



A Study of Sexual Harassment in Three Selected Private Faith-Based Universities, Ogun-State, South-West Nigeria

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Abstract - Prior articles indicate the existence of sexual harassment in the public Universities in Nigeria, but knowledge about its prevalence in the private Faith-Based Universities is relatively lacking. Thus, this study is set to address this gap in knowledge, using three selected private Faith-Based Universities in Ogun-State, South-West Nigeria. Relying on primary and secondary sources of data collection, the study tries to find out if female students experience sexual harassment in these institutions. Moreover, it intends to discover if these students report cases of sexual harassment to the school management. Through 5 years data retrieved, the study equally intends to find out the number of staff caught for sexual harassment in each of these institutions and disciplinary actions taken against them. Employing opinions of female students and members of staff through questionnaire and in-depth interview, the study revealed that majority of female students experienced sexual harassment on campus, but most of them disinclined to report their cases to the school management. Drawing on the recorded data between 2008 and 2012, the study reported that 14 members of staff were caught for sexual harassment. The highest figure (50%) was recorded in the University B, following by University C with 28.6% while University A recorded the least figure with 21.4%. Finally, the study reported that 85% of members of staff caught for sexual harassment were relieved from work while the remaining 14.3% were suspended.

Keywords - Sexual Harassment, Selected, Private Faith-Based Universities

1. Introduction

The problem of sexual harassment has received the attention of scholars from a variety of life domains (see Branderburg, 1982; Gutek, 1993; De Coster *et al.*, 1999; Prentice and Carranza, 2002; Schultz, 2003; Maass *et al.*, 2003; Berdahl, 2007; Dobbin and Kelly, 2007; Dobbin, 2009; Menon *et al.*, 2011), because the scourge seems to be an issue of immorality that has no regard for individual status, religious affiliation, wealth, education Gowen, (2001), or development of countries across the globe. However, the quest for modernity, which Dikecligil, (1998) views as a paradigm that surrounds democracy in politics, capitalism in economy, positivism in science etc, seems to have influenced its escalation in underdeveloped societies through acculturation. Modernity began with the enlightenment and it symbolizes separation from the past and requires a process that usually goes from traditional to modern (Aysu, 2006) Ideas inherent in capitalist economy prompted women to abandon their traditional roles in the family for equal competition with men in work settings (Kofi, 2010). Prior acculturation, however, roles of women in

the society were limited to their husband homes. They were doing well in home keeping, caring for the children and the aged (Anugwom *et al.*, 2010). The confined roles of women at that point in time must have prevented traditional societies from experiencing serious problems of sexual harassment. Upon their engagement in work organisations, women are not only condemned for lack of wisdom, knowledge and competence needed to run any organisation successfully by men; they are equally not regarded as equal partners and serious workers. Instead, they are being considered as objects for sexual gratification (Hartmann, 1981; Kofi, 2010).

Sexual harassment is described as unwanted sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conducts of a sexual nature, when submission to or rejection, explicitly or implicitly affects a person's employment or education, unreasonably interferes with a person's work or educational performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive working or learning environment, University of Zambia HIV and AIDS Policy (2006) cited by Menon *et al.* (2011). The extent at which this problem is aggravating in work organisations is endemic Roberts and

Mann (2006), but this paper limits its scope to academic arena, where 20-30% of all college women have been sexually harassed (Gervasio and Ruckdeschel, 1992; Belknap *et al.*, 1999; Koss, 2000). In this context therefore, sexual harassment arises, when the harasser, usually a male-lecturer, employs his position to extort or secure unlawful sexual relationship from female students. Although past studies show that no particular sex of people is virtually immune to this social-ill Terpstra and Cook (1985), as it affects both male and female but, it is equally obvious in the literature that women are more affected than men (Okoro and Osawemen, 2005; see also figure i).

Apart from the economic, social and political factors (Farley, 1978; MacKinnon, 1979; Nieva and Gutek, 1981; Zalk, 1990; Burgess and Borgida, 1999; Fiske and Stevens, 1993) that make women more vulnerable to sexual harassment than men; cultural factors play a prominent role. Cultural norms, which include male honour, masculinity and men's sexual entitlement, foster societal acceptance of sexual harassment (World Health Organisation, 2002). The acceptance is reinforced by the traditional gender roles, which allows premarital and extramarital sex for male only. Hence, sex is perceived as a psychological necessity for male (Wasti and Cortina, 2002) but largely considered inappropriate for women. Besides, women are socialized in most societies to be passive, subordinate, non-assertive, and sexually attractive and to avoid conflict with men, whereas men are trained to behave in the opposite way (Gupta, 2000; Gowen, 2001). Men must have therefore carried over the above traditional male-dominated behaviours, from patriarchal society to work settings (Stepp, 2001). However, no reason could be used to justify sexual harassment in man's society. The scourge is an absurdity not only in Christianity, but also in civil society and it points to the escalation of moral decadence in modern societies, with attendant effects on health, marital lives, careers in workplaces and academic arena etc. Its escalation in tertiary institutions, where morality is expected to be used to complement academic performance for the award of certificates is gradually becoming a growing concern in Nigeria.

