management structures and support services with empathetic staff who are of the students' generation or close to students' generation to ensure that there is no generational disconnect between staff and the students.

Student participants also indicated a lack of trust in the case management and support system because they pointed out that there was a glaring absence of lecturers who had been appropriately sanctioned for sexually harassing students. They alleged that known harassers walked the campus environments freely and persisted in harassing students without remorse. This is consistent with findings from earlier studies that documented student cynicism about institutions acting against harassers (Namaganda et al., 2021; Peirce et al., 1997; Sabir et al., 2018; Sexual Violence Steering Committee University of Manitoba, 2019). The absence of past and present appropriately sanctioned offending lecturers nurtures the perception that institutional responsive strategies are both weak and ineffective. Such a perception, in turn, was found to breed hopelessness and a sense of futility in students about reporting lecturer perpetrators of SSH.

Furthermore, the study findings revealed work overload for lecturers seconded to case management structures with lecturers admitting that work overload compromised their efficiency in processing complaints and in offering adequate support to student victims (see 6.5.1.2). When seconded to case management structures and support services, lecturers do not shed off their lecturing responsibilities. As such, they must shoulder both the responsibilities of being lecturers and of being case management and support service providers. They thus are overburdened and this overburdening compromises their discharge of responsibilities in the case management structures and support systems. Additionally, lecturers seconded to case management structures intimated that they suffered from knowledge and skills deficits that compromised efficient discharge of their mandate. They thus acknowledged the need for capacitation with knowledge and skills through training.

7.2. Chapter summary

In this chapter, the quantitative results from phase one of the study and the qualitative findings from phase two of the study were integrated into meta and expanded findings. These meta and expanded inferences demonstrate that SSH is pervasive in the colleges studied with prevalence

rates varying from college to college. Gender harassment was found to be the most prevalent while sexual coercion was the least reported form of SH. Male lecturers and female students were consistently identified as perpetrators and targets or victims respectively. The climate in the colleges studied were found to be SH tolerant with institutional tolerance consisting of institutional betrayal and a pervading atmosphere of student fear of reporting lecturer perpetrators of SH. The study also found that SH persisted in the colleges studied despite the adoption and implementation of an assortment of institutional prevention and response strategies across layers of the social ecology. This persistence of SH despite the adoption and implementation of these prevention and response strategies implies that SH is either a vice that is resistant to remedial action or that the implemented prevention and response strategies are inadequate or ineffective. Evidence from this study seem to support the position that prevention and response strategies are inadequate and ineffective largely because their implementation is insincere and borders on lip service designed to keep up appearances that the colleges are doing something to prevent and respond to SH when, in fact, very little is being done to prevent and respond to the vice. This chapter was built on the chapters that preceded it. Together, the chapters have laid foundations for conclusions and recommendations to be drawn from the study's findings. The next chapter, therefore, wraps up the study by summarising it and presenting the study conclusions and recommendations. Additionally, the subsequent chapter also presents the socio-ecological SH prevention and response model for TCs.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0. Introduction

This concluding chapter wraps up this research report. The chapter thus summarises the research process by way of restating the research objectives (ROs) and research questions (RQs), and describing the methodological procedures followed in conducting the study. Additionally, the chapter presents summarised research findings as well as the research conclusions distilled from the study findings. Ultimately, based on the presented research conclusions, the chapter offers data grounded theoretical and practical recommendations.

8.1. Synopsis of the research process

This study sought to examine institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment (SSH) in teachers' colleges (TCs) in Zimbabwe. To guide this task, ROs and RQs were specified at the beginning of the research process. The overarching RO of this study was to:

Examine institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment (SSH) in Zimbabwean TCs.

Pursuant to this, the study sought to achieve the following objectives:

RO1: Measure the prevalence of SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

RO2: Measure institutional tolerance for SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

RO3: Examine TCs policy and strategic responsiveness to SH in Zimbabwe.

RO4: Explore the efficacy of institutional responsive strategies in addressing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe.

To ensure the achievement of these objectives, the study sought to answer the following RQs:

RQ1: What is the prevalence of SH in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe?

RQ2: What is the perception of institutional tolerance for SSH in TCs in Zimbabwe?

RQ3: How are teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe preventing and responding to SSH?

RQ4: How do students and lecturers perceive institutional mechanisms for addressing SH in TCs in Zimbabwe?

RQ1 and RQ2 were quantitative while RQ3 and RQ4 were qualitative in nature. Addressing quantitative and qualitative questions in one study required the adoption of a paradigmatic pragmatism driven mixed methods approach. Accordingly, a qualitatively driven sequential explanatory design was selected for the study. The design thus enabled completeness in examining institutional responsiveness to SSH in Zimbabwean TCs through the complementarity and expansion afforded by mixing quantitative and qualitative approaches in one study.

The prioritised qualitative strand, because of its capacity to generate thick and rich data, both complemented and expanded on the quantitative strand. Thick and rich qualitative data were thus able to address even those questions that had been designated as quantitative questions at the outset. In adherence to the dictates of the integrative framework for inference quality adopted in validating this study, the study was conducted in two phases with an initial quantitative and a subsequent qualitative strand. Appropriate quality criteria, consistent with the research approach in each phase of the study, were implemented.

A cross-sectional survey design was thus adopted in the quantitative phase of the study. Survey data were collected, through a self-report questionnaire, from a sample of 598 (510 student and 88 lecturer respondents) that was power calculated at 3.5% margin of error and 95% confidence level. The sample was drawn, using systematic stratified simple random sampling techniques, from 5 teachers' colleges in the south-eastern provinces of Zimbabwe. Confidence intervals, at 95% confidence level, were constructed to estimate the proportion of respondents who had "witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers" sexually harassing students, and the proportion of respondents who perceived it as risky to file a harassment complaint with college, perceived it as likely that a harassment complaint would be taken seriously by the college, and that the college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer. Additionally, chi-square

tests were performed to measure association between variables that were of significance to this study such as respondent gender and having "witnessed, heard about, or experienced lecturers" sexually harassing students. For the subsequent qualitative phase, a multisite case study design was implemented with data collected through FFIs, FGDs, and QDA from a purposefully generated sample. A total of 10 FGDs with students and 18 FFIs (14 with lecturers and 4 with students) were conducted. Qualitative data from FFIs and FGDs were analysed manually through the related processes of data coding, constant comparison, and thematic analysis. QDA data were analysed using the qualitative content analysis method. Meta-and expanded inferences were then developed from integrating the quantitative and qualitative findings.

8.2. Summary of major research findings

Under this section, I summarise the research findings generated from the quantitative and qualitative strands of this study. I organise the findings under subheadings developed from and related to the research questions.

8.2.1. The ubiquity and pervasiveness of sexual harassment in teachers' colleges

One major finding of the study was that SH remains pervasive and ubiquitous across the teachers' colleges studied. Both lecturers and students, irrespective of gender, admitted to this. Quantitative results indicated a 40% (239/598, 95% CI: 36, 44) prevalence rate while participants from the qualitative strand of the study described SH as "rife" and "a big problem" in the case site TCs (see 6.2.1.1). The study also established that prevalence declined with SH severity. Accordingly, gender harassment (41%) was the most prevalent followed by unwanted sexual attention (37%), and then sexual coercion (35%). Another significant finding was that while SH can occur anywhere on college campuses, including lecture rooms and open spaces, severe forms of SH such as sexual coercion occurred in the privacy and secrecy of lecturers' offices which, student participants claimed, lecturers had turned into "lodges" (see 6.2.1.4). Furthermore, the study revealed that SH prevalence rates varied from college to college with SH being more prevalent in some than in other colleges. This finding highlights the importance

of contextual factors in either facilitating or inhibiting SH perpetration. The study also showed that SSH perpetrators were predominantly male lecturers while victims or targets were primarily female students. this finding resonates with findings from earlier studies that demonstrated that individuals in less powerful positions as either workers or students are at heightened risk of victimisation (Cantalupo& Kidder, 2018; Harris et al., 2018; Herovic et al., 2019; Jacobs et al., 2015; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016). The study further demonstrated that at heightened risk of victimisation were those female students with academic challenges, those who were overly friendly and outgoing with lecturers, and those who dressed indecently.

8.2.2. Sexual harassment permissive climate in teachers' colleges

Study findings suggest extreme tolerance for SH in the colleges studied. Three variables that included reporting risk, likelihood of college taking a harassment complainant seriously, and likelihood that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer were used to measure tolerance for SH in the colleges studied. The study established a high perception (70%) that it is risky to file a harassment complaint with college against a lecturer perpetrator. In addition, study findings revealed a high perception (86%) that the college would treat a student harassment complaint seriously. Also established was a moderately high perception (66%) that the college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer. These quantitative findings presented a paradox in that a high perception of reporting risk is inconsistent with high perceptions that the college would treat a harassment complainant seriously and appropriately sanction an offending lecturer.

