CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Literature reviews are absolutely indispensable when planning a research study because they can help guide the researcher in an appropriate direction by answering several questions related to the topic area. The importance and value of a well-conducted and thorough literature review cannot be overstated in the context of planning a research study (Christensen, 2001). The primary purpose of a literature review is to help researchers become familiar with the work that has already been conducted in their selected topic areas.

2.2 OVERVIEW OF REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present chapter ‘Review of Literature’ consisted of 5 separate parts for the convenience of understanding. On the whole, the present literatures reviewed about the definitions of Sexual Harassment, relevant theories of Sexual Harassment, Prevalence, Nature, and Extent of Sexual Harassment, Victimization, Victims Reaction, Impact of Victimization, Reporting Behaviour of Victims, Perception of Sexual Harassment, Relationship between variables etc. However, part 5 of this chapter also alone more specifically deals with specific issues of Sexual Harassment such as Nature and Extent of Sexual Harassment, workplace, Victims , Harassers, Job Status of Victims and Harassers, Physical Attractiveness, Racial Characteristics, Victims’ Reaction to Sexual Harassment, Reporting Behaviour, and Impact of Sexual Harassment , as special emphasizes to these issues. The literature review has been arranged in the following order herewith:

1. Reviews of Definitions of Sexual Harassment
2. Reviews of Theories of Sexual Harassment
3. Reviews of International Researches
4. Reviews of Indian Researches

5. Reviews of Specific Issues of Sexual Harassment

2.2.1 Reviews of Definitions of Sexual Harassment

Not surprisingly, there are wide disagreements concerning the definition and the universality of the concept of sexual harassment. As a result, until recently, it was not widely mentioned in public pronouncements and documents, except broadly as sex discrimination. The reasons are many and some of these have been noted earlier. For example,

1. The concept suffers from ambiguity and cultural relativism.

2. The concept is dominated by ideas of workplace sexual harassment, which restricts its applicability.

3. Critics reject the male bias implied in the characterization of sexual harassment (Bortei& Aryeetey, 2004).

The lack of an universal definition of what constitutes sexual harassment makes it more difficult to objectively measure and quantify it in an International or cross-cultural research. The reviewed definitions of sexual harassment in across the globe continued as follows.

2.2.1.1 International Level Definitions of Sexual Harassment

(a). In United Nations

United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, in its general recommendation No.19, defined the term ‘sexual harassment’ as follows:

Sexual harassment includes such unwelcome sexually determined behavior as physical contact and advances, sexually coloured remarks, showing pornography and sexual demand, whether by words or actions. Such conduct can be humiliating and may constitute a health and safety problem; it is discriminatory when the woman has
reasonable grounds to believe that her objection would disadvantage her in connection with her employment, including recruitment or promotion, or when it creates a hostile working environment (www.un.org).

(b). International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU), 1986

The ‘union guide on sexual harassment at work’ published by the Women’s Bureau of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) in 1986 defines and describes ‘sexual harassment’ as under:

“Sexual Harassment is any repeated and unwanted verbal, physical or gestural sexual advances, sexually explicit derogatory statement, or sexually discriminatory remarks made by someone in the workplace which are offensive to the worker involved, which cause the worker to feel threatened, humiliated, patronized or harassed, or which interfere with the worker’s job performance, undermine job security or create a threatening or intimidating work environment.

Sexual harassment encompasses a wide range of unwanted sexual advances including unnecessary physical contact, touching or patting; suggestive and unwelcome remarks, jokes, comments about appearance and deliberate verbal abuse; leering and compromising invitations; use of pornography pictures at the workplace; demands for sexual favours; physical assault.” (ILO, 1992).

2.2.1.2 Sexual Harassment Definitions in the Continent of Americas

(a). In United States of America (EEOC)

In the American Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) (1985) produced one of the first set of guidelines dealing with sexual harassment. The Commission took the position that sexual harassment was a violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The EEOC guidelines define ‘sexual harassment’ as follows:
“Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

1. Submission to such conduct was made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment,

2. Submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual was used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individual, or

3. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.” From these definition The EEOC's Guidelines classified two types of sexual harassment: "quid pro quo" and "hostile environment."

(b). In California

According to the Fair Employment and Housing Department, State of California, government official website The Fair Employment and Housing Act (FEHA) defines sexual harassment as harassment based on sex or of a sexual nature; gender harassment; and harassment based on pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions. The definition of sexual harassment includes many forms of offensive behavior, including harassment of a person of the same gender as the harasser. The following is a partial list of types of sexual harassment:

- Unwanted sexual advances
- Offering employment benefits in exchange for sexual favors
- Actual or threatened retaliation
- Leering; making sexual gestures; or displaying sexually suggestive objects, pictures, cartoons, or posters
- Making or using derogatory comments, epithets, slurs, or jokes
• Sexual comments including graphic comments about an individual’s body; sexually degrading words used to describe an individual; or suggestive or obscene letters, notes, or invitations

• Physical touching or assault, as well as impeding or blocking movements (www.dfeh.ca).

(c). In Canada

The Canada Labour Code (1985) defines ‘sexual harassment as’ as follows in Section 247.1:

“Sexual harassment means any contact, comment, gesture, or contact of a sexual nature

   (a) That is likely to cause offence or humiliation to any employee; or

   (b) That might, on reasonable grounds be perceived by that employee as placing a condition of a sexual nature on employment or on any opportunity for training or promotion.”

2.2.1.3 Sexual Harassment Definitions in the Continent of Europe

(a). European Commission’s definition of sexual harassment

The European Commission’s (EC) Code of Practice defines sexual harassment as conduct affecting the dignity of women and men at work: “Sexual harassment means unwanted conduct of a sexual nature, or other conduct based on sex affecting the dignity of women and men at work. This includes unwelcome physical, verbal or nonverbal conduct”. In further, the European Union’s revised Equal Treatment Directive 2002/73/EC defines “sexual harassment” as “any form of unwanted verbal, on-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature” having the “the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, in particular when creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment” (Official Journal of the European Communities, 2002).
(b). In United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, the terms Harassment and Sexual Harassment are included in the Employment Equality (Sex Discrimination) Regulations 2005. Before 2005, sexual harassment in the workplace was not actually defined in the Sex Discrimination Act 1975. As per the present regulations “Harassment, including sexual harassment” as

(1) For the purposes of this Act, a person subjects a woman to harassment if—

(a) on the ground of her sex, he engages in unwanted conduct that has the purpose or effect—

(i) of violating her dignity, or

(ii) of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for her,

(b) he engages in any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature that has the purpose or effect—

(i) of violating her dignity, or

(ii) of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for her, or

(c) on the ground of her rejection of or submission to unwanted conduct of a kind mentioned in paragraph (a) or (b), he treats her less favourably than he would treat her had she not rejected, or submitted to, the conduct (http://www.legislation.gov.uk).

(c). In Switzerland

Article 4 of the Federal Act on Gender Equality (GEA) of 1995 defines sexual harassment in the workplace as follows: “Any behaviour of a sexual nature or other behaviour attributable to gender which affronts the human dignity of males and females in the workplace. This expressly includes threats, the promise of advantages, the
application of coercion and the exercise of pressure to achieve an accommodation of a sexual nature (http://www.whatishumanresource.com).”

2.2.1.4 Sexual Harassment Definitions in the Continent of Australia

(a). In Australia


“A person sexually harasses another person if:

(a) The person makes an unwelcome sexual advance, or an unwelcome request for sexual favours, to the person harassed; or

(b) engages in other unwelcome conduct of sexual nature in relation to the person harassed:

In circumstance in which a reasonable person, having regard to all the circumstances, would have anticipated that the person harassed would be offended, humiliated or intimidated.”

(b). In New Zealand

According to Employment Relations Act 2000, “an employee is sexually harassed in that employee's employment if that employee's employer or a representative of that employer—(a) directly or indirectly makes a request of that employee for sexual intercourse, sexual contact, or other form of sexual activity that contains—(i) an implied or overt promise of preferential treatment in that employee's employment; or(ii) an implied or overt threat of detrimental treatment in that employee's employment; or(iii) an implied or overt threat about the present or future employment status of that employee; or(b) by—(i) the use of language (whether written or spoken) of a sexual nature; or (ii) the use of visual material of a sexual nature; or (iii) physical behaviour of a sexual nature,—directly or indirectly subjects the employee to behaviour that is unwelcome or offensive
to that employee (whether or not that is conveyed to the employer or representative) and that, either by its nature or through repetition, has a detrimental effect on that employee's employment, job performance, or job satisfaction” (http://www.legislation.govt.nz).

### 2.2.1.5 Sexual Harassment Definitions in the Continent of Asia

**a. In India**

In Judgement on Vishaka & others Vs State of Rajasthan & others (1997), Supreme Court of India, for the first time defines “sexual harassment includes such unwelcome sexually determined behaviour (whether directly or by implication) as: (a) Physical contact and advances; (b) A demand or request for sexual favours; (c) Sexually coloured remarks; (d) Showing pornography; (e) Any other unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of sexual nature”.

**b. In Malaysia**

Article 4 of the 1999 Malaysian Code of Practice on the Prevention and Eradication of Sexual Harassment in the Workplace defines sexual harassment as:

‘Any unwanted conduct of a sexual nature having the effect of verbal, non-verbal, visual, psychological or physical harassment:

That might, on reasonable grounds, be perceived by the recipient as placing a condition of a sexual nature on her/his employment; or

That might, on reasonable grounds, be perceived by the recipient as an offence or humiliation, or a threat to her/his well-being, but has no direct link to her/his employment.’ (Cecilia, 2002).

### 2.2.2 Reviews of Theories of Sexual Harassment

#### 2.2.2.1 Routine Activity Approach

The routine activities perspective in criminology suggests that the routine, daily activities of potential victims can be used to explicate the victimization of individuals
and/or the victimization rates of groups. The centerpiece of the routine activities approach to victimization is that direct-contact violations require three components: (a) a motivated offender, (b) a suitable target, and (c) the absence of capable guardians that may thwart the crime. When these three components converge, criminal events are likely to ensue. Therefore, the risk of victimization is greatest for persons or groups whose routine, daily activities bring them and their property in contact with motivated offenders in the absence of guardians. Motivated offenders have been defined generally from the routine activities perspective as any persons who might commit illegal offenses for any reason. Target suitability can be broken down into two components: the proximity of potential targets to motivated offenders, and the material or symbolic attractiveness of a person or property target. Guardianship pertains to (a) the presence of other people who can help prevent criminal activities, (b) the protectiveness of these other people, and (c) the willingness or ability of potential targets to pursue informal and formal mechanisms of social control. Generally, this would suggest that the conceptualization of guardianship may vary by different types of crime. When the guardianship decreases, the possibility of victimization increases to the suitable target. Thus the combination of motivated offender, suitable target, lack of guardianship can be perceived as an understanding for sexual harassment victimization at workplace, in the following three situation models. (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen et al., 1981; Clarke & Felson, 1993)

First, guardianship proves to be a strong predictor of sexual harassment. Both supervisors and coworkers possess guardianship potential. Supportive supervisors and coworkers in solidarity work groups and/or in work groups characterized as supportive help protect women from harassment victimization. Second, we find that proximity to motivated offenders increases the likelihood of harassment victimization. Women who conduct their daily work activities in male-dominated job settings are more likely to be
victimized than those not in male-dominated job settings. These women are in closer proximity to potentially motivated offenders, as men are their most likely assailants. Also, women who work at locations with many workers are more likely to be victimized than those who work in smaller work locations. The more people by which one is surrounded, the greater the likelihood of an offender. Additionally, women who work with the public are at increased risk of sexual harassment victimization. We suggest that this is because these women are in close proximity to potential motivated offenders who are external to the organization (e.g., customers).