It is amazing and disturbing that this occurs in academia, saddled with the responsibility of moulding and filtering ground for building virile future leaders (Jega, 2013). Although its escalation in the public sector Universities might not be a surprise to well meaning Nigerians, bearing in mind the high level of indiscipline and rottenness prevailing in the Nigerian society, but its occurrence and prevalence in the private Faith-Based Institutions founded on godly doctrines calls for a scholarly attention. To achieve the aim of this study however, the following research questions are raised.

- a) Do female students experience sexual harassment?
- b) Do female students report cases of sexual harassment to the school management?
- c) How many members of staff were caught for sexual harassment between 2008 and 2012?

- d) What disciplinary actions were taken against members of staff for indulging in sexual harassment?

The study is expected to indicate if female students experience sexual harassment in these institutions. Moreover, it would discover if female students report their cases to the school authority. Finally, the study is expected to indicate the number of staff caught for sexual harassment in each of these institutions and disciplinary actions taken against them.

The existence and escalation of sexual harassment in the private Faith-Based Universities brings to bear the falling standard of Christianity in modern societies (2 Timothy 3:1-6). Its effect on victims, mostly female students, could be very grievous academically, emotionally, socially and health wise. On a more serious note, Geidam *et al.*, (2010) associate its negative implications with psychological, extra-genital, genital and physical traumas. Therefore, crucial efforts are needed to reduce the scourge to the barest minimum in the society.

2. Statement of the Problem

In recent times, studies have emerged to address the social problem of sexual harassment in work settings in Nigeria (Yahaya, 1990; Ladebo, 2003; Adedokun, 2005; Yusuf, 2008; Kofi, 2010; Ige and Adeleke, 2012), but literature on its endemic nature in academia, where moral excellence is expected to be taught, imbibed and displayed is very scanty (Adamolekun, 1989; Ladebo, 2003). While the existing few studies focused on the occurrence of sexual harassment in the public Universities (Yahaya, 1990; Oppong, 1995; Aluede, 2000; Ezumah, 2004; Fayankinnu, 2004; Irtwange, 2004; Pereira, 2004; Adedokun, 2005; Okoro and Osawemen, 2005; Omolola, 2007; Noah, 2008; Okeke, 2011; Chukwudi and Gbakorun, 2011; Abe, 2012; Imonikhe *et al.*, 2012), knowledge about its prevalence in the private Faith-Based Universities is relatively lacking. In other word, there are no studies examining the occurrence of sexual harassment in the sector. Although, a similar study was conducted recently in one of the nation's Private Christian Mission Universities (Crawford University) by Ojo, (2013), but the study specifically deals with the "Assessment of the Acceptance of Rape Myths among Nigerian University Students: Crawford University in Nigeria under Survey" and falls short of knowledge concerning female students experiencing sexual harassment. Moreover, it is not certain from the study if female students report cases of sexual harassment to the school management. Finally, the study fails to indicate the number of staff caught for sexual harassment and disciplinary actions taken against them. Therefore, we intend to transcend the limit of the above study by filling these gaps in knowledge. The fact that cases of sexual harassment have not been explored in the private Faith-Based Universities in Nigeria could make this study very significant.

2.1. Forms of Sexual Harassment

What constitutes sexual harassment has provoked studies among scholars. In the view of Mohd *et al.* (2007), forms of sexual harassment are comprehensively specified in the Code of Practice as follows:

- Verbal (e.g. offensive or suggestive remarks)
- Non-verbal or gestural (e.g. leering or ogling with suggestive overtones)
- Visual (e.g. showing pornographic materials)
- Psychological (e.g. unwanted social invitations)
- Physical harassment (e.g. inappropriate touching)