Qualitative findings established a mismatch between espoused college statements proscribing SH and the lived realities of lecturers and students with SH in the colleges. This is consistent with what Thomas (2004, p. 145) described as an "apparent gap between words and deeds" in addressing SH in higher education. This mismatch explained the paradox presented by the quantitative findings. This study, therefore, found that reporting lecturers for SH remains a risky

undertaking despite college assurances that it would treat harassment complaints seriously and sanction offenders appropriately. It was established in this study that lofty college statements of intent with respect to SH that were communicated through orientation programmes and contained in policy documents bordered on lip service for they were hardly ever enforced in real life. This finding resonates with conclusions by Reese and Lindenberg (2004, p. 114) that "the 'devil is in the details' of policy implementation". The study also found that reporting risks included victim or target fears of retaliation, of being blamed for instigating own victimisation, of stigmatisation and ostracization, of not being believed, of not being taken seriously, and fear that a reported case would not be dealt with satisfactorily. These fears discourage SH reporting while, inversely, encouraging perpetration. When harassment acts go unreported or are underreported, perpetration thrives (Sakall-Uğurlu et al., 2010; Toker & Sümer, 2010). Further to it being considered risky to file a harassment complaint, the study revealed that case management structures and processes were conflicted and compromised in receiving, handling, and processing SH complaints. It was shown that case management structures and support services were conflicted and compromised because colleges seconded lecturers as staff to case these structures and services. This practice was found to nurture scepticism about the impartiality of lecturers tasked with receiving, investigating, and processing SH complaints for, as lecturers in the first instance, it was alleged that they were likely to protect their lecturer colleagues accused of student sexual harassment. It was thus considered futile to report one lecturer to another lecturer because the lecturer reported to was unlikely to act against a reported lecturer. Consequently, the qualitative strand of the study revealed cynicism about colleges appropriately sanctioning lecturer perpetrators of SH. This finding was inconsistent with the quantitative finding of a high perception (66%) that college would appropriately sanction offending lecturers. Earlier on, this inconsistency was explained in terms of the mismatch between espoused college statements prohibiting SH and students and lecturers' lived experiences with SH in the colleges. that case management structures and support services

personnel extend protection to perpetrators was found to be a classic example of institutional betrayal.

Further to this, the study indicate that case management structures and support services were inaccessible to targets and victims of SH. It was found that the rude, discourteous, intimidating, and hostile personalities of case management structures and support services discouraged students from engaging with the structures thus rendering them inconsequential in preventing and responding to SSH by lecturers. Consequently, there is extensive SH underreporting in the colleges studied for victims and targets of SH are reluctant to engage with case management structures and services because of the personalities of the staff seconded to those structures and services. SH underreporting is a key indicator of institutional tolerance for SH and, as (Broad et al., 2018, p. 420) concluded, is driven by reporting systems considered "inaccessible, burdensome and unlikely to change the situation".

Another key indicator of institutional tolerance for SH that emerged in this study is SH trivialisation and normalisation. The study established that case management personnel, lecturers, and students trivialised and normalised SH. A climate that trivialises SH creates conditions that normalise it. Such normalisation of SH breeds acceptance of the vice which drives perpetration, weakens target and victim resistance to SH, and discourages the reporting of the vice. SH trivialisation and normalisation was also found to lead to negative perceptions of those who chose to report lecturers for sexually harassing them. When SH is trivialised and normalised, an institution is unlikely to treat harassment complaints seriously and is also less likely to act on harassment complaints (Broad et al., 2018; Hennekam &Bennett, 2017; Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016; The Restaurant Opportunities Centers United Forward Together, 2014; Thomas, 2015; Whitley & Page, 2015). Accordingly, this study established a palpable fear of stigmatisation and ostracisation in students that prevented targets and victims from SH reporting. A college atmosphere pregnant with student fear of reporting lecturers for SH betrays an institutional climate of tolerance to the vice.

Not only did the study establish that it was risky to file a harassment complaint but it was also found that it is futile to lodge a complaint with college. The futility associated with filing a complaint stem from notions that an SH complaint will either not be acted on or that, if it is acted on, the alleged perpetrator will not be appropriately and proportionately sanctioned. Again, these notions discourage SH reporting and, inadvertently, incentivise perpetration. Perceptions that harassment complains will either not be acted on or that perpetrators will not be appropriately sanctioned was found to stem from scepticism about the impartiality of lecturers seconded to case management structures in dealing with SH cases in which lecturers are alleged perpetrators. In addition to this, the study established that case management structures, including the office of the principal which happens to be the pinnacle of authority in the colleges, lacked the necessary authority to sanction lecturers. Authority to sanction lecturer perpetrators of SH resides with the parent ministry that runs the colleges. this lack of authority to sanction offending lecturers resulted in offending lecturers being let off lightly with cautioning being the preferred sanction in teachers' colleges. inconsequential sanctions such as cautions are not deterrent enough in abating future perpetration. Accordingly, setting institutional case management structures and not investing in them the requisite authority to sanction offenders does not reflect sincerity in preventing and responding to SH.

8.2.3. A potpourri of college sexual harassment prevention and response strategies

Given that institutional prevention and response strategies to SSH operate across the social ecology, I organise the study findings on institutional prevention and response strategies to SSH around subheadings developed from the ecological layers. Accordingly, I present findings on prevention and response strategies at the individual, inter-personal, the institutional, and the community layers of the social ecology. however, some of the prevention and response strategies cut across layers. I present such strategies at the layer where they function most.

8.2.3.1. SH Prevention and response strategies at the individual layer of the social ecology

Findings from this study show that the colleges studied have several prevention and response strategies in place at the individual layer of the social ecology. Strategies at the individual layer of the social ecology were found to include SH training and education. It was established that SH training and education are organised by the Student Support Centre. It was established, however, that the colleges do not offer training and education dedicated to SH but that such training and education is integrated into orientation programmes and FHLS lectures. SH training and education were found to be oriented towards raising awareness about SH and building knowledge about SH grievance procedures. Another important finding was that SH training and education as currently offered in the colleges are student and not lecturer focused. Consequently, training and education are not extended to lecturers. It was also established that the colleges collaborate with external agencies such as SAYWHAT in delivering SH training and education to students.

The study also revealed that the colleges offer guidance and counselling at the individual layer of the social ecology. on one hand, guidance functioned as a prevention strategy that empowered students to avoid exposure to SH and to raise awareness about grievance procedures. On the other hand, counselling served as a response strategy following a student's exposure to SH. Counselling functioned as post-traumatic response to ensure that the target or victim comes to terms with their harassment experience and to restore wellbeing. Again, guidance and counselling were found to be student and not lecturer focused for there were no guidance and counselling services for lecturers.

8.2.3.2. SH Prevention and response strategies at the interpersonal layer of the social ecology

At the interpersonal or relational layer of the social ecology, it was established that there were similarities and differences in prevention and response strategies deployed by colleges. strategies to regulate conduct between institutional members so that opportunities for engaging

in harassing behaviours are minimised. The study established that college 2 relied on an institutional zero-tolerance policy to regulate conduct between lecturers and students. The policy prohibits SH and labels it as discriminatory conduct that the college is intolerant to. The policy also gives examples of behaviours that the college regards as SH and outlines the grievance procedure and grievance resolution process. College 1, however, was found not to have an institutional policy. There were claims in the college that a policy was in the process of being developed. In the absence of an institutional policy, the study established college 1 relied on the Public Service Commission Instrument 1 of 2000 and appeals to moral principles such as loco-parentis to regulate relations between lecturers and students. Public Service Commission Instrument 1 of 2000 prohibits sexual relations between educators and the minors under their care. It was thus found to be inapplicable for college settings where students are adults.

8.2.3.2. SH Prevention and response strategies at the institutional layer of the social ecology

Findings from this study indicate that the college studied have case management structures and support services at the institutional layer of the social ecology. the Student Affairs Department was established to be the nerve centre of prevention and response strategies in both colleges. it is an institutional structure that exercises oversight of student wellbeing while students are in college. This structure is headed by a dean of students who is also a lecturer with teaching responsibilities. when faced with SH, students are expected to approach the Student Affairs Department. The study revealed the Student Affairs Department has other structures under it that also deal with SH issues.