Third, the individual characteristics—indicative of target attractiveness—are important for understanding sexual harassment victimization. Researches suggest the most attractive targets are more powerful women (on the basis of these women’s education and tenure levels). This provides preliminary evidence that power-threat issues may be important in understanding the motivation of offenders. In other words, harassment may be an instrumental behavior against powerful women who are embarking on traditional male territory. However, we cannot make any definitive statement in reference to the power-threat hypothesis because we do not have direct measures of offender motivation. Moreover, many of our findings concerning individual characteristics can be interpreted from either a power-threat or a vulnerable-victims perspective. For instance, the finding that single women are at increased risk of harassment may indicate that these women are viewed as threatening to traditional female roles (power threat) or that these women are less protected than their married counterparts (vulnerable victim). Research that incorporates more explicit measures of offender motivation may find that both power-threat and vulnerable-victim descriptions of offenders are at work but in different contexts. Our research cannot rule out either depiction (Coster et al., 1999).
2.2.2.2 The Victim Precipitation Approach

The Australian Centre for the Study of Sexual Assault listed the theories on why sexual assaults happen?. It includes the victim precipitation theory as one among them. This approach considers offenders and victims as mutually interacting partners where the victim, through signs, eye contact, gestures and words, or by being present at certain venues or being out alone sometimes encourages rape in our context sexual harassment. Things like accepting a ride home, responding in a friendly manner in conversation, accepting a dinner invitation, visiting a male friend at home or inviting a male friend into her own home may be misread or intentionally rationalized by the perpetrator as a sign of consent to sexual intercourse. In other words, a woman is raped / harassed because she failed to accurately communicate her desire not to have sex. (www.secasa.com.au/index.php/workers/24/13/3).

2.2.2.3 Token Theory

The theory of tokenism refers to the discrimination and marginalization of the members of a group in a minority position (Kanter, 1977). This theory proposes that members of any social group will be discriminated against if their group makes up less than 15% of an organization. As yet the token theory is not supported by research. The theory of token discrimination was developed using evidence from women’s experience of harassment and marginality in male occupations. No support is found for negative tokenism effects when men are in the minority. Men entering female-dominated jobs are generally welcomed, or, at the very least, there is little evidence that they are marginalized by their female colleagues. Although the sex ratio of occupations was an important contextual variable in many surveys, the effects of tokenism were not examined in the studies. However, one survey, the Finnish national study, reported the finding that women and men are more likely to experience sexual harassment if they are the only
representatives of their own sex in their job. Most surveys studied the occurrence of sexual harassment in sex-typed occupations. These studies showed that women in male-dominated occupations were more likely to experience sexual harassment than women in other occupations (Sexual harassment in the workplace in the European Union (1998)).

**Socio-Cultural, Natural/Biological, Organizational, and Sex-role spillover theory:**

Tangri, et al., (1982) outlined 4 models as explanations for sexual harassment (i) the Socio-Cultural, (ii) Natural/Biological, (iii) Organizational, and (iv) Sex-Role Spillover Theory. The models of theories as follows:

**2.2.2.4 Socio-Cultural Model**

In the socio-cultural model, sexual harassment is an expression of power and hostility, whereby those with the least power in society are the most likely to be harassed. Thus sexual harassment is not about sex but about power, in that it reflects the unequal gender power relations in society. Feminists have further argued that sexual harassment consists of the use of male sexuality to exercise and reinforce men’s power and control over women. It is a form of sexual violence and gender discrimination, which is part of the larger patriarchal system in which men define the cultural norms by which women should perceive themselves. When thinking about sexual harassment as violence, it is important to pay attention to the economic context within which it can occur. Not all acts of sexual harassment are perpetrated by a superior; nevertheless, often positional superiority is combined with masculine power to coerce women into subjection. As relatively new entrants into the labor force, women are already limited in terms of promotion-the ‘glass ceiling’ continues to prevent women from gaining true equality in the workforce. This context of economic vulnerability makes women particularly susceptible to sexual harassment (Chandra-Shekeran, 2000).
2.2.2.5 Natural / Biological Model

In direct contrast to the socio-cultural model is the natural/biological model, which assumes that women and men are naturally attracted to each other and thus like to relate to each other in sexually oriented manners in the workplace. This position argues that sexual harassment is harmless behavior rather than a problem to be solved—it basically trivializes sexual harassment, arguing that it is a natural behavior of individuals with strong sex drives. While this essentialist explanation has been debunked academically, it is still a popular belief held by many in society.

2.2.2.6 Organizational Explanation Model

The third model is the organizational explanation, which basically suggests that the hierarchical structure of organizations lends itself to sexual harassment encounters. This is because those in power are granted legitimate power over their subordinates—in this case to accept their subordinate role as a sex object, to engage in sexual interaction, or to obtain sexual gratification under the promise of rewards or threat of punishment.

2.2.2.7 Sex-Role Spillover Theory Model

Gutek and Dunwoody (1987: 261-64) offer the fourth model—the sex-role spillover theory. As expounded by them, ‘sex-role spillover denotes the carryover of gender-based expectations into the workplace. Women are assumed to be sexual and to elicit sexual overtures from men rather naturally.’

Other theories applicable to Sexual Harassment

Bates, Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2006) in their familiar published work ‘Sexual harassment in the workplace: A look back and a look ahead,’ have referred the following theories applicable to Sexual Harassment:
2.2.2.8 Moral Exclusion Theory

Another approach to explaining Sexual Harassment at the societal level involves moral exclusion (Vaux, 1993), that is, processes to maintain or change the social order within our moral community. Individuals within our society acquire knowledge of what is right and wrong from the society at large. Those who are in power or hold the most power generally have the most influence on these values and morals. Using in-group/out-group reasoning, Vaux (1993) suggests people in the in-group (the people in power) are able to justify their negative or harmful behaviors by focusing on the greater humanity. Thus, Sexual Harassment is justified by denying that any harm may have been done or, at least, diminishing the harm done. In-group members may also justify sexually harassing behaviors by blaming the victim or somehow showing that society is better off with out-group members out of the workplace.

2.2.2.9 Organizational Tolerance Theory for Sexual Harassment

Theory of organizational tolerance for sexual harassment (Hulin, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1996), suggests that Sexual Harassment is supported by, or at least tolerated through, the norms and values of the workplace. An organization's culture exists as a means for employees to make sense of their workplace surroundings, including the rules and practices of organizations (Keyton, Ferguson, & Rhodes, 2001), thus guiding employees' behaviors. How an organization responds to claims of Sexual Harassment will send a message to all those within the organization in terms of the tolerance or intolerance of such behaviors within the organization (Hulin et al., 1996). Whatever message the organization sends to some employees regarding Sexual Harassment will be sent to all employees within the organization, thus having consequences not only for current harassers and targets but also for future ones.
2.2.2.10 Misperception Theory

Research on misperception theory did not deal directly with sexual harassment and it addressed the ways that social interactions might be interpreted differently by men and women, making it highly relevant to an understanding of harassment. In the aggregate, this research suggests that men are more prone to interpreting social encounters in sexual terms than are women. For example, men tend to interpret a female actor's behavior as promiscuous and seductive, whereas women interpret the same conduct as friendly (Abbey, 1982; Saal, Johnson, & Weber, 1989). These patterns appear to hold constant, regardless of issues such as the organizational power level of the female in the scenario or the severity of harassing conduct the female endured (Johnson, Stockdale, & Saal, 1991).

2.2.2.11 Accountability Theory: Sexual Harassment As Motivated By Lack of Accountability

Another perspective that focuses on the social environment as a stimulus for Sexual Harassment is based in accountability theory (Frink & Klimoski, 1998). Accountability is the "perceived need to justify or defend a decision or action to some audience(s) which has potential reward and sanction power and where such rewards and sanctions are perceived as contingent on accountability conditions" (Frink & Klimoski, 1998, p. 9). From this perspective, Sexual Harassment occurs when actors perceive that such behavior will not be negatively sanctioned in the social environment (that there are no behavioral prescriptions against the behavior). Research (O'Leary-Kelly, Fiedt, & Bowes-Sperry, 2004) suggests that accountability often is limited regarding Sexual Harassment because of ambiguity in role expectations (due to the necessarily subjective nature of Sexual Harassment definitions), reactance to threats to the identity of some actors that occur when behavioral prescriptions around Sexual Harassment are enacted in
a work environment, competing behavioral prescriptions within the social environment, and diffusion of accountability that occurs when Sexual Harassment becomes a group phenomenon (common in many hostile environment cases).

### 2.2.2.12 Social Exchange Theory and Target Reactions

Social exchange theory suggests that social relationships will be regarded positively when there is an equitable exchange of resources. From this perspective, Sexual Harassment occurs when the target believes that the personal costs of sexual behavior are greater than the benefits (Jones & Remland, 1992). This perspective allows researchers to explain why and when targets will respond negatively to harassing acts (i.e., when they involve an inequitable exchange from the perspective of the target). For example, targets are likely to react more negatively when conduct is more severe (because this raises the costs for the target in the social exchange) or when they are receiving no rewards in exchange for tolerating the situation.

### 2.2.3 Reviews of International Researches

The review of International research studies and reports provides the various aspects relevant to sexual harassment from the results of the studies with relevant to the objectives of those studies concerned.

A comprehensive research survey in the year 1980 conducted in the United States of America by the U.S. Merit System Protection Board (1981) covering 23,000 Federal employees found that i) 42% of the women had suffered some form of sexual harassment, ii) Of them surveyed, approximately 15 reported rape or sexual assault, 105 pressure for sexual favours, 205 pressure for unwanted dates, 255 deliberate touching, pinching, leaning over sexual comments, and 35% sexual remarks, testing jokes or questions. The survey result demonstrated as that the most vulnerable category of women to become victim of sexual harassment were single or divorced women or those between
ages of 20 and 44; or those having a non-traditional job; or those working in a predominantly male environment or for a male supervisor were most vulnerable to sexual harassment.

In Japan, a group called ‘Sexual Harassment in the workplace Network’, (1989) conducted an in-depth study among 70 victims of sexual harassment at work. The report revealed 40% of the women victims left their jobs after being harassed, 12 were dismissed. Of the 30 women who remained on their job, most reported negative job consequences, such as verbal abuse, or adverse financial consequences. Married men having posts of responsibility were the most likely offenders. According to another survey conducted by Tokyo Metropolitan Government (1991), the public perception of sexual harassment was revealed as: (i) 81% of the respondents (men and women) considering ‘touching the hand or body of a person’ as sexual harassment, (ii) Staring at a person without reason (25%), (iii) being subjected to the advances of intoxicated colleagues, each to constitute sexual harassment.