These are minor forms of sexual harassment because it ignores threat of job-related consequences for non-compliance. This crucial point, among others is located in the view of (Stanko, 1988). According to him, the following behaviours are regarded as sexual harassment (sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions); unwanted pressures for sexual favour or date; unwanted touching or pinching; with implied threats of job-related consequences for non-cooperation; physical assault; sexual assault; rape. The striking aspect of Stanko, (1988) view is unwanted pressure for sex with implied threats of job-related implications. It brings to bear threats of many male lecturers on female students, who fail to comply with sexual harassment in Nigerian tertiary institutions. Nevertheless, Stanko, (1988) view ignores unmerited benefits that go with sexual harassments for those who comply with the proposal. This flaw in knowledge makes the idea of Fitzgerald *et al.*, (1995) crucial to this discourse. According to them, forms of sexual harassment include unwanted sexual attention such as touching, hugging, stroking and demanding a date; sexual coercion, which relates to sexual advances with the promise of job-related benefits; and gender harassment, which refers to those verbal and non-verbal behaviours (such as jokes, taunts, gestures, and exhibition of pornographic materials).

Dwelling on Fitzgerald *et al.*, (1995), sexual harassment does not only involve threat on jobs or academic performances, it equally goes with benefits, if complied with. However, it is necessary to state here that threat only goes with non-compliance while benefits go with compliance. Female students, who refused to comply with sexual harassment, more often than not are victimized either with poor grade or failure. The worth of such students is often denied and jeopardized. Female students, who complied with the proposition usually, enjoy unmerited benefits to the detriment of others. Lecturers can use their positions to offer students privileges in various forms in exchange for sexual favours (Ramsaroop, 2007). These favours include, securing high marks that the victim cannot defend, seeing question papers and marking scheme prior examinations etc. These benefits usually place female students, who subscribed to sexual harassment above their classmates, who are more brilliant than them. However, when the proposal for sexual harassment is rejected it leads to a hostile working environment. In such milieus, victims find it difficult to relate

freely in the organization. (Gruber, 1992; Welsh, 1999) see forms of sexual harassment not only in that direction but also in areas of derogatory sexist remarks, hostile environments (produced by sexually oriented objects, pictures, comments, and gestures), solicitation, touching, quid pro quo arrangements, and even forced sexual contact with grave consequences for work life. Although the view of (Gruber, 1992; Welsh, 1999) combines benefits arrangements and implications of job-related threat in their forms of sexual harassment, but the view ignores modern means of communication and spousal abuse within academia in accounting for the scourge. These include the use of mobile phone and other media formats etc. These flaws in knowledge are rooted in the (University of Ibadan Sexual Harassment Policy, 1999). The policy claims that such acts could include but not limited to outright demands, ogling, indecent comments and unnecessary bodily contact which could lead to psychological or physical unsolicited sexual relationships; unwanted suggestive looks, phone calls or use of other multimedia format and comments intended to lure a person into a sexual relationship; spousal abuse where one or both partners are members of the University community.

In another development, what constitutes sexual harassment in work organisations could be gender perceived (see table i). Men and women often view sexual harassment differently (Lunenburg, 2010). Therefore, what women consider as harassment may not be regarded as harassment by men, but women are more likely to label behaviours as harassment than men (Konrad and Gutek, 1986 cited by Ladebo, 2003). Women tend to perceive a broader range of behaviors as sexual harassment than do men (Lunenburg, 2010). This is because evidences from the literature show that women experience sexual abuse more than men. Therefore, in determining what constitutes sexual harassment from the interaction between workers and superiors, women opinions could be greater than that of men (see table ii). In support of the verdict in table ii, Adama *et al.*, (1983) claim that women are more likely than males to indicate behaviours that are offensive and interfered with their academic progress and career development. The same scenario is applicable to workers and coworkers (see table iii). Although workers of the same rank don't have much power over their colleagues but they can harass their fellow workers with the little opportunity avails to them. The level of harassment at this level according to George and Jones, (2008) is usually less than their supervisors. It involves withholding information, cooperation, and support in team efforts. By engaging in these behaviours, a worker can exert power over other coworkers. In exercising this power, cases of sexual harassment may occur.

By and large, whatever form of sexual harassment suggested by scholars, however, behaviours may not be regarded as harassment if there is no sexual intention with the opposite sex. Therefore, one can hug the opposite sex and still be free of sexual harassment, provided there is no intention of having sex within him or her. Nevertheless, it is very difficult

to read peoples intention in most cases. One may not be able to ascertain if the opposite sex is nursing sexual interest in his or her mind towards the persons he or she hugs. This is because human behaviour is very difficult to predict. Thus, it could make most forms of sexual harassment difficult to determine. However, serious cases of sexual harassment could easily be noticed under the following two circumstances:

- Firstly, if the opposite sex is receiving unusual attention or benefits from his / her boss or co-worker, which ordinarily are not accrued to him / her.
- Secondly, if the opposite sex is being unjustly victimized oppressed and humiliated by his / her boss or co-worker.