It was found that one of the structures that deals with SH under the Student Affairs Department is the Student Support Centre. The colleges were found to second lecturers from the FHLS department with some counselling qualification or a qualification in psychology to the Student Support Centre. The support centre also receives and processes SH complaints in addition to

facilitating SH training and education. A key function of the Student Support Centre is to provide post-traumatic counselling to targets or victims of SH. Also working under the Student Affairs Department is the Student Representative Council. The council is an elected student body that is most proximal to students. Aggrieved students can report to the Student Representative Council. Following a report of SH, the council is expected to guide the complainant on the procedures to follow in filing a formal report. The department receives SH and processes SH complaints. As a broker between students and the college, the council also functions to bring SH issues to the attention of the college so that the college can address these issues. The study also established that the colleges have peer educator networks made up of trained students who primary function is to provide sexual and reproductive education to other students. peer educators also function as an SH disclosure and reporting point. When a report or a disclosure is made to the peer educators, peer educators are expected to provide guidance on how the student can proceed in filing a formal complaint. Another prevention and response structure under the Student Affairs Department is the network of hostel wardens. Hostel wardens are lecturers seconded to halls of residence whose mandate is looking into student welfare. In preventing and responding to SH, hostel wardens were found to be a disclosure and reporting point who, when a report or disclosure is made to them, are expected to refer the student to the Student Affairs Department for complaint processing. Finally, the study also established the clinic as part of the structures that respond to SH. The clinic offers medical treatment to victims of severe forms of SH such as sexual coercion.

8.2.4. Ineffectual SH prevention and response strategies in Zimbabwean TCs

Since teachers' colleges have deployed several strategies in responding to SSH, I, for purposes of clarity and coherence, discuss perceptions on the effectiveness of each strategy.

8.2.4.1. Conflicted and incapacitated case management structures and support services

This study established widespread scepticism about the efficacy of case management structures and support services. The scepticism stems from case management and support services being

staffed by personnel that doubles up as academic lecturers directly involved in the institutional core activities of teaching and learning. The study revealed ingrained cynicism about the impartiality of lecturers seconded to case management structures and support systems as grievance handling personnel and support services providers. It was, therefore, established that students considered filing SH reports against a lecturer perpetrator to another lecturer as a "waste of time" because of the propensity of case management personnel to protect alleges perpetrators. Such lecturers were perceived as conflicted. In addition, the study demonstrated student concerns about the personalities of lecturers seconded to case management structures and support services. It was found out that SH prevention and response staff in the case management structures and support services were rude, discourteous, hostile, and inconsiderate to student needs. These personality traits, it was established, effectively rendered the case management structures and support services inaccessible by scaring away students and, in the process, discouraging SH reporting (Broad et al., 2018). Consequently, there is a reported underreporting of SH. Additionally, the study established concerns about the ages of lecturers seconded to case management structures. Students alleged a generational disconnect between them and personnel in the case management structures. Accordingly, personnel in the case management structures were not reported to be not alive to students' concerns. Students thus expressed a need to staff the case management structures and support services with people of a generation close to their own who would be empathetic to their needs and concerns.

The study also established that case management structures and support services were ineffectual because they lacked the authority to sanction lecturer perpetrators of SH. Lecturers seconded to the case management structures and support services admitted to lacking the authority to sanction lecturer perpetrators of SH. Even the highest office in the college-the office of the principal-does not have authority to sanction perpetrators. Such authority is retained by the parent ministry responsible for the colleges. colleges can only prefer charges and refer perpetrators to the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science, Innovation,

and Technology Development for processing. Case management structures in the teachers' colleges thus suffer from authority deficits that weaken their efforts to protect students from SH and to create SH free campus environments. Owing to this authority deficit, it was established that college sanctions such as cautioning were found to be inconsequential and not deterrent enough to discourage perpetration.

8.2.4.2. Insufficient sexual harassment education and training

Findings from this study demonstrate that SH training and education offered through orientation programmes targeted at newly enrolled students and through infusion into FHLs lectures, and through facilitated workshops are inadequate. While acknowledging the importance of training and education in raising awareness about SH and the grievance procedures available to students, participants bemoaned the inadequacy of training and education for such training in the form of orientation programmes came only once in students' lives at college. It was thus suggested that the frequency of training and education be increased to constantly remind students about the SH scourge and the grievance procedures available to them.

The study also established that SH training and education were student focused. A training and education focus on students betrays a victim centred approach to SH prevention and response. Such an approach is most unlikely to result in reduced perpetration for reductions in perpetration can only be realised when colleges go upstream to engage with those factors that drive perpetration (Degue et al., 2012; Iverson & Issadore, 2018). It is perpetration that needs to be addressed more than victimisation for victimisation follows perpetration. Additionally, it was perceived as important that SH training and education should also be extended to lecturers if SH perpetration is to be addressed in teachers' colleges.

8.2.4.3. Compromised and inaccessible sexual harassment grievance procedures

The existing grievance procedures offer multiple reporting and disclosure channels that begin from the student's immediate ecological layer and end with the Student Affairs Department or the principal's office. While this is positively viewed as increasing chances of reporting, the

study showed that multiple reporting channels have not resulted in increased reporting of SH. The study established that the grievance procedures were ineffectual because they were dominated by lecturers seconded to the case management structures and support services. It was revealed that reporting lecturer perpetrators of SH to other lecturers was futile because it was considered highly unlikely that a lecturer reported to would satisfactorily act against a reported lecturer. in addition to this, the study also showed that lecturers seconded to manage SH complaints suffered authority deficits that incapacitated them from acting against reported lecturers. Furthermore, it was demonstrated that the absence of past and present sanctioned lecturer perpetrators was evidence of the ineffectiveness of grievance procedures. The grievance procedures were found to be so ineffective that students reported that known and reported harassers walked the college environments freely and went about their normal business as if they were not guilty of any wrong doing.

8.2.4.4. Implementation deficits of sexual harassment policy

This study established inconsistencies in the adoption and implementation of SH policies in the colleges studied. a policy was found in college 2 while none existed in college 1. The study found that, in college 2 where an SH policy had been developed and adopted, policy implementation was poor with students professing ignorance of the policy. Accordingly, the study revealed the policy in college 2 was not widely disseminated and it was not posted on the college website for easy access by institutional stakeholders. A zero-tolerance policy becomes a shelf policy when it is not widely disseminated and circulated. However, lecturers in the college indicated that they were aware of the institutional policy and that its existence was sufficient proof that the college was intolerant to SH and an adequate deterrent to SH perpetration.

8.3. Research conclusions

Having presented a summary of the research findings above, I, therefore, present, in this section, research conclusions distilled from the findings presented earlier. Since the conclusions are

conclusions on each of the research questions that this study sought to answer, I present them under subheadings directly developed from the research questions.

8.3.1. The prevalence of SH in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe

Lecturer-student sexual harassment is ubiquitous in teachers' college though prevalence rates vary from college to college and with harassment type. Male lecturers and female students constitute at-risk of perpetration and at-risk of victimisation groups respectively. At heightened risk of victimisation are female students who are academically challenged, who dress indecently, and who are overly friendly and outgoing with male lecturers. Student sexual harassment can occur anywhere on campus but lecturers' offices, because of the privacy and seclusion they offer, are the primary locations for the perpetration of severe forms of harassment such as sexual coercion.

8.3.2. Institutional tolerance for sexual harassment in teachers' colleges

There is extreme tolerance for SH in the colleges studied despite espoused college statements of intolerance to the vice conveyed during orientation programmes and in policy documents where such documents exist. The key elements of a climate of tolerance to SH in the colleges studied are institutional betrayal and a pervading atmosphere of student fear for reporting lecturer perpetrated SH. Combined, these elements create institutional conditions that drive lecturer perpetration of SH, aggravate students' vulnerability to victimisation, and engender underreporting of the vice. Institutional betrayal consists of institutions having conflicted and compromised case management structures whose constitution render them inaccessible and ineffective in preventing and responding to SH. For instance, in the teachers' colleges studied, case management structures lack the authority to appropriately sanction lecturer perpetrators because such authority is retained by the parent ministry that exercises oversight over the colleges. additionally, the structures are staffed with lecturers who, because they are lecturers, are conflicted in handling cases involving other lecturers. The pervading atmosphere of student

fear for reporting SH consisted of students' fear of retaliation, fear of being blamed for provoking own victimisation, and fear of stigmatisation and ostracization.

8.3.3. Institutional prevention and response strategies in teachers' colleges

The studied colleges have a potpourri of prevention and response strategies across the social ecology that are managed and implemented by the Student Affairs Department. However, these strategies, with the exception of the SH policy in college 2, are not SH dedicated strategies but are strategies that respond to SH among many other student concerns. Many of the institutional prevention and response strategies are student focused and these include SH case management and support services, SH training and education, SH guidance and counselling, SH grievance procedures, and SH policy.