The Secretary of State for Women’s and Consumers’ Rights (1991), in its nationwide survey of 1300 women in France stated that 21% of the women surveyed had personally experienced at work and 12% of the victims indicated’ advances blackmail’, 63% indicated ‘dubious propositions and gestures’, 60% ‘continued advances despite refusals’, and 48% indicated ‘an overall unpleasant environment’. 29% of victims identified the harasser as the employer himself, 26% as a supervisor, 22% as a colleague, and 27% as a client. 24% of the women victims said that the sexual harassment was to the detriment of the victims, with 14% cases resulting in forced resignation or dismissal.

The survey further reported that higher number of female victims belonged to the commerce and handicrafts sector (18%) and the industrial sector (17%), followed by the medical and hospital sector (14%) and the restaurant and hotel industry (10%).
Kaye and Merker (1994) in “Sexual harassment of critical care nurses: a costly workplace issue” determine the extent of sexual harassment incidents experienced by 188 nurses working in critical care areas. The result indicated that 46 per cent of the respondents had been harassed. Offensive sexual remarks (56 %), unwanted physical contact (53 %), unwanted nonverbal attention (27 %), requests for dates (16 %), and sexual propositions (9 %) were types of sexual harassment experienced. Sexual assault was experienced by one woman. Harassers were physicians (82 %), coworkers (20 %), or immediate supervisor (7%). A majority of the incidents (69 %) were not reported. The study suggested the hospitals to frame sexual harassment policies to employees and indicate that sexual harassment training, existing policies, and procedures are needed to provide a safe, healthy work environment for critical care nurses.

Based on Belgian Study by Bruynooghe et al., (1995), in the Belgian evaluation research there had been complaints in less than 20% of the Flemish companies and in 29% of the Walloon and Brussels companies, to a great extent in large firms. The most frequently reported complaints concerned unwanted physical behaviour followed by verbal forms. The victims were usually married women aged between 35-40, secretaries, saleswomen or office workers/clerical staff. The perpetrators were usually married men aged between 35 and 40, in almost half of the cases in higher hierarchical positions. In companies that employ over 75% of women no cases of sexual harassment were reported. The majority of cases (81%) occurred in companies where the number of men and women was practically equal. The responses of victims may be distinguished into four categories, based on the Belgian study by Bruynooghe et al., (1995), which describes in detail the different strategies harassed employees undertake to stop the violence in the workplace. Nonintervention responses are responses where the harassed person ignores the situation/acts as if nothing has happened. With personal responses the victims try to
solve the problem on their own. A personal response may be ‘contacting the harasser to talk about the unwanted sexual behavior’ or ‘avoiding the places where harassment is possible’. Informal responses are used to get the assistance of friends or family; and formal responses to get the aid of professionals, supervisors, confidential counselors or to make a formal complaint. Most of the harassed employees respond in several ways.

Luo, T.Y. (1996), in “Sexual harassment in the Chinese workplace. Attitudes toward and experiences of sexual harassment among workers in Taiwan” with the use of a questionnaire survey method, examined the characteristics of sexual harassment experiences and the dynamics of the attitudes toward sexual harassment among male and female workers in Taipei. An occupationally representative sample of male and female workers was recruited to participate in the survey. The findings showed that 1 in 4 workers in Taipei experienced some sort of sexual harassment in workplace, 36% (n = 493) of the surveyed women and 13% (n = 415) of the surveyed men reported experiencing workplace sexual harassment. The most frequently reported type of sexual harassment was unwanted sexual requests/pressure for a date. The major source of sexual harassment came from coworkers of the opposite sex. Majority of the alleged victims attributed their sexual harassment incident to insensitivity of the initiator. In being consistent with previous research, the study established three attitudinal models toward sexual harassment among Chinese workers: the victim-blame/trivialization model, the natural/biological explanation, and the power manipulation model. The study found no consistent relationship between the self-rated attitudes toward sexual harassment and the self-reported sexual harassment experiences.

Williams (1996) in “Violence and Sexual Harassment: Impact on registered nurses in the workplace” found the prevalence and impact of violence and sexual harassment
experienced by 1130 registered nurses (RNs) in their workplace in Illinois. The study revealed that 57 per cent reported experience of sexual harassment. A significant relationship was found between sexual harassment and levels of job satisfaction. Results of the study expressed that there was a need of an active role by the nurses to create a work environment free from sexual harassment.

In their piece of writing on “Subtle Sexism in the US Military”, Harris and Firestone (1997) reported from their studies that, women were likely to experience sexual harassment at some point in their lives. A study of 20, 249 men and women in the U.S Military revealed a high prevalence of subtle forms of sexual harassment. About 60 percent of women and 15 percent of men had been the targets of sexual jokes at some point in their career. Worse still, about 48 percent of women and 10 percent of men had suffered more blatant forms of harassment such as fondling, phone calls and obscene letters.

In Bangladesh, garment workers are under great pressure to engage in sexual activity mainly as a result of the long hours that men and women spend together unsupervised by parents or guardians (Amim, Diamond, Naved&Newby, 1998). In Thailand, a study conducted among 1,210 young factory workers aged 13 to 25 years documented early sexual experimentation and instances of coercion (Rugpao, 1997). In further, among young women working in an export zone in the Republic of Korea, 9% reported that sexual debut had been forced by factory supervisors or colleagues (Brown, Jejeebhoy, Shah, & Yount, 2001). Migrants and displaced persons are often exposed to an especially elevated risk of sexual coercion (Geldstein & Pantelides, 2001; Paudel et al., 2003; UNAIDS, 2000; United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), 2001).

O’ Hare and O’ Donohue (1998) in “Sexual harassment: identifying risk factors”, refer to the new model of the etiology of sexual harassment, examining the risk factors
characteristic of the work environment (e.g., sexist attitudes among co-workers, unprofessional work environment, skewed sex ratios in the workplace, knowledge of grievance procedures for sexual harassment incidents) as well as personal characteristics of the subject (e.g., physical attractiveness, job status, sex-role) of sexual harassment of 266 university female faculty. The risk factors most strongly associate with sexual harassment were an unprofessional environment in the workplace, sexist atmosphere, and lack of knowledge about the organization’s formal grievance procedures.

In her doctoral research study, Anila (1998) used a sample of 205 women working with male, from private and government organization in Islamabad and Rawalpindi. In this exploratory research, the respondents were asked to report the experience of sexual harassment of their own and of their colleagues. The research indicated that the more prevalent kind of sexual harassment among the working women is gender harassment which includes admiration of dresses, make-up, face or hair, staring, suggestive jokes or songs and use of pornographic material (magazine and video). For this research, only 60% women agreed to respond, but all who participated in the research, reported their experiences of sexual harassment. The important findings of this research were (i). Older women reported more experiences of harassment than younger group. (ii). Women belonged to low education group have reported more experience than other. (iii). Marital status did not seem to be an important factor as regard the experience of sexual harassment. (iv). Women working in private sector organizations faced more experiences of sexual harassment especially of unwanted sexual attention as compared to those working public or government organization. (v). As regards the coping strategies employed, the only significant difference related to the variable of marital status was on the coping strategy of Avoidance. The women living alone or the unmarried one tried to stay away from the harasser. They took somebody along with them if they had to see the
harasser. (vi). The women with more experiences of harassment face greater amount of physical, psychological, and vocational strain. (vii). Victims suffered serious adverse consequences in the form of job transfer, or dismissal, Boredom, lack of interest in the work, loss of interpersonal relationship at work, and also experienced the physical strains.

According to Timmerman, G., and Bajema, C. (1999), a substantial body of research addressing the issue of sexual harassment in the workplace has been developed over the past decade. In their article “Sexual Harassment in Northwest Europe: A Cross-Cultural Comparison”, they considered the complexity of cross-cultural comparisons of the incidence rates of sexual harassment and present the results of our research on sexual harassment in the workplace in 11 northern and western European countries. In 1997 they reviewed 74 surveys and qualitative studies conducted between 1987 and 1997. They found that sexual harassment appears to be a workplace problem in all countries, although the incidence varies considerably. They argued that higher reported incidence figures in one country do not necessarily mean a higher prevalence of sexual harassment compared to other countries. Furthermore, sexual harassment research in the countries reviewed appears to be dominated by a one-sided, uniform and heterosexual power perspective. The implications of the exclusion of cultural background and sexual orientation in theory and policy are discussed elaborately in this article.

Coster, Estes, and Mueller (1999), in their article “Routine Activities and Sexual Harassment in the Workplace” drew from criminological research on victimization and on organizational models of the social context of sexual harassment to propose a routine activities explanation of sexual harassment victimization. The authors proposed that certain features of organizations can be used to conceptualize guardianship as well as the proximity component of target suitability in the routine activities framework. They also discussed the features of individuals (target attractiveness) that may make them more or
less susceptible to victimization, holding organizational features constant. They tested hypotheses from a routine activities explanation of sexual harassment using data from a national company in the U.S. telephone industry among 6,485 employees (3,316 women and 3,169 men). The authors found general support for the importance of both organizational features and individual characteristics in the prediction of sexual harassment victimization. The analysis revealed the pattern of increasing job satisfaction with reduced perception of sexual harassment. Similarly, the reduction in perception of victimization reduced the job stress of individual. However, they find little evidence that individual characteristics and organizational features interact in the production of harassment victimization, which is counter to a routine activities approach.

Pennington, Darby, Bauman, Plichta, and Schnuth (2000), conducted a study “Sexual harassment in dentistry: experiences of Virginia dental hygienists” with the purpose to determine if dental hygienists in the Commonwealth of Virginia experienced sexual harassment while employed in oral health care settings. Other interests were to determine if dental hygienists experienced sexual harassment, to what extent they felt professionally prepared to respond to unwanted sexual behaviors; did they perceive sexual harassment as a problem in the oral health care environment; and was attrition from their employment associated with sexual harassment.

(i). A questionnaire, Sexual Harassment in the Dental Hygiene Profession, designed by the author, was used in this research. Two hundred eighty-five surveys (53%) were returned and useable. Findings revealed that 54% of the responding dental hygienists experienced sexual harassment. Of these, 50% experienced sexual harassment four or more years ago, 23% one to three years ago and 28% within the last year; these categories were mutually exclusive. The perpetrators of the harassment were reported to be either male dentists (73%) or male clients (45%). Less than 10% reported being
harassed by women. While 70% of the sexually harassed respondents indicated that filing formal complaints was an effective strategy for managing sexual harassment, less than 1% actually did so. Of all dental hygienists (harassed or not), 90% did not receive training in their dental education to manage sexual harassment, and 85% would like the American Dental Hygienists’ Association to develop model guidelines and policies. Demographic characteristics were typical of practicing dental hygienists in Virginia; 99% female, 96% Caucasian, and 86% married with a mean age of 40 years.

(ii). The research study suggested that the information about managing sexual harassment needs to be incorporated into the dental hygiene curricula. This curriculum addition should include information on identifying sexual harassment incidents, strategies for controlling unacceptable behavior, the legal rights of employees, and the process of filing a formal complaint. Dental hygienists need to identify sexual harassment behaviors and receive prevention training through continuing education courses. Furthermore, the American Dental Hygienists Association and the American Dental Association need to collaboratively develop guidelines and policies for dentists and dental hygienists regarding the management of sexual harassment in the oral health care setting.

Jennifer (2000) in her study on “The Mindset of Hong Kong Restaurant Employees on Sexual Harassment at Work” collected data from 344 individuals in 54 randomly selected full service restaurants in Hong Kong which employ ten or more employees. The result found that 65.7% of the respondents were victims of sexual harassment. It also was observed that only blatant, aggressive actions were acknowledged by all to be sexual harassment, such as a direct threat to dismiss or fire, when turning down a sexual request.