2.2. Implications of Sexual Harassment in Work Organizations

Sexual harassment is an immoral act that has serious implications not only on the harassers, but also on perpetrators, managers, organisations and government at large. Considering its effects on a female victim, it undermines her physical and psychological state of mind (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1988). Such a person may be subjected to serious forms of stress, fatigue and depression. Adding to that effect is the tendency for a third party observer to dismiss the report of sexual harassment as if it never happened (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1995). More often than not, such an allegation is neglected or treated with levity; whereas the state of mind of the woman would have been wounded. In term of work relations of victims, furthermore, harassers may experience strained work relations and become generally unsatisfied with their jobs (Dey *et al.*, 1996). Such workers may equally display emotional distress, which manifests in symptoms ranging from anxiety to depression, irritability, anger and insomnia. These in turn could affect motivation, efficiency and effectiveness at work. It may also have adverse effects on their family relations at home (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1997; Ragins and Scandura, 1995). Schneider, (1987) claims that academic success of victims of sexual harassment is often affected, which could be explained in two ways.

- Firstly, the student who rejects the proposal may be victimized academically. The lecturer may fail the student. Meaning that she has to carryover courses involved. The financial implication for a final year student could be too difficult to bear. Also, the time wasted cannot be ignored. Such a student may not be able to catch up with her mates in life.
- Secondly, the lecturer could give the student poor grades, below the worth of her academic performance. This may likely affected her chances of getting good jobs in competitive labour markets, where emphasis is placed on first class and second class honours, upper division. Such victims may either change their major subjects or alter career plans in order to avoid the unwanted situation (Schneider *et al.*, 1997).

On this note, ethics of examination and academic performance would have been negatively affected, not only in respect of students, who rejected the proposal, but for those who accepted the proposal, and those who allured their lecturers into it. They might be favoured unjustly in the following three ways.

- Firstly, the lecturer may release question papers and answers to female students, who accepted the proposal prior examinations. This practice is common among the H.O.Ds, examination co-ordinators etc Ekore, (2012) in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. This usually enables female students to either cram answers or smuggle it into the examination hall.
- Secondly, students in this category may be asked to re-write all their examinations in the lecturer's office in a teleguided manner.
- Thirdly, the lecturer may award high marks directly to these students, above their academic ability.

These could enable them to perform better than many brilliant students in their classes. Implications of the aforementioned factors could be very serious in the development of education in an underdeveloped nation like Nigeria. It could be a way of propagating cheating and perversion of justice. If students involved build on this legacy, it may have adverse effect on their performances in work settings (Omonijo and Nnedum, 2012b). The same could even be transferred to their children, when they get married, and become a subculture that could be very difficult to eradicate.

Through sexual harassment, it should be noted that a woman could be impregnated and the man responsible may deny ever having an affair with her. When the baby is born, he or she becomes fatherless. Such a child is regarded as a bastard. More often than not, children in this category are untrained and uncared for. Many of them have been linked which social vices in the society (Omonijo *et al.*, 2013a)

Ideas of the above scholars focused mainly on the negative effects of sexual harassment on the victims in work settings, implications of the scourge on members of staff caught in the act are clearly omitted. In organisations that operate legal rules and regulations against sexual harassment, the career of the harassers could be destroyed. More often than not, such persons are best brains in their field of endeavors. They are often sacked from work permanently or suspended for a definite period. These individuals and their households may be exposed to economic and financial trauma till they are able to secure another job. Moreover, past studies revealed that family relations of the affected members of staff are jeopardized (Ragins and Scandura, 1995; Gutek and Koss, 1993). Their wives may think that their husbands are cheating on them and opt for separation or divorce, which could be regarded as double tragedy for such men. Besides, when parents are separated or divorced, it affects children upbringing. Most children from broken homes are often associated with social-ills prevailing in the society (Berlin, 2004).