8.3.4. Perceptions on the efficacy of institutional SH prevention and response strategies

Prevention and response strategies implemented in the colleges studied are largely ineffective because of several reasons. Chief among these reasons is the lack of authority by case management structures and support systems to sanction lecturer perpetrators. Accordingly, perpetrators are hardly ever sanctioned or when they are sanctioned the sanctions that include cautioning are barely deterrent enough to stem perpetration. Additionally, SH prevention and response strategies in the colleges are also ineffective because they are victim and not perpetrator focused. There is, therefore, a tendency in the colleges studied to focus on victimisation and not perpetrators. Such a tendency is unlikely to lead to reductions in perpetration. Furthermore, SH prevention and response strategies are managed by lecturers seconded to case management and support services. Such lecturers are conflicted and compromised such that that they are less likely to be partial in processing cases involving lecturer perpetrators of SH. Consequently, there is extensive perpetrator protection in the colleges. more still, rude, discourteous, hostile, and inconsiderate personality traits of case management and support services personnel and the generational gap between them and students render the structures and services inaccessible to students which forestalls SH

reporting. Given this, the SH prevention and response strategies implemented in the colleges do not inspire confidence in their utilisation and incapable of encouraging SH reporting and perpetrator sanctioning.

8.4. Generation of new knowledge

This study has contributed to new knowledge in several ways. Studies on SH from Zimbabwe have been predominantly prevalence studies that have based prevalence rates on descriptive statistics of simple frequency counts of responses (Chireshe & Chireshe, 2009; Dhlomo et al., 2012; Shumba &Matina, 2002; Zindi, 1994). This study extended the frontiers of knowledge by constructing 95% confidence intervals in estimating SH prevalence in teachers' colleges which increased the statistical significance of prevalence rates established in this study. Furthermore, the study, unlike previous studies from Zimbabwe that did not specify how study samples were arrived at, used a power calculated sample at 3.5% margin of error and 95% confidence level. Accordingly, findings from this study are based on the largest sample ever used in Zimbabwe. The construction of 95% confidence intervals on a power calculated sample increases the confidence with which prevalence rates from this study can be generalised to other colleges.

In addition, previous studies from Zimbabwe have measured SH prevalence without attempting to understand the contextual factors behind the prevalence rates established. This study is unique in that, to my knowledge, it is the first to relate prevalence rates to institutional contextual factors. Accordingly, the study established contextual factors that facilitate SH perpetration and drive-up prevalence rates. One of these factors that is new to SH prevention and response literature is case management structures' authority deficits to sanction lecturer perpetrators. The study found that a college can set up SH case management structures without investing in them the authority required to appropriately sanction lecturer perpetrators of SH. Authority deficits to sanction lecturer perpetrators seriously compromised the effectiveness of case management structures in preventing and responding to SH. Further to this, this study is

the first of its kind to attempt to understand institutional responsive strategies in Zimbabwean teachers' colleges. no study, to my knowledge has attempted to do that from Zimbabwe,

8.5. Revisiting research assumptions

This study was premised on four literature informed research assumptions. I revisit these assumptions to establish whether they were confirmed or not by the research findings.

Research assumption 1

   SH is prevalent in TCs in Zimbabwe (Chireshe et al., 2009; Dhlomo et al., 2012)

The assumption that SH is prevalent in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe was confirmed by this study. Study findings quantitatively indicated a 40% SH prevalence rate with gender harassment being the most prevalent at 41% followed by unwanted sexual attention at 37% and sexual coercion at 35%. These quantitative findings were qualitatively corroborated with participants describing SH as "rife" and "a big problem" in the colleges. Findings from this study thus affirm that SH is prevalent in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe.

Research assumption 2

   SH thrives in campus climates that are tolerant of SH (Willness et al., 2007; Estrada et

   al., 2011; Gill, 2013)

Findings from this study validated the assumption that SH thrives in campus climates that are tolerant of SH. The quantitative findings presented contradictory results with 70% of respondents perceiving it as risky to file an SH complaint against a lecturer. this was at odds with high perceptions (86%) that college would take a harassment complaint seriously and that college would appropriately sanction an offending lecturer (66%). The qualitative strand explained this incongruence in quantitative results by establishing a gap between espoused college statements of SH intolerance and the SH lived experiences of participants. The qualitative strand thus established that SH perpetration was driven by contextual factors such as institutional betrayal and a pervading atmosphere of student fear of reporting lecturer

perpetrators (see 6.3). Findings from this study thus validate the assumption that SH thrives in campus climates that are tolerant of SH (Willness et al., 2007; Estrada et al., 2011; Gill, 2013)

Research assumption 3

Institutional responsive strategies are either absent or poorly implemented in TCs in Zimbabwe (Mapuranga et al., 2015; SAYWHAT, 2013).

Study findings authenticated the research assumption that institutional responsive strategies are either absent or poorly implemented in TCs in Zimbabwe (Mapuranga et al., 2015; SAYWHAT, 2013). Findings indicated that there exist prevention and response strategies in the teachers' colleges even though they are not SH dedicated strategies. However, the findings demonstrated gross implementation deficits of the strategies in place that include conflicted and incapacitated case management structures and systems, inaccessible institutional prevention and response structures and systems, infrequent and inadequate SH training and education, and poor policy circulation. Study findings thus affirmed the assumption that institutional responsive strategies are either absent or poorly implemented in TCs in Zimbabwe.

Research assumption 4

Victims/targets of SH do not readily file formal complaints with colleges (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 1997)

Findings from this study proved the assumption that victims/targets of SH do not readily file formal complaints with colleges (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 1997). Behind victim or target reluctance to file formal complaints were several concerns that the study established to include student fear of retaliation for reporting, student fear of being blamed for provoking own victimisation, student fear of stigmatisation and ostracization, student concerns about not being taken seriously, concerns about college not acting on alleged perpetrators, student concerns

about the impartiality of case management staff. This study, therefore, validated the assumption that victims/targets of SH do not readily file formal complaints with colleges.

8.6. Recommendations

Based on findings and conclusions from this study, the ecologically driven four-factor theory, and reviewed literature, I offer practical recommendations on how teachers' colleges can prevent and respond to SH in exercising duty of care towards students. Additionally, I also offer further research recommendations.

8.6.1. Recommendations for further research

Based on conclusions from this study, it is recommended that further research:

- One of the key institutional prevention and response strategy is sexual harassment training and education (Brown et al., 2017; Hennekam & Bennett, 2017; O'Brien, 2018; Oliveira et al., 2018; Sabri et al., 2019). This study did not seek to find out to assess the content of SH training and education and its impact on addressing both perpetration and victimisation risk factors. Accordingly, further research ought to explore the content of SH training and education and to assess training effectiveness in addressing perpetration and victimisation risk factors in Zimbabwean teachers' colleges.

- SH victims and targets are hard to reach and, as such, prevalence studies have tended to be based on data from participants who have not had direct experience of SH. It is, therefore, **important** that further research try and reach these hard-to-find victims and targets so as to understand SH from the perspective of those who have had personal experience of it.

8.6.2. Practical recommendations

Based on conclusions from this study, the following recommendations were arrived at:

- Given that seconding lecturers to case management and support services compromises the efficiency said structures and services because such staff are conflicted and compromised (Namaganda et al., 2021; see also 6.5.1.2; 7.4; 8.2.4.1), it is, therefore, recommended that

colleges staff the case management structures and support services with non-academic personnel to inspire confidence in and utilisation of the structures and services.

- Research has established that comprehensive institutional policies are key to preventing and responding to sexual harassment (Donais et al., 2018; Lee & Wong, 2019; Quick & McFadyen, 2017; Iverson & Issadore, 2018; Sbraga & O'Donohue, 2012). Accordingly, in light of established variability in policy adoption and weak policy implementation in the colleges (see 6.5.3; 7.4; 8.2.4.4), this study recommends that colleges prioritize the development, adoption, and effective implementation of comprehensive anti-SH policies for the utility of a sexual harassment policy depends on its effective implementation (Gardner & Johnson, 2010; Stockdale & Nadler, 2012; Thomas, 2004).

- Dissemination of SH information is key to combating SH. Colleges, therefore, ought to saturate the campus environment with SH information on fliers, leaflets, billboards, notice boards, and pamphlets in numerous places around campus such as residential halls in raising awareness about SH in both lecturers and students.