Andoh (2001), writing specifically on workplace harassment in Ghana noted that about 74% of female employees and 42% of male employees in his sample had been
harassed at work in the past. He linked this to the power games that go on between
superior males and subordinate females, where the latter are offered rewards for sexual
favours, or are victimized for failing to comply with such demands. Alternatively, female
workers have on their own sought to gain advantage by offering sexual favours to men in
positions of authority. Unfortunately, no obvious explanation is offered by the report for
the exceptionally high incidence that was observed in this study. With respect to the
official handling of cases of harassment, it was observed that over 90% of the cases
apparently went unreported. The reasons are not difficult to find. He concluded that there
was not much official recognition given to sexual harassment as a form of misconduct;
rather, victims often came under pressure from their peers and people in authority to
overlook the seriousness or offensive nature of these kinds of behaviour.

Estes, Mueller, Coster, and Estes. (2001) in their article on “Sexual Harassment in
the Workplace Unanticipated Consequences of Modern Social Control in Organizations”
integrated the research on the causes and consequences of sexual harassment
victimization with organizational research to better understand the relationship between
harassment and the work outcomes of job satisfaction, job stress, and intention to quit an
organization. In doing so, the authors broaden the narrow conceptualization of
organizational context that has been considered in previous research on sexual
harassment. This broadened conceptualization incorporates features of modern
organizational structure, including social integration, structural differentiation,
decentralization, and formalization—all argued to indirectly control employees by
increasing employee job satisfaction and commitment (and to ultimately increase
productivity and reduce turnover). Although these features of modern organizational
structure are not intended to reduce sexual harassment, the authors propose and find with
a national sample of almost 6,000 employees that they have the unintended consequence
of doing so. The authors also propose and find that this context-harassment linkage improves understanding of the often reported relationship between sexual harassment and job dissatisfaction, job stress, and intention to quit.

Cecilia and Othman (2002), in their article “Unwanted and Unwelcome: Sexual Harassment in the Malaysian Workplace” expressed that while sexual harassment in the workplace has been recognized as a serious misconduct in the West since the 1980s, it has only been recently acknowledged in the Asian region. Their research in the Malaysian workplace revealed that 38 percent of women respondents had experienced one or more forms of harassment, with younger women in lower occupational categories forming a significant proportion of the victims. It was also interesting to note that 32 percent of male respondents stated that they had experienced sexual harassment. Despite the existence of sexual harassment policies in the six pioneer companies studied, differential perceptions regarding the issue persist. Sexual harassment as issue and as process is highly contested with men noticing and rating less harassment than women. While women are forced to accommodate such behavior as part of the work culture, they are also resisting in various ways, including lodging formal reports. Sexual harassment reflects the unequal power relations between women and men in society with sexuality being used as a part of this control. Indeed, buttressed by religious ideology, the problematic of sexual harassment is utilized as a tool to control female sexuality, dressing, and behavior, especially of Muslim women.

According to a report, Employment Discrimination and Sexual Harassment in Poland (2002), that Polish women experience both a hostile work environment and quid pro quo sexual harassment in employment in Poland. Although sexual harassment is a relatively new legal and social concept, in a recent survey, 25% of women report experiencing unwelcome sexual advances in the workplace from colleagues and 18% of
women report experiencing unwelcome sexual advances in the workplace from a supervisor. Of survey respondents in a school or university setting, 18% of women report experiencing unwelcome sexual advances from a colleague and eleven percent of women report experiencing such advances from a teacher. Over 50% of the respondents under age sixty-five believe that affairs in the workplace usually happen when a man uses his power and a woman agrees because she is afraid. A director of an organization in Gdansk estimated that 50% of Polish women are victims of harassment in the workplace.

‘Sexual harassment in the workplace: A Report from Field Research in Thailand - June 2002’, a research study conducted by the International Labor Rights Fund (ILRF) and project partners in Thailand has revealed that women workers in export industries in Thailand suffer from sexual harassment, including violent abuse and rampant discrimination, by their employers and supervisors. These women are not adequately protected from such abuse and discriminatory practices by law or by workplace codes of conduct. A survey of 100 factory workers from ten export industries reveals the following shocking statistics:

(i). 90% of the respondents admitted that their employment conditions do not protect female workers from sexual harassment; (ii). 75% of respondents said they had no knowledge about laws that forbid sexual harassment; (iii). 14% of respondents accepted that they personally victimized (direct) due to sexual harassment, and most of them conveyed that they witnessed sexual harassment at their workplace (indirect); (iv). Over 90% of the respondents are unfamiliar with the concept of a workplace code of conduct; (v). Less than half (47.6%) of respondents would take action against their aggressors only in cases of the worst form of harassment, such as rape; (vi) Women who report sexual abuse in the workplace are often fired or demoted; (vii). Most women do not have a common understanding of what constitutes sexual harassment, and thereby ignore some
behaviors that are damaging to them;(viii). Although some (24%) only consider sexual assault or rape to qualify as harassment, the majority of respondents believed that it involves any inappropriate touching; (ix) The study also indicated that actors themselves often even blame their victims for encouraging their abuse; (x). While 70% of the workers employed by the factories chosen are female, male workers hold 63% of supervisory positions in the workplace. Thus the study makes acquaintance with the prevalence of sexual harassment and gender discrimination at workplace.

Kisa and Dziegielewski (2002) in their study “Sexual Harassment and its Consequences: A Study within Turkish Hospitals” conducted among Turkish nurses researched the job consequences of sexual harassment. The study analyzed worker productivity in any type of health care facility. The study conducted among nurses of two different hospitals. A majority of the respondents (n = 157 out of 251) reported that they had been subjected to sexual harassment in the workplace, and the harassment experience was strong enough to affect worker productivity. In addition, many nurses opined that sexual harassment remains a disturbing problem in this developing country that should not be ignored.

national telephone survey, conducted by the Gallup Organization for HREOC, in 2002 also confirmed these findings. This national survey randomly selected a sample of 1006 women employees from the Australian adult population, interviewed them and arrived at the following findings (HREOC, 2003):

i. 41 percent of Australian women aged between 18 & 64 years and 14 percent of men have experienced sexual harassment.

ii. Two-thirds of the sexual harassment occurred in workplace.

iii. 28 percent of Australian women and 7 percent of Australian men have experienced sexual harassment.

iv. Over half of the sexual harassment experienced in the workplace involved physical forms of sexual harassment including unwelcome touching, hugging, cornering, kissing or unnecessary familiarity.

v. Sexual harassment in the workplace affects women under the age of 45 years. Seven in ten cases of sexual harassment involves men harassing women.

vi. Less than one-third of the sexual harassment experienced is formally reported to either employers or external agencies. Only one percent of workplace sexual harassment is reported to anti-discrimination agencies such as HREOC. The reasons for not reporting the sexual harassment predominantly fall into three categories – (a) a lack of faith in the formal complaints mechanism; (b) a belief that the experience was not serious enough to warrant reporting; (c) the target dealing with the problems themselves.

Cortina (2004), in her study “Hispanic Perspectives on Sexual Harassment and Social Support” with purpose to bridging the social support, sexual victimization, and cultural psychology examined social-support processes in the context of sexual harassment and Hispanic American working women, 249 of whom described some
encounter with sexual harassment at work. Of them, 34% women had never finished high school, 55% had high school—but not college education. The remaining 11% had college or graduate degrees. Approximately 60% of the samples were younger than age 30, and 57% were single. Regression results provided mixed backing for hypotheses about support-seeking behavior, which appeared largely dependent on the social power of the harassment perpetrator. Additional findings upheld predictions about support perception patterns; harassed women perceived more supportive social reactions when they turned to informal networks of friends and family, but responses were less positive when they turned to formal, organizational sources. Based on scoring responses for Coping with Harassment Questionnaire (CHQ), 68% of the harassed Hispanic Women endorsed at least one friend-support seeking, 52% sought family support to some extent, and 38% communicated with someone in authority in their organization. These categories are not mutually exclusive, because slightly more than half of these women sought support from multiple sources. Finally, as expected, perceived support and acculturation interacted to moderate relations between sexual harassment and job satisfaction. The article concludes with implications for research and interventions related to social support and sexual harassment.

According to Bortei and Aryetey (2004), ‘The Institute of Statistical, Social & Economical Research (2004)’, in its technical publication on “Coming to Terms with Sexual Harassment in Ghana” makes an exploratory study of sexual harassment in Ghana to identify the society wide triggers and forms of sexual harassment in the big urban centres of Accra, Takoradi and Tamale. The specific objectives are as follows: a) To study the extent of public awareness and knowledge of sexual harassment. b) To identify the factors those are seen to contribute to sexual harassment. c) To examine the different situations under which harassment occurs, including personal experiences. d) To study
people's expectations of redress in cases of sexual harassment. From the responses of women respondents, the identified factors contributing to sexual harassment at workplace were: (i) closeness at work (14 %); (ii) bosses coerce female employees (65 %), (iii) when women seek promotion (3 %) and (iv) when women apply for jobs (18%). The several factors said in the study to trigger sexual harassment are teasing/ provocative dressing, natural attraction, job scarcity, alcohol, prostitution, lack of respect for women and also women working alongside men in wage labour. The negative effects of sexual harassment, both on organizations and individuals, including, for low job morale and achievement, and a tense work climate were identified. It was quite significant that many people expressed strong support for the introduction of some kind of deterrent against sexual harassment in official policy on gender and development in Ghana.

In United Kingdom, the Royal Air Force, U.K (2004), in its official internal research –cum-survey proclaimed that almost half of women serving in the Britain’s Royal Air Force have been sexually harassed. Most victims were said to have been groped or subjected to sexually explicit remarks, but only half of them complained. The Survey also pointed out that sexual harassment had increased in volume since the earlier studies done three years before. Previous to this survey, Labor Research Department, U.K. (1987) revealed its survey report in which 73 % of respondents experienced some form of sexual harassment in their workplace. The most common types of harassment reported were suggestive remarks or other verbal abuse (48 %), sexist or patronizing behavior (45 %), and unnecessary touching and unwanted contact (34%).

Barak (2005), in the article “Sexual harassment on the Internet”, thoroughly investigated the theoretical sources with the purpose to review the limited existing professional literature that refers to sexual harassment in cyberspace, to analyze the dynamics of online sexual harassment, to review what is known about the effects of
sexual harassment on the Internet, and to propose a comprehensive approach for preventing sexual harassment on the Internet. He argued that all three types of sexual harassment exist online: unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion, exist offline also exist on the Internet. Author referred sexual harassment by e-mail as a common abuse of women in workplaces. The article described that ‘Active verbal sexual harassment’ mainly appears in the form of offensive sexual messages, actively initiated by a harasser toward a victim. Passive verbal sexual harassment, on the other hand, is less intrusive, as it does not refer to one user communicating messages to another. The article confirmed that the impacts of offline sexual harassment may also same as the impacts in online, for this, the author evidences many previous research works for his argument. He further corroborated the severe work-related and school-related effects (reduced performance and satisfaction, decreased motivation and morale, lower productivity, and the like) would also be the outcome of online harassment. One of his suggestions, he insisted that the potential victims and harassers should be educated about internet usages and also expressed that the subject of sexual harassment on the Internet can be taught in schools in the framework of programs devoted to smart and safe Internet use.