Similarly, the career of Managers who represent organisations, where sexual harassment strives could be tarnished. This is evident in developed nations, where the aggrieved victims are permitted to sue the manager and organisation for damages. In such societies, managers are strictly liable for sexual harassment under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Lunenburg, 2010). If employees are being sexually harassed in an organisation and such behaviour is discovered, both the manager and the organisation can be held liable for damages. The Sociological implication is that the manager has failed in managing the organisation properly (Omonijo, *et al.*, 2013b), because they have a legal responsibility and an ethical obligation to protect their employees from a hostile work environment (Lunenburg, 2010). Hence its prevalence in that organisation is an indication of managers' failure to carry out their duties effectively. Sexual harassment as reasoned by Roumell and Danlene (1999) may not have taken place if managers are around to observe it and take appropriate action on time. Similarly, employers of labour, who may not be regarded as managers this time around but owners of the organisations, where sexual harassment takes place can be held responsible for failing to prevent their employees from creating an intolerable environment for other employees. Their inability to take pro-active (prevention) and reactive (investigation) against sexual harassment could make them liable (Rycroft *et al.*, 2005). The case of Media 24 Limited and Samuels V Grobler (2005) 16 (4) SALLR (SCA) was considered by Van Wyk and Joubert, (2011) as a case in point, where the employer had to pay substantial damages to its former staff due to his failure to properly address her complaints of sexual harassment.

It is equally evident in the literature that an organisation is not exonerated from legal action against sexual harassment. "When sexual harassment charges were brought by a female employee against CEO of Toyota Motor North America, Inc, Toyota lost face as soon as the news hit the newspapers" (USA today, 2006). In other words, good will of such organisations' are tarnished by the exposure and negativity of sexual harassment (Ramsaroop, 2007). Such media coverage has grave implications for organisations' because customers often cancel contracts with companies that have sexual harassment problems (Eberharat, 1995). Also, constant court actions based on sexual harassment can make the organisation to lose its valuable staff, productivity and profitability. In the 1987 survey of the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (1994), the cost of work group productivity losses due to sexual harassment was estimated at over \$128 million. Moreover, some companies had to pay out damages in addition to incurring indirect costs such as high job turnover, rampant absenteeism, low morale as well as low productivity and excessive medical claims (Mohd *et al.*, 2007; Defoe, 2012).

Apart from individuals and organisations, government equally bears the burden of sexual harassment. This happens in developed nations, where there are laws prohibiting sexual

harassment in work settings Fitzgerald and Shullman, 1993; Luthar and Pastille, 2000; De Souza *et al.*, 1998). Thus, the U S Merit System protection board (1994) reports that American government lost \$327 million to sexual harassment between April 1992 and 1994. Also, Gowen (2001) notes that more than \$54.6 million was spent on out-of-court settlements of cases of harassment claims against private companies, and state and local governments in 2001.

2.3. Examination of Research on Underreporting Cases of Sexual Harassment

Past studies view sexual harassment as a violent crime against people and human society, but it is surprising to realize that its occurrences is largely underreported (see Geidam *et al.*, 2010). Shedding more light on the foregoing, Bonnar-Kidd (2010) notes that it was estimated that about 300, 000 women are raped and 3.7 million are confronted with unwanted sexual activity annually, yet the magnitude of female assault worldwide is not very clear. This is because it is one of the offences most underreported in many societies. Nigeria is not an exception. Past studies have confirmed the prevalence of female sexual harassment in the country (see Beckmann, 1998; Okonkwo & Ibeh, 2003), but four out of every ten women reported their cases (Okoro, & Osawemen., 2005). In another similarly study, Malhotra, (2000) claims that only 10-50% victims of sexual harassment reported to the appropriate authority for legal action.

Considering the seriousness of sexual harassment and the problems it portends to human development, one would have expected the scourge to be one of the most reported offences in man society, but the reverse has been the case due to many factors out of which avoidance of stigma plays a cogent role (Green *et al.*, 2001). According to Omonijo & Nnedum, (2012a), meanings attached to people subjectively, due to one reason or the other, could be regarded as stigmas, which sticks to them and affects their lives and destinies. Thus, the social stigma that people attach to female victims of sexual harassment in many underdeveloped societies could be perceived as an indelible mark, which affects their lives negatively. They are regarded as "half used and objects of mockery" by their neighbours. Also, some of them are being considered promiscuous and responsible for the incidence (Green *et al.*, 2001). Hence, they suffer prejudice in marriage. The sociological implication is that such women become burdens to their families. In order to avoid this situation, female victims of sexual harassment, do not report so as to make it secret from their neighbours. Beebe, (1991) associates this problem with embarrassment caused by appearing in court during litigation, publicity in media, risk of losing the love and respect of society, friends and husband, if married.

By and large, the problem of underreported cases of sexual harassment has persisted over the years and it can be attributed to several factors, working against women in the society. We intend to confirm the existing literature on this discourse in the institutions under study by trying to discover if female students report cases of sexual harassment to the

school management.