- Effectively preventing and responding to sexual harassment requires the imposition of deterrent sanctions (Foster & Fullagar, 2018; Omorogiuwa, 2018). In light of this and the incapacity to sanction lecturer perpetrators because of authority deficits to impose sanctions (see 6.5.3; 7.4; 8.2.4.4), it is recommended that authority, within the confines of the law, to sanction lecturer perpetrators be invested in colleges if they are to effectively respond to student sexual harassment.

- Colleges set up off campus case management structures and support services to increase student accessibility to these structures and services for students intimate a reluctance to engage with campus-based prevention and response structures and services. Broad et al., (2018, p. 420) concluded that reporting systems considered "inaccessible, burdensome and unlikely to change the situation" foster victim or target reluctance to engage with such systems.

- SH training and education is reportedly beneficial in preventing and responding to SH (Brown et al., 2017; Hennekam & Bennett, 2017; O'Brien, 2018; Oliveira et al., 2018; Sabri et al., 2019; US EEOC, 2016) for it empowers would be victims to resist victimisation and build empathy with victims in those at risk of perpetration. However, SH training and education in the colleges is not as effective as it should be because there is no dedicated SH training and education, the training and education available is offered infrequently, and it is also student focused or focused on those at risk of victimisation (see 6.5.2.1; 7.4; 8.2.4.2). In light of these findings, it is recommended that SH training and education be offered to both lecturers and students on a frequent basis to ensure constant awareness of the problem and the institutional mechanisms for recourse available to victims and targets. When SH training and education is extended to lecturers who are an at-risk of perpetration group, SH training and education goes upstream to address those risk factors that motivate perpetration (DeGue et al., 2012). Resultantly, reductions in perpetration are likely to be realised when perpetration is made the focus of institutional prevention and response strategies.

- Research has established that the effectiveness of prevention and response strategies depends on the extent to which they are fairly and equitably implemented (Broad et al., 2018; Foster & Fullagar, 2018; Knapp, 2015, Kima et al., 2016). This study has, however, established gross deficits in the implementation of prevention and response strategies in the colleges studied (see 6.3.1; 6.5). Accordingly, it is recommended that prevention and response strategies be enforced to the latter if SH is to be reduced significantly or eliminated altogether.

- Bystander intervention is a recognised and widely implemented evidence-based SH prevention and response strategy that has been shown to be of utility at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of the prevention continuum (Banyard et al., 2018; Cooper & Dranger, 2018; Elias-Lambert & Black, 2016; Kettrey & Tanner-Smith, 2017;

McMahon & Banyard, 2012; Miller, 2018; Zapp et al., 2021). Findings from this study, however, established a nascent approach to bystander intervention in the form of students being advised to desist from visiting lecturers in their offices as individuals but in pairs or groups (see 6.4.1.2). In this context, the study recommends that bystander intervention be adopted and formalised as an SH prevention and response strategy. Bystander intervention alluded to during guidance and counselling sessions be formalised and strengthened as an SH intervention strategy for it is an evidence-based prevention and response strategy that is widely implemented in higher education elsewhere.

- Privacy of workspace is an established enabler of SH perpetration and victimisation (Ollo-López & Nuñez, 2018; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016; Waugh, 2010; see also 6.2.1.4). Given that lecturers' offices provide the privacy necessary for SH perpetration, this study recommends that office space for lecturers be reconfigured to disrupt the privacy and seclusion that form part of the pathway to SSH (see Figure 6.1)

- Institutional SH prevention and response efforts should not be college focused only but should extend to addressing those patriarchal and sexist norms and values in the wider community to which colleges belong for when community risk factors remain unaddressed, it will be difficult to realise significant reductions in or elimination of SH in colleges(Mellgren et al., 2018; Diehl et al., 2018; Menon et al., 2009; Phipps, 2020; Avendaño, 2018; Hennekam &Bennett, 2017; Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016; Whitley & Page, 2015).Accordingly, this study recommends that colleges engage with SH at the community level of the social ecology if the battle against SH is to be won in institutions. Institutional prevention and response efforts that target the community may include community-based SH awareness campaigns that include college facilitated workshops and roadshows.

8.7. The socio-ecological SH prevention and response model for teachers' colleges

At this point, I present, in figure 8.1, a socio-ecological SH prevention and response model for teachers' colleges. The model presents ecological layers and propose multilevel prevention and response strategies appropriate for each layer. This model can be useful in informing teachers' colleges in developing and implementing as well as in timing multi-level prevention and response strategies in teachers' colleges.

Figure 8.1

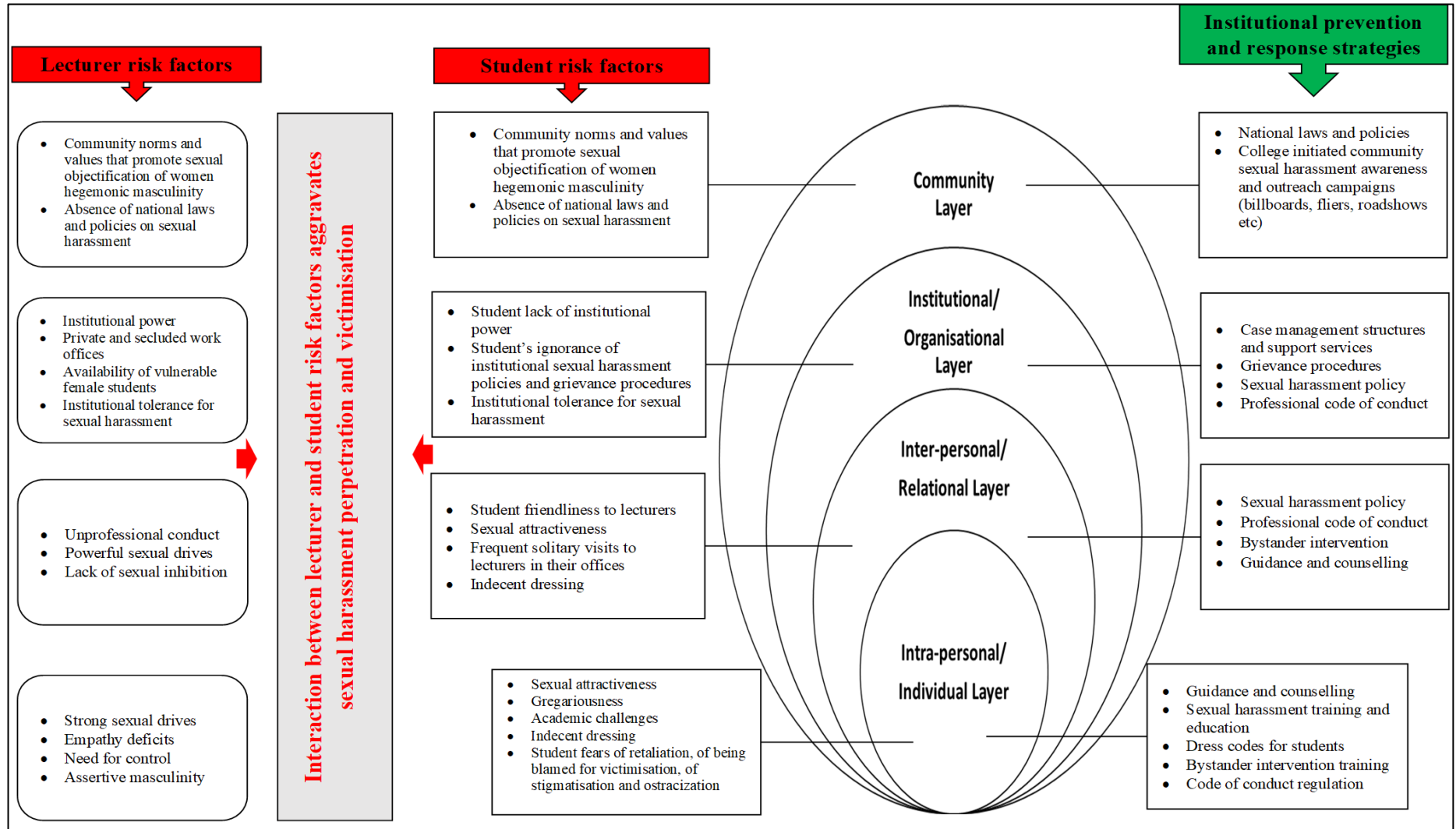**The Socio-Ecological Sexual Harassment Prevention and Response Model**

Figure 8.1, the proposed socio-ecological sexual harassment prevention and response model, highlights the importance of tailoring multilevel prevention and response strategies to lecturer perpetration and student victimisation risk factors. On the extreme left of the model are layer specific perpetration risk factors and to the immediate right of these perpetration risk factors are layer specific victimisation risk factors. When perpetration and victimisation risk factors intersect, the likelihood of both sexual harassment perpetration and victimisation to occur is accentuated (see the pathway to student sexual harassment in figure 6.1). Next to the victimisation risk factors is the social ecology framework indicating the layers found in a college setting. To the right of this framework are the layer specific intervention strategies that can be deployed by colleges in preventing and responding to lecturer perpetrated student sexual harassment at specific layers of the social ecology. It is important to note that prevention and response strategies may overlap several layers in as much as risk factors may also straddle several layers.