Tindigarukayo (2006) analyses and examines two surveys on sexual harassment in Jamaica – first conducted in June – July 1999 by the Ministry of Finance – Industrial Relations Unit (IRU) on behalf of the Committee against Sexual Harassment at the Workplace with the intension of soliciting information from the public sector employees on their perception and opinions on sexual harassment at workplace and second conducted in January, 2005 by the author in association with the Bureau of Women’s Affairs of the Government of Jamaica among 44 organizations in Jamaica with certain specific objectives of (i) ascertaining whether or not these
organizations had a policy, code or committee to deal with sexual harassment cases, (ii) establishing the practices or policies used to address sexual harassment in these organizations and measuring the level of support for enactment of a legislation on sexual harassment. The important findings of the study are: (1) in both surveys, respondents had the same general definitions of sexual harassment, (2) 33% of the respondents (n=39) had been subjected to sexual harassment, only 13% (n=15) reported the offence. (3) Even more disturbing is the fact that of the few cases of sexual harassment reported (n=8), absolutely no action was taken to deal with the complaint. The implication here is that victims of sexual harassment have not been encouraged to report the offence, since the few reported ones have been neglected by the powers, (4) The victims were afraid of losing their jobs for reporting such cases of sexual harassment, (5) The boss (manager and/or supervisor) was regarded by most respondents as the vanguard of sexual harassment at the workplace. Peers took a passive second place, (7) The respondents of study also suggested that any law enacted on sexual harassment on should protect both men and women, both surveys indicated that punishment was essential in serving as deterrence to sexual harassment and (8) both surveys were in favor of a legislation that would address sexual harassment expressly. The researcher has, towards the end of the analysis, has made a number of recommendations, the chief among them being prevention of sexual harassment by giving sexual harassment training to the employees including supervisors, by establishing an effective complaint or grievance process and by taking immediate and appropriate action on the complaints of the victims and enactment of legislation.

A research study conducted in Cambodia reported the following key findings regard to sexual harassment were observed: (i) Of the female participants, 26.5% reported that a manager/supervisor had used derogatory words for women/female garment workers
(e.g. Minis, Chet Geay, say garment workers are easy to have sex with); (ii) 5% said a manager/supervisor had courted or flirted or asked to go out or have sex with him, and 5.2% had experienced unwanted sexual touching (e.g. embracing, touching bottom/hand/shoulder/breast/back); (iii) 30% had been sexually harassed by a manager/supervisor, 26.6% by a co-worker, and 32.9% by a man along the road to the factory; (iv) Disciplinary consequences are linked to higher numbers of sexual harassment complaints (Women and Work in the Garment Industry, 2006).

According to Johnson (2007), sexual harassment is a distinctive form of aggression that is overwhelmingly directed at women and prohibited by law. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) distinguishes between two types of sexual harassment viz., quid pro quo and hostile work environment. Johnson highlighted a U.S. Survey analysis which involves 86,000 women. The survey found 58% had experienced potentially harassing behaviors at work. Sexual Harassment, while unique, has elements common with other forms of workplace aggression. Harassment is most frequent in male-dominated blue-collar jobs (construction worker, machinist) but female doctors, lawyers, and other professionals are not immune from such behavior. Nearly 50 per cent female workers are targeted for such harassing actions as insulting remarks, propositions, bribes, threats and sexual assault. The loss of work performance due to stress, decreased morale, damaged relationship, withdrawal, carrier changes and others are the effects of sexual harassment. The victims also experienced headache, sleep loss, weight loss or gain, nausea, sexual dysfunction, and eating and gastrointestinal disorders. Negative psychological effects include depression, a sense of helplessness, loss of control, fear, detachment and decreased motivation. The author recommends certain specific measures to reduce the intensity.
In their article on “Assessing the Factors Associated with Sexual Harassment among Young Female Migrant Workers in Nepal”, the authors Puri and Cleland (2007), explores the extent of, and factors associated with, sexual harassment of young female migrant workers in the carpet and garment factories in Kathmandu Valley. Information is drawn from a survey of 550 female workers aged 14 to 19 and 12 in-depth case histories. Bi-variate and multivariate techniques were applied to identify the factors associated with harassment. The survey found that 1 in 10 young women had experienced sexual harassment or coercion. More than one quarter of the women reported that their friends had experienced sexual harassment. One in 9 girls (11%) reported that their friends had been victims of rape. Those who were exposed to pornographic movies were more likely than those with no exposure to any kind of movies to report sexual harassment. Most coerced sex ranged from the more playful attempts to rush and “grasp girls’ breast” whenever factory lights go out in a power cut, to violent rapes within the hostels. Coerced sex reported was by individuals known to the victims. In case of rape incidences which were mostly perpetrated by the coworkers. Perpetrators included coworkers, boyfriends, employers, and relatives. Case histories revealed that the inability of young women to communicate effectively with their peers and sex partners, lack of self-esteem, job insecurity, and other socioeconomic problems made them vulnerable to these abuses. Also the integrated accommodation for both sexes in many factories including bathing and toilet facilities of workers, no gender segregation in workplace of many industries, and compulsion to work late at night, giving opportunity for sexual exploitation. The results suggest the need for advocacy and a range of factory-based interventions.

Singapore’s a leading advocacy group ‘Aware’, conducted a ‘Research Study on Workplace Sexual Harassment (2008)’ in Singapore revealed some significant findings of sexual harassment victimization. The purpose of the study was to shed some light on the
issue as evidenced from public perception, and show through its findings some of the trends that may be developing that need to be addressed. The survey targeted 500 respondents include male and female, offering both online and offline modes of response, including ‘street’ survey exercises to obtain views at random from members of the public. The key findings of study were as follows:

(i). 66.4% of the 500 respondents surveyed registered a high level of awareness of sexual harassment in the workplace. (ii). 58.3% women respondents and 42% men respondents indicated having been sexually harassed at the workplace. (iii). Out of the 215 women respondents who reported experiencing sexual harassment and the highest percentage was from the younger age group 21-25. (iv). Alarmingly, 73 (34%) women respondents and 10 (19.2%) men respondents reported being harassed several times. (v). 55.1% respondents who experienced some form of sexual harassment reported feeling angry about the incident. Other expressed as afraid (26.8%) and confused (24.6%) about the situation. A smaller percentage (8.1%) reported feeling guilty about the situation. 13.9% respondents who experienced sexual harassment felt it affected the way they did their job. (vi). Both women and men respondents were more likely to have been harassed by the opposite sex; 67.4% of 215 women respondents reported being harassed by men. (vii). Out of 272 respondents who experienced some form of sexual harassment and, 26.8% experienced some form of sexual harassment from their colleagues and meager experienced (0.7%) from their subordinate, while 17.3% were harassed by their superior. Alarmingly, 10.7% respondents reported experiencing harassment from a combination of various harassers. 4.8% respondents reported being harassed by their clients. This is noteworthy as it shows the need for the definition of the workplace to cover a broader spectrum, including clients’.
2.2.4 Reviews of Indian Researches

The review of Indian research studies and reports provides the various aspects relevant to sexual harassment from the results of the studies with relevant to the objectives of those studies concerned.

The Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration (1998-1999), Mussoorie undertook a survey of sexual harassment in the civil services in India and came to the following conclusion: (i) About 7% male officers and 22% female officers from the Indian Civil Services acknowledged the prevalence of sexual harassment in the services, (ii) The highest incidence of sexual harassment was from Indian Police Service and the Indian Forest Service, (iii) There was broad unanimity that the ‘redressal-mechanism’ for such cases was dire need for imparting gender sensitization training to the officers, (iv) about 30% of women officers and 25% of men officers in the civil services acknowledged the prevalence of ‘gender-stereotyping’ in their postings and assignments.

The National Commission for Women (1998-1999) in India, in its report on the survey of sexual harassment stated that 50 per cent of the working women have suffered some kind of sexual harassment at work. The report also stated that mental, physical harassment and gender discrimination were the most dominant forms of sexual harassment for majority of the respondents. The study report also pointed out the following: (i) about 37% of the respondents worked in the public and government sectors and majority of them preferred to ignore such problems; (ii) A mere 3.5% reported cases of sexual harassment to their supervisors and in most cases the employers took no adequate or satisfactory action; (iii) Majority of the respondents were not aware of their rights or of the employer’s obligations relating to sexual harassment.
In 2001, a five-state survey of workplace sexual harassment undertaken by Sakshi, a NGO in New Delhi, was carried out on a cross-section of workplaces including private, public and the unorganized sectors and had a sample size of 2400. The study reported that 80% of the respondents said sexual harassment existed in their workplace. 49% had encountered sexual harassment at work, 41% had experienced harassment at work. 53% said women and men did not have equal opportunities. Only 23% had heard of the Vishaka Guidelines; 66% of these said that the institutions had not effectively implemented these guidelines. When they had been implemented, redress seemed to be biased. The study also revealed that 50% women are treated unfairly by employers and co-workers, 59% have heard sexist remarks or jokes, 32% have been exposed to pornography or literature degrading women (Dalal, 2003).

Malathi (2002), in her research work on “Sexual harassment of Women in the Workplace at Export Garment Company”, using a convenience sampling method from a finite population of N = 500 and a well-structured questionnaire for data collection. The researcher pointed out that both ‘quid pro quo’ sexual harassment (96.7%) and hostile work environment sexual harassment (90%) were experienced by the majority of the respondents in the study area. The important forms of sexual harassment verbal (100%), physical (93.3%) and visual (80%) were common. Several measures were suggested for the reduction of sexual harassment in magnitude. A great majority of the respondents (83.3%) stated that male superiors in their workplace are the harassers. 80% of them stated that they need complaint mechanism for sexual harassment in their company.

Workplace in the State of Maharashtra” was undertaken with certain important objectives, among others. The important among them are: (i) to study the nature, extent, incidence and impact of sexual harassment of women at workplace, (ii) to identify the correlates of sexual harassment used against women, (iii) to examine the psychological and physical effects of sexual harassment on work, productivity and morale of women, etc. The project was undertaken on the basis of a sample of 600 working women drawn from the universe of women employed in organized and unorganized sectors giving proper representation to women from urban and rural areas. 10 districts were selected at random from 35 districts in the State. Random sampling was used in the selection of blocks, towns and villages, but stratified sampling was employed in the selection of establishments. In addition, a sample of 100 employers and 100 NGOs/social activists randomly selected from the universe of employers and NGOs and social activists in the State. Primary data were collected by trained lady investigators through interview schedule for working women, interview schedule for employers, interview schedule for NGOs and Observations schedule for investigators.