2.4. Theoretical Anchorage

Sexual harassment could be perceived as a product of social interaction. It is socialization that brings people together in order to champion different courses in life. Without interaction that connects people (a male and female) together, it may be virtually impossible to record cases of sexual harassment among mankind. Thus, Antonia Abbey *et al.*, (2003) state that at least 80 percent of all sexual assaults occur during social interaction, typically on a date.

Dwelling further on (Petter & Whitehill, 1998; Dunn and Gilchrist, 1993), people tend to be sexually harassed by individuals, who are closed to them. Although, we may not be able to rule out the probability of people being harassed by strangers, but its occurrence seems to be very remote. If it happens, it could be provoked by provocative dressing of the victims, usually women. More often than not, it is the prevailing relationship (student-lecturer, student-student, worker-boss, and worker-worker) etc that may likely result in sexual harassment. It is also important to note that communication plays a crucial role in the occurrence of sexual harassment (Keyton, 1996). It is the primary medium through which sexual harassment is expressed (Kreps, 1993). In other word, communication can be used to reinforce interaction that gives rise to sexual harassment among mankind. On this note, psychological development scholars consider sexual harassment as a learnt behaviour and maintain that men who rape often come from "harsh developmental backgrounds that involve impersonal and short-term social relationships. They also argue that backgrounds in which manipulation, coercion, and violence prevail in the conduct of social relationships tend to encourage sexual harassment (Malamuth and Heilmann, 1998). This gives credence to cult related sexual harassment of many female students by their male counterparts and lecturers alike in many tertiary institutions in Nigeria (Pemedede and Viavonu, 2010). Similarly, sexual harassment is associated with societies experiencing high levels of violence and conflict (World Health Organisation, 2002; Tol Wa *et al.*, 2013). In any violent environment, there is no protection for women, anyone caught in the web of violence is often raped or coerced in marriage. Other psychological researchers have similarly found a high correlation between social disorganisation or the presence of conditions that undermine traditional societal institutions such as church or family networks and sexual harassment (Baron and Straus, 1989). The rate of sexual misconduct or assault tends to increase in such situations, because survival of the fittest prevails in a disorganised milieu. Women are weaker vessels and men who lack moral integrity could take this advantage and harass them in such situations.

Socio-cultural model associates sexual harassment with the dominant economic power of men over women (Farley, 1978; MacKinnon, 1979; Nieva and Gutek, 1981; Zalk, 1990). The political power of men over women can equally be used

to account for sexual harassment. Majority of leaders and those who hold public offices worldwide are largely men, with women occupying only 20% (Williams, 2013). Therefore, where the traditional inequitable power relationship between men and women prevails, women who have less power and control are more likely to be harassed sexually. Studies have indicated that more powerful actors are likely to indulge in sexual harassment against lower status targets (MacKinnon, 1979; Pryor, 1985). Similarly, organisation approach attributes sexual harassment to the hierarchical structures in an organisation and inherent opportunities as well as positions of power and authority that give rise to sexual aggression (Lunenburg, 2010; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013). In other word, certain individuals could employ their positions, either as lecturers or managers etc to extort sexual gratification from the opposite sex. This in actual fact explains the predicament of many female students in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. Most of them have suffered failure and victimization in the hands of lecturers who normally employ their positions to harass them. Nevertheless, this approach ignores the consequence of evolution in accounting for sexual harassment.

This idea is rooted in Natural/Biological paradigm. Although, this school of thought asserts that there is no "gene" that causes sexual harassment, but it is generally believed among scholars that the existence of a predisposition to harass may be a negative effect of evolution. In the sense that men who are predisposed to sexual harassment may have more reproductive success than others who are not. This goes to explain the predicament of men and women who are very difficult to be satisfied on bed. Such individuals, no matter what must look for sex, even outside marriage. Moreover, there are people, who cannot control their sexual impulse. Whenever they begin to experience the urge for intercourse, they can do anything possible to engage in sex. The paradigm equally suggests that sexual harassment is an extension of human sexuality (Tangri and Hayes, 1997). This notion is largely attributed to the natural attraction of affection between men and women (Tangri *et al.*, 1982). It is natural and approved by the African tradition for men to admire women. The admiration causes men in particular to aggressively approach women with sexual comments and intentions (Tangri and Hayes, 1997). Besides, provocative dressing of many women can reinforce men to harass women (Opong, 1995; Irtwange, 2004; Beiner, 2007). In many tertiary institutions in Nigeria, lecturers could be allured to sexual harassment by the provocative dressing of many female students. There are men whose sexual organs rise when sensitive parts of women, such as breast, bottom, and armpit are exposed to them. Such men may not be able to control their sexual desire for half naked female students on campuses. Since it is impossible for such men to control their irresistible impulses to sex, sexual harassment is unavoidable.