8.8. Chapter summary

Conclusions from this qualitatively driven sequential explanatory study presented in this chapter indicate that SH is pervasive in teachers' colleges with prevalence rates decreasing with harassment severity. Male lecturers were identified as the prime perpetrators of SH and female students as at risk of SH victimisation. The most vulnerable to SH victimisation were female students with academic challenges, students with typical feminine bodies, students who dress indecently, and those who are overly friendly and outgoing with lecturers. The pervasiveness of SH in the colleges suggested institutional tolerance for SH in the colleges. Key features of institutional tolerance for SH included risk associated with reporting lecturer SH perpetrators and inability by the colleges to appropriately sanction lecturer perpetrators of SH. Institutional tolerance for SH manifested in the form of institutional betrayal and an atmosphere of student fear of reporting SH. The colleges studied were found to be extremely similar in the prevention and response strategies they deployed. These strategies included SH training and education, SH

guidance and counselling, SH policy, SH case management structures and support systems, SH grievance procedures, and collaboration with external agencies. Despite the adoption and implementation of these strategies, SH remains pervasive in the colleges. The persistence of SH in the colleges points to deficits in the implementation of institutional prevention and response strategies to SH. Participants thus bemoaned the inadequacy and ineffectiveness of case management structures and support systems that included authority deficits to sanction reported lecturer offenders, conflicted and overburdened SH prevention and response structures, and personality and skills deficits of case management personnel. When considered, the findings from this study made a case for several recommendations. Among these recommendations is the recommendation that colleges staff case management structures and support systems with non-teaching personnel that are not conflicted and compromised. Additionally, the chapter presented the socio-ecological SH prevention and response model for TCs that may be useful in guiding TCs in developing and timing prevention and response strategies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethical Clearance Certificate-Great Zimbabwe University

GREATZIMBABWEUNIVERSITY

NAME OF APPLICANT: KELVIN HENRY USANGA

DEPARTMENT: EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

PROJECT TITLE: INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIVENESS TO STUDENT SEXUAL HARASSMENT AT TEACHERS' COLLEGES IN ZIMBABWE

APPROVAL No: 2019/05

COMMENCEMENT DATE: NOVEMBER 2019

APPROVAL VALID TO: NOVEMBER 2022

COMMENTS:

The researcher must report immediately to the School Ethics Review Committee anything that might affect ethical acceptance of the protocol. This includes adverse reactions of the participants, proposed changes in the protocol, and any other unforeseen events that might affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project.

In issuing this approval number, it is required that all data and consent forms are stored in a secure location for a minimum period of five years. These documents may be required for compliance audit processes during that time. If the location at which data and documentation are retained is changed within that five year period, the School Ethics Review Committee should be advised of the new location.

SIGNATURES:

Chairperson, School Ethics Review Committee   22/11/19
Date

Director, Research and Postgraduate Studies   10/12/2019
Date

Appendix 2: Ministerial Authorisation to Carry Out Research

All official communications should be addressed to:
"The Secretary for Higher & Tertiary Education
Telephones: 795891-5, 796441-9, 730055-9
Fax Numbers: 792109, 728730, 703957
E-mail: thesecretary@mhet.ac.zw
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"

ZIMBABWE

Reference:

MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY
EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
DEVELOPMENT
P. BAG CY 7732
CAUSEWAY

22 January 2020

Mr K .H Usanga
C/O Mutare Teachers College

Mr K. H .Usanga
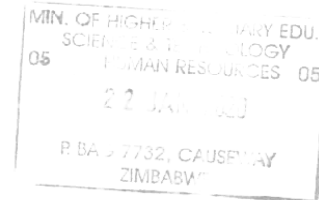
**RE: AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN TEACHERS COLLEGES: MINISTRY OF
HIGHER   AND   TERTIARY   EDUCATION,   SCIENCE   AND   TECHNOLOGY
DEVELOPMENT**

Reference is made to your letter in which you requested for permission to carry out a
Research at Teachers Colleges in Zimbabwe.

Accordingly, please be advised that the Head of Ministry has granted permission for you
to carry out the research.

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

A.T.Fore (Mrs)
Human Resources Officer
**For Secretary-Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation, Science &
Technology Development**

Appendix 3: Information sheet for college principals

ROBERT MUGABE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
Department of Educational Foundations

P O Box 1235   **Off Bulawayo Road**
MASVINGO   **MASVINGO. Zimbabwe**
Tel: 263 (0)39-263408
Fax: 263 (0)39-253504

INFORMATION SHEET FOR COLLEGE PRINCIPALS

INTRODUCTION

I, Usanga Kelvin Henry, am a Doctoral candidate with Great Zimbabwe University. I am carrying out a study titled: ***Institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment at teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe***.

The university requires me to conduct field research as part process of compiling the Doctoral thesis. Accordingly, your college has been drafted into the research sample. As a result, I request your consent to participate in the study.

Study participants

Research participants include students (including SRC members, peer educators), lecturers (including those seconded to the Student Support Centre, the Registrar or Student Affairs Office, Disciplinary Committee Members and HODs).

Study purpose

The study seeks to:

1. Explore the prevalence of SSH in teachers' colleges.

2. Examine teachers' colleges policy and strategic responsiveness to SSH.

3. Examine the views of teachers' college stakeholders on policies and strategies employed to address SSH.

4. Evaluate the effectiveness of institutional policies and strategies in addressing SSH in teachers' colleges.

It is envisaged that the research will contribute towards building an understanding of the magnitude of student sexual harassment and institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment. The research will thus empower institutional leaders to understand the gravity of the sexual harassment problem, institute responsive strategies where these are absent, and to strengthen responsive strategies where they are already in existence.

Participants' rights to voluntary participation

Participants reserve the right to voluntarily participate in this study. This right to voluntary participation includes the right to participate, decline to participate or withdraw from participation at any stage of the study, without being required to provide reasons for such withdrawal, even when consent to participate would have been given at the inception of the study.

The researcher will appraise potential participants on the nature of the study, study processes and procedures, and participants' roles in the conduct of the study. Additionally, potential risks will be communicated to participants. Thus informed, participants will then make informed decisions on whether to participate or to decline participation.

Informed Consent

You will be presented with a letter of consent that you are duly required to sign before commencement of the study. In this letter, I describe in detail the scope of the study and the study processes and procedures. A description of the scope, processes and procedures of the study will provide you the basis for consenting or declining to participate in this study.

Safety in participation

Participants will be required to respond to a structured questionnaire, to respond to researcher questions in both face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions. Owing to the sensitive nature of the study, participants may face backlash from perpetrators and those who may feel obliged to protect institutional reputation. Accordingly, measures will be taken to ensure participants' safety in participation. These measures include the anonymization of data, and

using pseudonyms to refer to both participants and the study site. Additionally, face to face interviews and focus group discussions will be conducted in locations that participants are comfortable with. More importantly, participants will be advised not to proffer information that they think might expose them to risk or to offer such information, in confidentiality, to the researcher.

Securing privacy and trust of participants

In securing the trust and privacy of participants, the researcher guarantees treating data collected from participants as confidential. The researcher guarantees that only the researcher and the research supervisors will access the data collected. Additionally, the researcher will not use the data collected for any other purpose other than the research purposes stated in this information sheet. Furthermore, the researcher stores data securely in soft copy form and uses passwords to secure the data.

The researcher secures the privacy of participants through the anonymization of both data and study sites. To achieve this, the researcher uses pseudonyms to refer to study participants and study sites. As such, no data is traceable back to participants and study sites.

The researcher secures participants' trust through member checking. Member checking allows participants to cross check the data collected to ensure that it is a true reflection of their perspective. Participants will engage in member checking both during the data collection stage and the report writing stage.

The researcher upholds the virtues of honesty and respect in interacting with research participants. This implies that the researcher will uphold the dignity of participants as human beings and will be always sensitive and responsive to their needs and concerns.