The important findings of this research study are: (i) 77% of women were in the age group 39% belonging to organized sector and 38% belonging to unorganized sector; (ii) Majority of the respondents (66%) described it as physical contact and advances of sexual nature while 58% regarded it as request or demand for sexual favour.; (iii) Out of 600 women respondents 224 (about 37%) reported that they were victims of sexual harassment at workplace. Out of these 224 victims, majority was from the age group of 18-23 years as against 4% in the age group of 38-43 years. Thus the incidence of sexual harassment at workplace was at higher rate in women of younger age group as compared to elder age group.; (iv) Co-workers (17%) and immediate bosses (7%) were reported as the perpetrators of sexual harassment by maximum number of victims; (v) Out of 224
victims of harassment only 41% stated that coworkers present at the time of harassment intervened and came down for their help; (vi) Out of 224 victims, 91 (41%) only filed written complaints to the higher authorities. Out of these higher authorities did not take any action against the perpetrators in 22% of the cases and only strong warning was given to the perpetrators in 63% of the cases. (vii) Only 17% of the respondents (101) were aware of the guidelines issued by the Supreme Court in respect of sexual harassment of women at work place; (viii) Out of these 101 respondents, only 44 stated that a Complaints Committee was constituted in their establishments as per guideline of the Supreme Court.

Khandelwal (2004), in his paper entitled “Employment in Organized Sector in 1990s : An Analysis from Gender Perspective” analyses the position of women in the organized sector employment at the threshold of twenty-first century in the light of growing concerns with the alleviation of women’s status in India. The analysis was based on the data gathered by the DGET, Ministry of Labour, Government of India for public and private sectors as well as in totality. Data were analyzed at all–India and State levels. He pointed out in his paper that male domination, that is ‘gender inequality, the prime cause for sexual harassment’, was not static and was changing with changes in social relations, that the change process was slow that the overall status of women was determined with the equalitarian processes in other arenas as well, that the State, being most powerful, played a crucial role in the whole process and that female participation rate, female literacy and gendering were the crucial factors in determining the status of women in contemporary society.

Srivastava (2004), in his article “Sexual Harassment of Women at Work Place : Law and Policy” observed that there had been a steep and continuous increase in the number of cases reported on sexual harassment from 1995 (4756) to 2000 (11,024),
that there might be equally good number of unreported cases in the same period because of fear of victims that their complaints would disadvantage them in connection with their employment. Further, the researcher observed NCW report that 40 per cent of the victims usually ignored such provocation, 3.54 % to their supervisors, 7.8 % to their colleagues, 1.4 % to the police, 10.0 % protested against such behaviour and 9.0 % warned the offender and that of those who reported, 68.26 % faced mental harassment. The study reveals that the main causes for non-reporting were (i) fear of losing jobs, (ii) fear of not getting promotions, (iii) fear of victimization, (iv) fear of being neglected by their family members and (vi) others. The researchers felt strongly a need to maintain the (i) dignity of women, (ii) greater participation of women workers and (iii) provisions of social and economic justice. After explaining the provisions and limitations of Central and States, the researcher suggested the social partners and non-governmental organization to take certain actions in order to prevent sexual harassment at workplace and assigned the employer, trade unions, state instruments including police, voluntary organizations and media certain specific duties.

Vijaya (2004), in her research work conducted among 100 victims of sexual harassment in Chennai City, found that women victims who are sexually harassed are young 21-25 years (50 %), single and unmarried (80 %), qualified SSLC and above (78 %) and come from city back ground (80 %). Besides age, education and marital status, appearance and dressing habits, coupled with sociable nature of the victims are contributing factors towards sexual harassment. Thus, women who are of wheatish complexion (64 %), simple appearance (80 %) and of medium physique (48 %) are prone to sexual victimization. Also women in the habit of wearing sarees like the traditional Indian attire of women (82 %) are more prone to sexual harassment. It is also revealed that women who used flowers regularly (88 %) and moderate make-up (68 %) are prone
to sexual harassment victimization. Women who make friends easily (70 %) and who move with male co workers (86 %), become victims of sexual harassment more easily.

An exploratory study by Chaudhuri (2007) with the purpose to obtain an understanding of women’s experiences of sexual harassment in the health sector, was undertaken in 2005–2006 among 135 women health workers, including doctors, nurses, health care attendants, administrative and other non-medical staff working in two government and two private hospitals in Kolkata, West Bengal, India. Four types of experiences were reported by the 77 women who had experienced 128 incidents of sexual harassment: verbal harassment (41), psychological harassment (45), sexual gestures and exposure (15), and unwanted touch (27). None of the women reported rape, attempted rape or forced sex but a number of them knew of other women health workers who had experienced these. According to this study, the perpetrators included doctors, non-medical and administrative staff and people from outside the hospital. Patients and members of their families were often among the perpetrators of sexual harassment of staff in these hospitals, and junior doctors and nurses in particular reported experiences of and fears of sexual harassment at the hands of this group. The survey also revealed that only 10 respondents complained to their supervisors and 17 others to management. The victims also developed other coping mechanisms, ranging from sharing experiences of harassment informally with their colleagues to changing their dress habits. Of the 17 respondents who reported an incident to management, action was taken in only six instances, in all of which the perpetrator was a non-medical staff member. The women who had experienced harassment were reluctant to complain, fearing for their jobs or being stigmatized, and most were not aware of formal channels for redress. Experiences of sexual harassment reflected the obstacles posed by power imbalances and gender norms in empowering women to make a formal complaint, on the one hand, and receive
redress on the other. Only a few respondents (20 out of 135) were aware of the Vishaka guidelines on sexual harassment, and none knew of a hospital complaints committee for redress of complaints.

In their presentation Rufus, Beulah and Manju (2007), of a study with the sample size of 120 among the women workers in building construction sites revealed that the major type of harassment prevailed at the construction sites were sexually coloured remarks (19.2 %), demand/request for sexual favours (16.7%), followed by physical contact or advances (10 %), unwelcome body languages (9.2%) and showing pornographies (5 %) (cited in, Rufus & Beulah, 2010). The results of the same study also revealed a majority (42 %) of the respondents were harassed inside the workplace. Out of the inside workplace harassment maximum victimization (8 % each) occurred during the lunch hours and when the victim was being in alone in site.7 % of the respondents were harassed when in professional proximity with the harasser and similar per cent of the respondents were harassed at evening times and 70% of harassment occurred places can’t be specified which means the victim may be harassed in more than one situation at inside the workplace. Out of the total respondents, 27 % were victimized only one time, 23 % were victimized 2 to 5 times, and 10 % were victimized innumerable times by the harasser/s.

In another previous study among the women workers in retail shops, conducted by Rufus and Beulah (2006) found that 66% victims made complaint to their workplace in chargers like manager, boss and other similar percentage of victims (each 17%) reported to their family members and friends respectively. No one came to lodge a complaint in the Police Station. The reasons for the non-reporting of harassments to the police were: not want to approach Police Station or Court (30%), 20% felt that that exposure of victimization would affect their marriage if they lodged a police complaint; other 20%
were hurdled by their co-workers and were made not to lodge a complaint. 15% of them felt that there may be secondary victimization by family members/husband. 5% of them said that they had no emotional and physical support from the outsiders. 10% of them felt that exposure of sexual harassment victimization is a shame for the lifetime in front of the neighbours, relatives and society, etc. These are the general reasons, so that the victims of sexual harassment refused to lodge a police complaint. In both the above studies a similar 95% of the respondents had no awareness on Supreme Court guidelines on prevention of sexual harassment, that is, Vishaka v. State of Rajasthan (1997).

According to an exploratory survey conducted by Chockalingam and Vijaya (2008) in “Sexual Harassment of Women in Public Transport in Chennai City: A Victimological Perspective” the following findings were obtained: (i). The Study included 100 women victims who had been experienced sexual harassment in city buses; (ii). Of the victims, 54% were working women and 37% were students; (iii). A majority of 63% of the victims accepted that they were subjected to several forms of sexual victimization such as leering looks (84%), winking (62%), gesture making (71%), unnecessary touching (73%), unnecessary leaning (79%), pressed against (65%), unexpected touching of the breast (48%), brushing of thighs and bottoms (59%), pinching of the bottoms (42%), and pinching of the hips (43%), as perpetrated by man; (iv). Chi-square analysis revealed that there was a significant relationship between age, education and dressing habit and sexual harassment; (v) The authors argued that the offenders are not bothered about looks or the dress of women particularly in a crowded bus, where they can hardly take notice of all these things, viz., colour of skin, physique, looks; on the contrary, opportunity, time, scope are the only conducive factors that contribute to the commission of crimes of this kind; (vi) As reaction to a nonphysical harassment such as leering looks / winking / gesture making, majority of the victims
expressed that they ignore the situation (54%) or keep quiet (62%). When harassed mildly victims expressed that they would move away from that place (96%), or discuss the matter with somebody else and forget it (62%). When harassed severely, victims stated that they reacted by giving a stern look (91%), remarking that inconvenience is caused (67%), or verbally abusing the offender (36%). Only a few victims accepted that they reacted by slapping (6%), physically abusing the offender (13%), calling for public support (5%), or lodging a complaint with the police (2%).

Madhava Soma Sundaram, Jaishankar and Desai (2008) in their research article “Victims of Sexual Harassment in Modern Work Places in India” ventured to study the problem of sexual harassment at some MNCs in Mumbai, India by employing survey method. In their opinion, sexual harassment, a universal phenomenon, is highly prevalent in public places and in work places as well, in the form of ‘Eve Teasing’. The authors quoted the words of Tyagi (2008), ‘In India, mostly women are the victims of sexual harassment in modern workplaces and men were also victims of sexual pestering but not sexual harassment also mentioned the view of Parthasarathi (2007), ‘The ugly monster of sexual harassment has entered modern workplaces and grown in volume with the entry of Multinational Corporations due to globalization’. The researchers used the sample of size n = 94 consist of working women from various multinational companies such as BPO companies, Call Centers and Software–related Companies in the Mumbai city. A questionnaire, developed by the researchers on the model of Johnson, Messe and Crano (1984) was used to study. This explanatory survey of sexual harassment in modern workplaces has brought various significant results. (i) Majority of the victims (31.9%) did secretarial work and 41.5% had cordial relationship with their colleagues. (ii) 29.8% worked in BPOs, 47.9% in call centers and 22.3% in software-related companies. (iii) 77.7% of the respondents did not feel their offices as
safe places. (iv) Majority of them (88.3%) felt that their immediate boss was the harasser. This might be due to the close proximity, frequency of interaction or possibility to use control / power. (v) Initial harassment behaviour included the use of obscene body language (70.2%), sexually coloured remarks (17.0%) and verbal attack (12.8%). (vi) Demand for sexual favour was the highest form of abuse reported by the respondents (54.3%), followed by physical contact and advances (23.4%) showing pornography, and sexual advances. (vii) 79.8% were harassed for the past few days and 68.1% were harassed on their way to their offices. (viii) There were some psychological impacts of victimization. 20% were shocked, 33% grew angry, 10% went through trauma, 16% became nervous and 21% felt helplessness. (ix) The victim reporting behaviour is poor in many cases (38%) as the victims felt that it may lead to further victimization.