It has equally been argued that the media contributes to the perpetuation of sexual harassment because it commodifies

women's bodies (Baker, 1997). Really, the culture of modern society rarely discusses sex as anything different from commodity. Thus, young men are bombarded by a culture that sexualizes commodities and commodifies women's sexuality. Implications of these are in twofold:

- Firstly, commodification of women's sexuality shows that sex is something that can be consumed and to which men are entitled to.
- Secondly, because sex is something that can be bought and sold, taking it by force could be regarded as stealing and not a violation. Precisely, because men can pay for sex, taking it without consent becomes less morally reprehensible than other violent crimes (Baker, 1997).

In contrary to the above viewpoints, (Tangri and Hayes, 1997; Gutek and Morasch, 1982) believe that sex-role spillover is associated with sexual harassment in work organisations. The scourge is more likely to be on the increase in organisations with skewed sex ratios, with women outnumbering men or vice-versa. In other words, if men are more than women in an organisation, there is tendency for men to harass them. Also, in organisations, where sex-role expectations are very high, it could prompt sexual harassment. In such organisations, certain behaviours are expected of workers of both genders, as men are stereotyped to be asexual and women as sexual. This is more likely to occur if women are perceived as sex objects and their sex roles take precedence over their work roles (Gutek and Morasch, 1982). Hence women's behaviour would be interpreted as sexual even though it is not actually intended to be so.

In view of the above paradigms, it could be deduced that sexual harassment of women by men anchors on societal sex roles backed up by human culture. This is because it permits men to be sexually active than women, even outside marriage. Therefore, a woman, who engages in sex with another man, is not only stigmatised and devalued Noah (2008), she is equally charged with adultery, whereas the man, she engages in sex with, is exonerated (Ogunzman and Dural, 1998). However, the stand of culture on this view point could be justified as follows:

- Women bear the burden of conception and pregnancy absolutely. These two factors make sense in the life of any married woman. A man is expected to be responsible for this pregnancy. Past studies have never confirmed that two men could be responsible for a pregnancy. Therefore, a woman who is having sexual intercourse with more than one man is considered a prostitute. The pregnancy of such a woman is an object of ridicule. Any child born out of this relationship is regarded as a bastard. Such a child is never accepted by any man. It is therefore essential to limit women's sexual activities to one man.
- Men pay dowry and bride price on women (Anugwom *et al.*, 2010). It has never been observed in the literature that women pay dowry and bride price on men in most cultures worldwide. Besides, a man can pay the bride price and dowry for more than three women, but no parent will pray to receive the bride price and dowry of their daughters

from two men. These have automatically placed a limit on women's sexual right outside the family.

Nevertheless, it could be submitted at this junction that it is not commendable that a culture should encourage marital sex outside marriage for men. Hence, men should equally be punished in any recorded case of adultery. In other words, our culture should be re-defined to incorporate this clause.

By and large, sex is very essential in life, as it ensures procreation and longevity of one's family, race and ethnic background. It thereby prevents humanity from extinction. However, it is regarded as a legitimate pleasure within marriage. Human body needs such a pleasure once in a while and that is why the scripture admonishes that each and every one should get married and be faithful to his or her spouse. It could be observed that most people who indulge in sexual harassment in work settings including academia are married (Reilley *et al.*, 1986). Therefore it is an act that is often carried out outside marriage. Probably such persons are not enjoying sex from their spouses. If a man is sexually starved by his wife, he is likely to indulge in sexual activities elsewhere. This is because; men are expected to be sexually active in African culture. A man who cannot engage in sex properly is not "a complete man". Such a man could become a challenge to his family. However, being sexually active does not mean that one should engage in sexual immorality. Any sexual relationship outside marriage, either from men or women falls short of God's glory and therefore should be punished among mankind.

3. Methods

3.1. Research Design

This study employs cross-sectional survey and ex-post descriptive designs.

3.2. Research Instruments

The following research instruments were used to conduct this study:

- Primary source. This deals with using questionnaires and in-depth interview to collect first-hand information. It was applied to female students and members of staff. The former contains three questions with three closed ended options. Students were asked to tick the best option as applicable to their situations while the latter contains three structured questions and they were directed at members of staff.
- Secondary source. This talks about obtaining information from registers, library and internet facilities. It helped in getting records of sexual harassment between 2008 and 2012.