Data collection procedures

The study will be conducted in two phases. In the initial quantitative phase, the researcher will collect data using a structured questionnaire administered to participants. The questionnaire ensures anonymity of respondents for participants are not required to indicate their names or

institutions on the questionnaire. In the subsequent qualitative phase, data will be collected through face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis. Face to face interviews and focus group discussions will be audio recorded to permit the researcher to engage with the data post interviews and discussions. Audio recordings of interviews and discussions will be secured and shared only with study supervisors. Participants for the second phase of the study will be drawn from the initial sample.

Authorization to conduct the research

Both Great Zimbabwe University and the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science, Innovation, and Technological Development have authorised the research. Great Zimbabwe University, through its Ethical Review Committee, issued a clearance certificate that authorizes the conduct of this research. Attached to this information sheet is the ethical clearance certificate. The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science, Innovation, and Technological Development also authorised this research. The Ministerial letter of approval to conduct this study is also attached to this information sheet. Authorization by both the parent University and the responsible line ministry, however, is not a directive for participants' participation. Participants still retain the right to participate or not to participate in the study.

Please, contact the researcher or the research supervisors with any concerns regarding the contents of this information sheet. Contact details are provided below.

Contact details for researcher:

Email   usangakh@gmail.com

Mobile number   0773563362

Contact details for research supervisors:

1. **Runhare, T. (Associate Professor)**

   Mobile   +27833879903; Email Tawanda.Runhare@univen.ac.za

2. **Gwirayi, p. (professor)**

   Mobile   +263712887712; Email gwirayip@gzu.ac.zw

Appendix 4: Informed consent declaration form

ROBERT MUGABE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
Department of Educational Foundations

P O Box 1235   **Off Bulawayo Road**
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Tel: 263 (0)39-263408
Fax: 263 (0)39-253504

INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION FORM

To uphold ethical research practice, Great Zimbabwe University requires that research participants be appraised of the nature of a proposed study, its purposes, and the role of participants in the said study. Having thus been appraised, participants are required to consent to participation in the study. Accordingly, you are requested to complete this consent declaration form as evidence that you have been appraised of the nature of the study, its purposes, and that you hereby give your informed consent to participate in this study.

I ……………………………………………………………………………………hereby confirm that I have been fully informed about the purpose, procedure and activities of the study entitled *'Institutional responsiveness to student sexual harassment in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe'.* The rights of participants and the risk of the study to the participants have been fully explained to me. I also have been made to understand that I reserve the right, without being required to offer any reason whatsoever, to withdraw from the study at any given time and at any stage of the research process.

Consent

I, therefore, hereby freely **give** my informed consent to participate in this research study.

Tick

I, therefore, hereby freely **do not give** my consent to participate in this research study.

Tick

Participant`s Signature: ……………………………… Date…………..........

Researcher`s Signature: …………………………….…...   Date: ……………………

Appendix 5: Student Questionnaire

ROBERT MUGABE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
Department of Educational Foundations

Off Bulawayo Road
MASVINGO. Zimbabwe

P O Box 1235
MASVINGO

Tel: 263 (0)39-263408
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SEXUAL EXPERIENCES AND PERCEPTION OF INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIVENESS TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Student

I am Usanga Kelvin Henry, a doctoral student in the Robert Mugabe School of Education at Great Zimbabwe University. My studies require me to submit a thesis and this questionnaire is part of the process of producing and submitting the required thesis. The questionnaire elicits your responses on your perceptions of the prevalence of sexual harassment at your institution and assesses the extent to which your institution is responsive to sexual harassment. Kindly fill in the questionnaire as honestly as you can. The researcher pledges to treat responses confidentially and to use them for purposes of this study only. You are not required to write your names on the questionnaire. Thank you.

Part A: Demographic data

Please tick ✔ the appropriate box.

Age: 18-22years ☐   23-27 years ☐   28-30 years ☐   31+ years ☐

Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐

Year of study: 1ˢᵗ year ☐   2ⁿᵈ year ☐   3ʳᵈ year ☐

Part B: Experiences with sexual harassment

Instructions:

Please tick ✔ the response that most closely describes your experiences against each item.
The scale is as follows:

Never = 0: *Once or twice* = 1; *Sometimes* = 2; *Often* = 3; *Most of the time* = 4

	RESPONSES				
Item	*Never*	*Once or twice*	*Sometimes*	*Often*	*Most of the time*
During your years at this college as a student, have you ever been in a situation where you witnessed, heard about or experienced any of your lecturers...					
1. ...treating students differently because of their gender					
2. ...displaying, using, or distributing sexist or sexually suggestive materials					
3. ...making offensive sexist remarks					
4. ...putting students down or treating them as inferior because of their gender					
5. ...repeatedly telling stories or jokes of a sexual nature that were offensive to students					
6. ...whistling, calling, or hooting at students in a sexually suggestive manner					
7. ...making unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters					
8. ...making crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly or privately to students					
9. ...making offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities					
10. ...making gestures or using body language of a sexual nature					
11. ...staring, leering, or ogling students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable					
12. ...exposing themselves physically in a way that embarrassed students or made them feel uncomfortable					
13. ...displaying, using, or distributing sexually suggestive					

materials					
14. …making unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students					
15. ...repeatedly asking a student out for dates, drinks, dinner.					
16. …touching students in a way that made the student feel uncomfortable					
17. …making unwanted attempts to stroke or fondle students					
18. …making attempts to have sex with a student against the student's will that resulted in the student pleading, crying, or physically struggling					
19. …having sex with a student without the student's consent or against the student's will					
20. …making students feel like they are being bribed with some special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour					
21. …making students feel threatened for not being sexually cooperative					
22. …treating students badly for refusing to have sex					
23. …implying better treatment if a student were sexually cooperative					
24. …making a student afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually					
25. …sexually harassing students at college					

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Part C: Perception of organisational climate

Instructions: Below are *six* scenarios describing situations at college. Three questions follow each scenario. Please tick ✔ the appropriate response as perceived by you for each of the three questions against each scenario.

Scenarios	How risky would it be for a student to make a formal complaint at college?						What is the likelihood of the college taking the student seriously?						How likely will the lecturer concerned be appropriately sanction by the college			
	Absolutely risky	Risky	Slightly risky	Slightly not risky	Absolutely not		Not seriously at all	Slightly serious	Somewhat serious	Moderately	Extremely serious		Absolutely unlikely	Slightly unlikely	likely	Slightly likely
1. A lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students																
2. A lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or sexually suggestive materials																
3. A lecturer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite the student's efforts to discourage it																
4. A lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?																
5. A lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative																
6. A lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex																

* Would you like to participate in the second phase of this study?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If you feel you would like to participate in the second phase of the study, kindly contact the researcher on **+263773563362**

Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire. Your participation is greatly valued.

ROBERT MUGABE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
Department of Educational Foundations

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**SEXUAL EXPERIENCES AND PERCEPTION OF INSTITUTIONAL
RESPONSIVENESS TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE**

Dear Lecturer

I am Usanga Kelvin Henry, a doctoral student in the Robert Mugabe School of Education at Great Zimbabwe University. My studies require me to submit a thesis and this questionnaire is part of the process of producing and submitting the required thesis. This questionnaire elicits your responses on your perceptions of the prevalence of sexual harassment at your institution and assesses the extent to which your institution is responsive to sexual harassment. Kindly fill in the questionnaire as honestly as you can. The researcher pledges to treat responses as confidential and to use them for purposes of this study only.

Thank you.

Part A: Demographic data

Please tick ✔ the appropriate box.

Age: 30-35years ☐   36-40 years ☐   41-50 years ☐   51+ years ☐

Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐

Number of years at college:

1-5 years   6-10 years   11-15 years   15+ years

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Part B: Students' experiences with sexually harassing behaviours

Instructions:

Please tick ✔ the response that most closely describes your experiences against each research item.

The scale is as follows:

Never = 0: *Once or twice* = 1; *Sometimes* = 2; *Often* = 3; *Most of the time* = 4

Item		Never	Once or twice	Sometimes	Often	Most of the time
		RESPONSES				
During your years at this college as a lecturer, have you ever witnessed, heard about or experienced situations in which lecturers have...						
1.	...treated students differently because of their gender					
2.	...displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials					
3.	...made offensive sexist remarks					
4.	...put students down or treated students as inferior because of their gender					
5.	...repeatedly told sexual stories or jokes that were offensive to students					
6.	...whistled, called, or hooted at students in a sexual way					
7.	...made unwelcome attempts to draw students into a discussion of sexual matters					
8.	...made crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly or privately					
9.	...made offensive remarks about students' appearance, body, or sexual activities					
10.	...made gestures or used body language of a sexual nature which embarrassed or offended students					
11.	...stared, leered, or ogled you in a way that made students feel uncomfortable					
12.	...exposed themselves physically in a way that embarrassed students or made them feel uncomfortable					

13. …displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials					
14. …made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with students despite their efforts to discourage it					
15. …touched students in a way that made them feel uncomfortable					
16. …attempted to have sex with students without their consent or against their will but was unsuccessful					
17. …had sex with students without their consent or against their will					
18. …made students feel like they were being bribed with some sort of reward or special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour					
19. …made students feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative					
20. …treated students badly for refusing sexual advances					
21. …implied better treatment if students were sexually cooperative					
22. …made students afraid they would be treated poorly if they didn't cooperate sexually					
23. Lecturers sexually harass students.					