Yadav (2007) in his article entitled ‘Sexual Harassment of Women : Current Scenario of Indian Hospitals’ lamented that “Sexual harassment in hospitals of women doctors and nurses, seems to have become a common practice in India” and that none of them had heard of a Complaints Committee for redressal of their grievances. In his study, he analyzed the then prevailing scenario in United Kingdom and India. Following a string of sex abuse scandals in UK, new guidelines evolved set out the sexual boundaries between doctors, nurses and patients for the first time. He, in the context of Indian Hospitals, defined sexual harassment as professional misconduct. Abuse of professional position by committing adultery or important conduct with a patient or by maintaining an improper association with a patient would render a physician liable for disciplinary action as provided under the Indian Medical Council Act (IMC Act) 1956 or the concerned State Medical Council Act (SMC Act). He also defined adultery as involving doctors (both male and female), patients (both male and female) and their attendants, etc., and again upheld that consent of any of the party is no defence to
escape the liability for punishment. In his opinion, sexual harassment was a serious criminal offence, which could destroy human dignity and freedom. He strongly advocated the employer or administrator of a hospital not to allow or encourage sexual harassment by remaining silent; part of their job was to promote and protect the welfare of the employees. He suggested three ways in which the employers or the administrators might be alerted to a harassment situation in the workplace which included (a) an employee complaining about another erring employee, (b) administrator witnessing or overhearing certain harassment behaviours and (c) administrator hearing information on specific sexual harassment. In his opinion, these methods had to be adopted after careful thought and deliberations.

Alok Bhasin’s (2007) “Law Relating to Sexual Harassment at Work” is a well-researched work on the meaning and scope of sexual harassment, the need to combat it, responsibilities to check it and provide redress to the victims. The author stresses in combating sexual harassment and empowerment of women who are the largest victims. This book is divided into four parts – What is Sexual Harassment?, Why Sexual Harassment needs to Combated?, Combating Sexual Harassment and Liability and Remedies. Besides, the author discusses nearly 423 individual cases of sexual harassment in different parts of India and in different countries. This book gives a bird’s eye – view of all the aspects of sexual harassment. This book is believed to be a good research guide for a research scholar.

In a leading news agency ‘The Hindu’ Mehdudia (2008) pointed out results of a survey about working women’s feeling of safety at night shifts. The survey produced these key findings which actually would be the outcome of the recent women victimizations in Bangalore BPO sector and continuing sexual harassment and assault victimization in the major cities, especially in Delhi City. The impact of sexual
victimization of women over the country would be the prime reason for the survey’s results on fear outcome. The results as follows: (i) 53 % of working women feel insecure, especially during night shifts in all major hubs of economic activity across the country, particularly in the key sectors of BPO and ITeS, hospitality, civil aviation, nursing homes and garments. (ii) 48 % of the women working with small-scale firms are extremely worried about their outside movement. (iii) The assessment revealed women in BPOs and ITeS were the most vulnerable to both physical and non-physical attacks, especially after duty hours. (iv) The feeling of insecurity among women in nursing home (53%), leather industry (45%), and garment industry (34%). (v) Delhi topped the list with 65 %, Bangalore with 56 %, Hyderabad (35 %), Chennai (28%) and Mumbai (26%), for the women’s unsafe feeling on night.

Rufus and Beulah (2010), in their article “Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace” aimed to generated awareness on various issues of sexual harassment. The article detailed with the nature and extent of sexual harassment with illustrations of Indian statistics and important cases in India. They further inspected the literature about the various impact and consequences of sexual harassment at the organizational level, at the individual level, as physical, psychological impact, and at both organizational and individual level. With the aim to support the activist, the authors argued that sexual harassment at workplace, a human rights violation, abuse of power, gender discrimination, and sexual exploitation. Further they recommended the individual victim to how to deal with sexual harassment as direct approach and indirect approach. The article advocates that the sexual harassment is a ‘Noiseless crime’; due to the non-reporting character of the crime, the sexual harassment does not come to the social light. In final, among some few key suggestions, they urged a Special Law should be implemented against the sexual harassment at workplace, including both the places of
organized/(Government & public) and unorganized private sectors. Stringent punishment and prompt redressal should be covered. The victims should be provided with necessary medical, material, psychological, financial and legal assistance as a form of victim assistance.

Vaan Muhil, a well-known NGO in Tirunelveli district in it recent, unpublished report ‘Advocacy Study on the Impact of Sumangali Scheme on the Adolescent Girls from Rural Areas of Tamil Nadu’, submitted to KFB-Austria in 2010 found that the girls were assured for a lump sum and recruited as contract labourers for two-three years to the mills and garments in Tamil Nadu, under this scheme. The results of the interviews conducted among 1638 women labourers showed that sexual harassment is common in their workplaces. Sexual advances, physical touching on sensitive parts of girls, purposely hitting them, derogatory references about girls’ body, touching of girls hands and fondling with their organs were the common harassments incident occurred at their workplace. The girls were found to be more vulnerable to victimization during the night shifts and even the harassments extended to forcing the girls for sex. 1 out 5 women who discontinued their job told that the reason for the discontinuation was the sexual harassment by their supervisors. 17.78 % reported the incident of verbal abuse and ill-treatment against them. 10.01% reported the experience of physical assault such as pinching, beating, hitting on hand, dragging on by hair, by their supervisors. A number of women (58) expressed that they were not allowed to take leave even to their difficult in menstruation.

Chand (2010) in the article “Indian and American Students for Safety on Campus” quoted a 2007 research report of sexual harassment study among the women students and male students of 44 city colleges, conducted by Akshara-Mumbai based NGO in 2007. The study revealed that 61 % of 533 women students interviewed had been sexually
harassed in colleges, either by their peers or by staff. More than half of the male students interviewed said that they had been sexually harassed during college years. The finding also disclosed that 66.7% of male students admitted having sexually harassed their victims ‘just for fun’. Further, the author also argued that sexual harassment was a very complex issue involving legal, cultural and psychological aspects; hence it required a multi-dimensional response.

Dhar (2010) in ‘One World South Asia’s online portal, brought out a ‘Workplace Sexual Harassment Survey,” carried out by the Centre for Transforming India, a non-profit organization. The survey served as an eye-opener about the status of implementation of policies to prevent such harassment. The survey covered 600 female employees working in IT and BPO industries across all the major IT destinations of India. The results showed that nearly 88% of the female workforce in Indian Information Technology and business process outsourcing and knowledge process outsourcing (BPO/KPO) companies reported having suffered some form of workplace sexual harassment during the course of their work. Close to 50% women had been subjected to abusive language, physical contact or been sought sexual favours. As many as 47% employees did not know where to report, while 91% did not report for fear of being victimized. Another major finding was that more than 82% of the incidents which could be classified as sexual incidents occurred outside the boundaries of the office and in nearly 72% of the incidents the perpetrator was a superior. It was observed that 60% of the respondents were not aware of the workplace sexual harassment policies of their organizations. Around 10% were only partially aware. Of all the respondents, 77% stated that the details of sexual harassment policies were not part of their hiring process. This seemed as a hurdle in getting redressal.
2.2.5 Reviews on Specific Issues of Sexual Harassment

This part of the review categorized the specific issues of sexual harassment under different heads to attempt for the healthy understanding of these issues in the study area.

2.2.5.1 Sexual Harassment: Nature & Extent

In a study, Anila (1990) found that the nature of sexual harassment in Pakistan consisted of staring, unwelcome sexual comments and, physical contact etc. (e.g., brushing against, squeezing, or pinching). The harassers included mostly males of all ages belonging to different socio-economic strata of the society. The victims of sexual harassment were believed to be mostly those females who attracted attention by indecent dress and make-up and by their own behaviour, such as giggling, style of walking, etc. However, those who were decent and sober and who did not indulge themselves in those kinds of behaviours might also, at times, become victims of sexual harassment. The common reactions of victims included ignoring, giving verbal and facial expression of liking or disliking, avoiding the situation, and self-blaming, etc. The author also expressed that sexual harassment was the least spoken issue in society. Although all women knew about it and experienced it but nobody cared or dared to report it because throughout their lives they had been discouraged to speak about such incidences (Anila, 1995). Also, Rubenstein (1992) listed the most egregious behavior under the 3 major categorized nature of sexual harassment as, (i) physical nature: physical violence, touching, pinching; (ii) verbal nature: comments on a worker’s appearance, age, private life, etc, sexual advances, repeated social invitation, insults based on sex, condescending or paternalistic remarks; (iii) display sexually explicit or suggestive material, sexually-suggestive gesture, whistling. With regard to extent of sexual harassment, mostly all the
available literatures indicated that the vast majority of workers subjected to sexual harassment specifically are women (Loy & Stewart, 1984; Timmerman & Bajema, 1997).

2.2.5.2 Classification of Sexual Harassment

Hadjifotou (1983) classified Sexual harassment into 5 categories:

1. Sexual remarks, jokes, catcalls, whistling and teasing, or personal remarks about parts of the body, particularly legs, breast and hair. These forms of harassment are the hardest to identify and tackle.

2. Suggestive look and gestures, staring and leering. Such unwanted behavior is threatening because there is no immediate escape at work. Ignoring this behavior carries the risk of the harasser increasing his actions; acknowledging the harasser’s interest may be taken as acceptance; and complaining may be difficult if the harasser has power over the woman’s job. For example, a lady narrated how her boss will stand with his hands in his pockets as if rubbing his genitals.

3. Persistent demands for dates and sexual favors either from a supervisor or coworker. Direct questions and comments of the sort cannot be easily ignored. Two scenarios may result from this: rejection or avoidance of the harasser may fuel the myth that women ‘like to play hard to get’, and/or it may be difficult to persuade the harasser that his attentions are unwanted. An example is given of a woman whose boss visited her at odd hours during her night shift, asking her to have an affair with him, a night or, an afternoon, or just half an hour.

4. Touching, Pinching caressing and hugging. A familiar excuse for this type of behavior is that it demonstrates friendship, but when the action is unwanted and repeated, it cannot be mistaken for genuine concern for a person’s well-being.

5. Violent sexual assault, rape or attempted rape. Such cases account for a very small proportion of sexual harassment at work (cited in, freeonlineresearchpapers.com)
Leslie and Hauck (2005, a) described the Fitzgerald (1988) categorization of sexual harassment form the initial differentiation done by Till (1980) as follows: Under the direction of the National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, Till (1980) collected descriptive anecdotes from victims and others who were aware of sexual harassment incidents". The five distinguishable types of behaviors identified by Till (1980) were:

1. Generalized sexist remarks or behavior
2. Inappropriate and offensive, but essentially sanction-free, sexual advances
3. Solicitation of sexual activity or other sex-linked behavior by promise of rewards
4. Coercion of sexual activity by threat of punishments
5. Sexual assaults

As part of a research project, Louise F. Fitzgerald and several colleagues named the five categories of sexual harassment previously identified by Till (1980). These were, in order of severity: Gender harassment, Seductive behavior, Sexual bribery, Sexual coercion, and Sexual assault (Fitzgerald, Shullman, Bailey, Richards, Swecker, Gold, Ormerod, & Weitzman, 1988). Also they developed the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) that delineated 23 specific sexual harassing behaviors. SEQ2 a revised instrument had been used to measure sexual harassing behaviors in various populations, including female college students employed in the fashion retail workplace (Leslie & Hauck, 2005, b; Workman, 1993).In Final , Fitzgerald, et al. (1988) suggested a 3-factor solution though factor analysis. The proposed groupings were: 1. Bribery and threat, 2. Seduction and 3. Sexual imposition and Gender harassment. According to Magley, Hulin, Fitzgerald, & DeNardo, (1999), this three-category structure was further supported in subsequent studies (cited in, www.kon.org).
Benokraitis’ (1997) research in the US military of 20,249 respondents revealed that more forms of behaviour than were anticipated were seen to be within the gamut of forms of sexual harassment as follows:

- Actual or attempted rape or sexual assault
- Persistent unwanted/uninvited pressure for dates and sexual favours
- Unwanted/uninvited touching, cornering, pinching
- Unwanted/uninvited sexually suggestive looks, gestures or body language,
  Teasing, whistles, calls, hoots, remarks, jokes or intimate questions
- Unwanted/uninvited letters, phone calls, materials and display of sexual nature

In further, sexual harassment can be classified into two types. The first is ‘quid pro quo’ which means ‘something for something’. This occurs when an employee’s submission to unwelcome sexual conduct becomes an explicit or implicit condition of employment, or when personnel actions such as promotion and transfers are determined on the basis of an employee’s response to such conduct. The second type of sexual harassment or sexual annoyance is known as the ‘hostile environment’, which occurs when unwelcome sexual conduct interferes with an individual’s job performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment (Awasthi, 2007).

2.2.5.3 Workplace

As Fitzgerald (1992) noticed, the sexual harassment is found in both public and private sectors and in all type of organization. The research studies on sexual harassment have been carried out in different work settings. For example, in 1981 & 1987, U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board conducted sexual harassment studies at the federal workplaces; Study among Los Angeles county workers (Gutek, 1985); Study among U.S. Navy Personnel by Culbertson et al., (1992); Sexual Harassment Study on California Department of Fair Employment and Housing by Coles (1986); Gruber and Bjorn (1982)
study among women autoworkers; and, Sexual Harassment Study on Airline Professional by Little – Bishop, Seidler – Feller, and Opaluch (1982). It is worth-mentioning to express that sexual harassment experienced outside the workplace but during work-related business or activities fall under the workplace harassment. Such workplaces included “office parties, lunch outings”, “networking event”, “client’s office”, “team retreat”, “guardhouse”, “lunch hours and while with superior outside for official appointments”, “during meals with client”, “social/ team building”, “meeting sites conducted outside the office”, “organization events”. It is critical for the definition of the workplace to encompass more than the actual office space or place of business and to take into consideration ‘work–related interactions that are often not considered as the workplace’ (Research Study on Workplace Sexual Harassment, 2008, p.21). The bigger issue is one of ‘the accesses that a perpetrator has to the persons being harassed by virtue of a job situation or relation (Haspels, Kasim, Thomas & McCann, 2001.’Thus the sexual harassment prevails invariably in all types of workplace settings.

2.2.5.4 Victims of Sexual Harassment

Gutek (1985) reported that the victims of sexual harassment were often younger than the other average women worker/ non-victims. Other studies reported similar results (Baker, 1989; Coles, 1986; Fain & Anderton, 1987; Gutek & Dunwoody, 1987; Martin, 1984). Contrary to these, however, a few studies have different finding. For example, Brooks and Perot (1991) in their study of women faculty members and graduate students reported that older women experience a higher frequency of sexual harassment than younger women. Gutek (1985) also reported that highly educated women tended to hold more liberal attitudes about social behaviour at work. These women were more likely to report being insulted by sexual propositions at work. To support this, some other researchers have also found that women with higher level of education are more likely to
report sexual harassment than women with lower levels of education (Coles, 1986; Fain & Anderton, 1987; Martin, 1984). This may be a function of awareness and sensitization to the problem among more educated women (Lack & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1993).

Fitzgerald and Ormerod (1992) reported that the marital status is also related to the experience of sexual harassment, with unmarried (divorced, separated, never married, and cohabiting) women more often experiencing harassment than other (married, widowed) women (see also Coles, 1986; Fain & Anderton, 1987; LaFontaine & Tredeau, 1986; Martin, 1984; Ryan & Kenig, 1991; Schneider, 1982). Gutek and Nakamura (1982) reported that married women and widows faced fewer experiences of sexual harassment than do single or divorced women. However, women who were living with a man (Cohabiting women) were twice as likely as women in general to report that they were touched sexually by a man at work (29% compared to 15%), and they were almost twice as likely to report insulting sexual looks or gestures (32% to 19%) than other women.

The U.S. Merit system Protection Board (1981) found the women most likely to be sexually harassed were very dependent on their jobs and they had even showed it very clearly in the responses of narrator victims to the question, “At the time of this experience, how much did you need this job?” It is interesting that women who had faced actual or attempted rape or assault were more likely than others to have needed their job a great deal at the time of harassment. However, the evidence are to poor when we try to find whether the researches have been carried out to directly study the variable of reasons for doing the job by victims.

2.2.5.5 Harassers of Sexual Harassment

According to many reports (Benson & Thomson, 1982; Farley, 1978), the supervisors are the most likely initiators of sexual harassment. From a research study, Gutek et al., (1980) found that the consensus among women about initiator is that the
man who approaches them also approaches other women. 71 percent of the women reported that men ‘behave this way’ also towards other women. He also found that ‘harassers who harassed women varied in age, marital status, and work relationship to the female targets. The supervisor was a frequent harasser, but, who not only person who sexually harassing the women. 52 percent of women in Gutek’s sample reported that the initiator was a supervisor. The other groups of harasser were, people on whom one depends for work, people who provided supplies, or customers, or clients etc.

2.2.5.6 Job Status between Victim and Harasser

According to Tangri et al., (1982), in work organization usually women are employed in low status job when compared to men. Therefore, their subordinate position made them to be vulnerable to sexual harassment at the workplaces (see also Baker, 1989; Evans, 1978). Thus the men abuse their organizational power to coerce or intimate a woman (Backhouse & Cohen, 1981; Bulrazik, 1978; Farley, 1978; Mackinnon, 1979). However, this interpretation has been conflicting by the findings that ‘Peers or coworkers rather than supervisors are the most frequent harassers’ (Gutek, 1985; Phillips, Stockdale, & Joeman, 1989). The harassment of superiors by subordinates has also occurred in workplaces (Mckinney, 1992). LaFontaine and Tredeau (1986) also pointed out that the sexual harassment from colleagues is just another expression of the undervaluing and undermining the women at work. Carothers & Crull (1984) explained, when the subordinates sexually harass the women in high status jobs they used sexual harassment as a weapon to undermine the authority of their supervisors (see also DiTomaso, 1989; Wolshok, 1981).

2.2.5.7 Physical Attractiveness and Harassment

The people who labeled themselves as physically attractive were more likely to report that they were expected to date or engage in sexual activity as a part of their jobs
than people who did not see themselves as physically attractive. They were also more likely to report complimentary comments of sexual nature than women who reported themselves to be less attractive. Women who rated themselves as physically attractive were more likely to report social-sexual behaviours in general than were less attractive women. Of the women who rated themselves very attractive, 73% reported at least one social-sexual incident, compared to 33% of the other female respondents (Gutek & Nakamura, 1982). Though these relationships are fairly consistent, still it does not seem to be true that, as popular opinion suggests, sexual harassment is a problem that affects only young and attractive women (Farely, 1978).

2.2.5.8 Race / Ethnicity and Harassment

There are some attempts made to examine whether and to what degree race and ethnic status influenced a woman’s risk to be sexually harassed. DeFour (1989) argued that economic vulnerability of many ethnic women makes it more difficult for them to resist unwelcome advances. In her report, Gutek (1985) pointed out that the minority women were no more vulnerable to harassment than other women. In conversely to this, Fain and Anderton (1987) found that minority women were more likely than non-minority women to experience pressure for sexual favours, sexual gestures and request for dates. When Martin (1984) reviewing some data, found no connection between race and ethnicity, and the levels of harassment. However, this becomes largely unexplored area of research.

2.2.5.9 Victims’ Reaction to Sexual Harassment

Victims of sexual harassment may exhibit various reactions against the victimization, since sometimes harassers are more powerful, and sometimes the harassers’ intentions are unclear. Benson and Thomson (1982) clearly pointed out that the first or first several harassing events are often ignored by the victims. Gruber and Bjorn (1982)
found that 23% of victims said they ignored the harassment and 22% asked the harasser to stop harassing behaviour; 15% of women workers verbally ‘attacked’ the harasser and 7% physically attacked or stopped the harasser. According to Culbertson et al., (1992), avoiding the harasser was an indirect strategy of 51% of women officers and 68% of enlisted women in U.S. Navy Study. Fitzgerald and Ormerod (1992) reported self-blaming was an important reaction of victims.

As direct responses to harassment, 18% of women who experienced sexual harassment reported the incident with authority in a random survey of workers in Los Angeles (Gutek, 1985); the same direct response by few victims was noted in many researches (Gruber & Bjorn, 1982; Loy & Stewart, 1984).

### 2.2.5.10 Reporting Behaviour of Victims of Sexual Harassment

Worldwide, the problem of sexual harassment remains an invisible because of its victims extremely hesitant to report its occurrence to the authorities. In a study among university students, Adams, Kottke and Padgitt (1983) found that none of the victims that they surveyed reported their victimization. A major strategy used by victims to handle sexual harassment is to ignore it (Benson & Thomson, 1982; Mackinnon, 1979). According to the researches, victims were more willing to report harassment to their friends than to any other group; but very few victims preferred to report with their authorities or head (Hotelling, 1991; Ormerod, 1989; U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1987). Gold (1989) criticized that victims would recommend more assertive strategies to others than they would employ themselves. Crocker (1983) asserted that fear of reprisal by the harasser and thus the fear of jeopardizing the future are the reasons behind them not to report the victimization.
2.2.5.11 Impact of Sexual Harassment Victimization

Sexual harassment has been recognized as serious, social and organizational problems which have substantial impact on victims as well as on organization (Hulin, 1993). The effect of sexual harassment into 3 types: emotional, physical, and behavioural. The varying emotional impacts to harassment were denial of harassment, disbelief, shock, fear, self-blaming, feeling of powerlessness, low self-esteem, mistrustful of men, anger, hurt, depression, feeling of trapped and decreased concentration (Dziech and Weiner, 1984). The physical symptoms frequently reported by victims included gastrointestinal – disturbances, jaw tightness and teeth grinding, nervousness, binge eating, headaches, inability to sleep, tiredness, nausea, loss of appetite, weight loss and crying spells (Crull, 1982; Gutek, 1985; Loy & Stewart, 1984). According to Kilpatrick (1992), in a survey of 3020 women who provided prevalence data for sexual harassment in a national representative sample of U.S, 16 % and 14 % of women suffering from PTSD and depression respectively, compared to 7 % of women in general, said they were touched sexually by a supervisor; and 17 % and 15 % of PTSD and depressed women, respectively, compared to 6 % of employed women in general, reported that they were kissed or fondled by a supervisor.

Job related impact were quit form job, transfers (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1987); deterioration of interpersonal relationship at work (Culbertson, Rosenfeld, Booth – Kewley, & Magnusson, 1992; DiTomaso, 1989); lesser the job satisfaction and job commitment of victim (Cubertson et al., 1992); and, loss of motivation, distraction, and dreading work (Jensen & Gutek, 1982).

Consequences of experiences of sexual harassment often mean that women leave their jobs rather than face the harassment. The victims may be dismissed or lose promotions prospects if they fail to comply with suggestions made them. Unwanted,
unwelcome sexual attentions frequently creates a stressful and hostile working environment which leads to mental and physical illness such as headaches, digestive problems, nausea, depression, general physical disability and lack of resistance to infections (Coles, 1986; Crull, 1982; McGrath, Keita, Strickland, & Russo, 1990).

Hence, the present chapter attempted to make a comprehensive literature review from the research areas relevant to victims of sexual harassment.