Part C (ii): Perception of organisational climate

Instructions: Below are *six* scenarios describing situations that female students may experience at college. Three questions follow each scenario. Please tick ✔ the appropriate response as perceived by you for each of the three questions against each scenario.

Scenarios	How risky would it be for a student to make a formal complaint at college?					What is the likelihood of the college taking the student seriously?					How likely will the lecturer concerned be appropriately sanctioned by the college				
	Absolutely risky	Risky	Slightly risky	Slightly not risky	Absolutely not risky	Not seriously at all	Slightly serious	Somewhat serious	Moderately serious	Extremely serious	Absolutely unlikely	Slightly unlikely	likely	Slightly likely	Absolutely likely
1. A lecturer repeatedly tells sexual stories or jokes that are offensive to students															
2. A lecturer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials which a student finds offensive															
3. A lecturer makes unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with a student despite her/his efforts to discourage it															
4. A lecturer touched a student in a way that made her/him feel uncomfortable?															
5. A lecturer made a student feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative															
6. A lecturer treated a student badly for refusing to have sex															

* Would you like to participate in the second phase of this study?

Yes [   ]   No [   ]

If you strongly feel you would like to participate in the second phase of the study, kindly contact the researcher on **+263773563362**

Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire. Your participation is greatly valued

Appendix 7: Interview guide for students' support centre staff

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INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STUDENTS' SUPPORT CENTRE STAFF

Dear Staff

I am Usanga Kelvin Henry, a doctoral student in the Robert Mugabe School of Education at Great Zimbabwe University. My studies require me to submit a thesis and this interview is part of the process of producing and submitting the required thesis. The interview elicits your responses on your perceptions of sexual harassment at your institution and to assess the extent to which your institution is responsive to sexual harassment. You reserve the right to participate or not to participate in this discussion. You also have the right to withdraw from the discussion at any given point in time. Kindly answer the questions as honestly as you can. The researcher pledges to treat responses as confidential and to use them for purposes of this study only.

Thank you.

Interview questions

1. Explain your understanding of what sexual harassment means to you in a college setting
2. Would you say sexual harassment is a problem within the college?
3. Describe the types of sexual harassment that are mostly reported by students to the centre.
4. Whom would you say are the primary perpetrators and targets of sexual harassment in the college? Justify your answer.
5. From your experience, how do students who experience sexual harassment make a formal complaint?
6. What is the student support centre doing in dealing with sexual harassment?
7. Describe the type of training that you have received to be able to handle cases of sexual harassment
8. How does the college make students and lecturers aware of sexual harassment?
9. From your experience, what challenges do targets of sexual harassment encounter in making formal complaints in this college?
10. How best do you think the college can combat sexual harassment?

Thank you for taking time to participate in this interview.

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INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DISCIPLINARY COMMITTEE MEMBERS, LECTURERS SECONDED TO THE REGISTRAR'S OFFICE, PEER EDUCATORS AND STUDENT REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL MEMBERS

I am Usanga Kelvin Henry, a doctoral student in the Robert Mugabe School of Education at Great Zimbabwe University. My studies require me to submit a thesis and this interview is part of the process of producing and submitting the required thesis. This interview elicits your responses on your perceptions of sexual harassment at your institution and to assess the extent to which your institution is responsive to sexual harassment. You reserve the right to participate or not to participate in this discussion. You also have the right to withdraw from the discussion at any given point in time. Kindly answer the questions as honestly as you can. The researcher pledges to treat responses as confidential and to use them for purposes of this study only.

Thank you.

Interview questions

1. What do you understand by sexual harassment in the context of this college?
2. How does the college usually handle cases of sexual harassment?
3. In what way is sexual harassment a problem at this college?
4. What is the college doing in addressing sexual harassment?
5. Describe the grievance/complaint procedures of reporting sexual harassment in the college?
6. How do female students usually handle experiences of sexual harassment?
7. What challenges do you think victims of sexual harassment encounter in making formal complaints?
8. How best do you think the college can combat sexual harassment?
9. What human/material and financial resources are committed to dealing with sexual harassment within the college?
10. From your experience in the college, what happens to sexual harassment perpetrators?

Thank you for taking time to participate in this interview

Appendix 9: Focus group discussion guide

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FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR STUDENTS

I am Usanga Kelvin Henry, a doctoral student in the Robert Mugabe School of Education at Great Zimbabwe University. My studies require me to submit a thesis and this interview is part of the process of producing and submitting the required thesis. This interview elicits your responses on your perceptions of sexual harassment at your institution and to assess the extent to which your institution is responsive to sexual harassment. You reserve the right to participate or not to participate in this discussion. You also have the right to withdraw from the discussion at any given point in time. Kindly answer the questions as honestly as you can. The researcher pledges to treat responses as confidential and to use them for purposes of this study only.

Interview questions

1. What do we understand by sexual harassment in the college?
2. In what way is sexual harassment a problem at this college?
3. How do victims of sexual harassment handle the problem in the college? Explain why?
4. What is the college doing in dealing with sexual harassment?
5. How does the college train stakeholders about sexual harassment?
6. What would you do if you were to witness a lecturer sexually harassing a student? Explain your answer.
7. What happens to lecturers who sexually harass students?

Thank you for taking time to participate in this interview

Appendix 10: Disciplinary hearing report analysis guide

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DISCIPLINARY HEARING REPORT ANALYSIS

POLICY CHARACTERISTIC	DIMENSION (Circle the appropriate)		DETAILS OF DIMENSION (Provide full description of dimension)	OTHE REMAR
Are disciplinary reports available	Yes	No	Form in which reports are available	
Is the disciplinary committee properly constituted	Yes	No	Details of members who constitute the disciplinary committee	
Does the report provide sufficient case context	Yes	No	Examples of case contexts	
Is the disciplinary committee properly constituted	Yes	No	Link between committee and policy	
Are hearing procedures being followed	Yes	No	Details of hearing procedures	
Is the hearing process fair and just?	Yes	No	Evaluation of the fairness of hearing process	
Has the disciplinary hearing committee made any decisions on cases presented before it	Yes	No	Decisions made by the hearing committee	
Are decisions of the hearing committee enforced by the administration	Yes	No	Evidence of enforcement of committee decisions	

Appendix 11: Sexual harassment policy document analysis

ROBERT MUGABE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
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POLICY DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

POLICY CHARACTERISTIC	DIMENSION (Circle the appropriate)		DETAILS OF DIMENSION (Provide full description of dimension)	OTI REMI
Is a sexual harassment policy available	Yes	No	Form in which policy is available	
Does policy define sexual harassment	Yes	No	Definition provided	
Does policy provide sexual harassment examples	Yes	No	Examples of sexual harassment	
Is sexual harassment policy written in accessible language	Yes	No	Examples of accessibility or inaccessibility	
Does policy spell out grievance procedures	Yes	No	Details of grievance procedures	
Does policy provide details of contact persons	Yes	No	Details of contact persons provided	
Does policy specify responsible offices	Yes	No	Examples of offices responsible for handling sexual harassment cases	
Is policy regularly updated and reviewed	Yes	No	Details of when policy update was made and the nature of the updates	
Is policy posted on college website	Yes	No	Description of policy on website	
Does policy spell out sanctions against sexual harassment perpetrators	Yes	No	Nature of sanctions	
Does policy enunciate support services	Yes	No	Nature of support services available	
Does the policy target audience include lecturers and students	Yes	No	Description of policy target audience	
Is the purpose of the policy communicated	Yes	No	Description of policy purpose	
Is the policy authentic	Yes	No	Nature of authenticity	
Does policy provide primary sexual harassment prevention strategies	Yes	No	Description of strategies	
Does policy provide secondary strategies for redressing sexual harassment	Yes	No	Description of strategies	
Does policy provide tertiary strategies for preventing sexual harassment	Yes	No	Description of strategies	
Is policy grounded in international /regional and constitutional laws	Yes	No	Examples of reference	

Appendix 12: Turnitin originality report

Institutional Responsiveness to Student Sexual Harassment