3.3. Population and Sample Size

The student total population (15, 787) included 7, 234 University A, 5, 352 University B and 3, 201 University C while the staff population (1, 281) included 724 University A,

342 University B and 215 University C. The total population of study therefore was 17, 168. However, the student sample ($n = 1, 200$) included University A 500, University B 400 and University C 300 while the staff sample ($n=65$) included 40 University A, 15 University B and 10 University C. These samples were selected from the population via proportional sample techniques.

3.4. *Distribution of Questionnaire and Return Rate of Respondents*

From table v, five hundred (500) questionnaires were distributed in the University A but 482 (96.4%) were returned to the researchers. In the University B, 400 questionnaires were distributed, but 393 (98.6) were returned to the researcher. In the University C, 300 questionnaires were distributed but only 298 (99.3%) were given back to the researchers. Dwelling on the above, University C returned the highest number of questionnaires to the researchers. This was followed by the University B. University C had the lowest figure.

3.5. *Methods of Sample Selection*

Stratified sampling method was used to divide the population of the University A, B and C into 24, 18 and 12 Departments respectively. A simple random sampling technique was used to select 482, 393 and 298 female students, who filled the study's questionnaires. The same technique was used to select interviewees from the staff population. Structured interview, containing two questions was designed and administered by the researchers on campus between March 4 and June 15 2013.

3.6. *Method of Data Analysis*

For this investigation, the analysis of existing data technique and information collected through questionnaire and in-depth interview were employed. Although these methods are not necessarily considered to be statistically complex, but it allows for a clear examination of information compiled by a committee of different persons. Specific statistical data between 2008 and 2012 were identified for analysis. Admittedly, some flaws associated with documentation of data in the Universities investigated were discovered, but the information allows for adequate social scientific exploration of poor rate of reporting cases of sexual harassment in academia. The information obtained was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequency tables and percentages.

3.7. *Descriptive Analysis*

Data in table vi show that greater proportion, 41.5% of female students in University A experienced sexual harassment in the last five years. 33.2% of them claimed they had never experienced sexual harassment while 25.3% of them failed to indicate whether they had experienced it or not. 50.1% female students in University B had experienced sexual harassment.

About 26% of them had never experienced it while 25.3% of them were undecided on this issue. 41.6% female students in University C had experienced sexual harassment. 32.9% of them had not been sexually harassed while 25.5% of them refused to indicate whether they had been harassed or not. Deducing from the above, female students in the University A experienced sexual harassment more than their counterparts in the University B and C.

In another development, 100% interviewees in the University A acknowledged that female students had experienced cases of sexual harassment on campus. In the University B, 66.7% of interviewees claimed that female students had experienced cases of sexual harassment on campus while 33.3% of them were not sure. In the University C, 60% of interviewees' noted that female students had been sexually harassed on campus while the remaining 40% failed to indicate whether they had been harassed or not.

Examination of the result in table vii reveals that 57.4% female students in the University C failed to report their cases to the school authority. 26.8% of them reported their cases while 15.8% of them were undecided on this issue. 51.4% of them in the University B did not report their cases to the school management while 29.0% reported their cases. About 19.6% of them stood on the fence on this matter. 40.3% of the sample in the University A failed to report their cases to the school management. 35.9% of them claimed that they did not know anything about sexual harassment while 23.9% refused to report their cases. In respect of in-depth interview, 60% interviewees in the University A claimed that female students were reporting cases of sexual harassment to the management. 22.5% of them reported that they were not while 17.5% claimed ignorance of such on campus. In the University B, 60% of interviewees claimed that female students were not reporting cases of sexual harassment while just 26.7% of them believed that female students were reporting cases of sexual harassment. The remaining 13.3% said they were not aware of sexual harassment on campus. In University C, 50% believed that female students were not reporting harassment cases. 30% of them claimed that female students were reporting cases of harassment while just 20% claimed ignorance of such occurrence on campus. The view of female students sampled and opinions of interviewees in the University B and C confirmed data presented in table ix while that of University A did not concur with the same.

Table viii shows that 14 members of staff were caught for sexual harassment. 50% of them came from the University B while 28.6% and 21.4% others came from the University C and A respectively. In order words, University B recorded the highest number of victims among staff while University C recorded the least.

Table ix presents number of cases recorded in these institutions within this period. In 2008, University A and B recorded 1 and 2 cases respectively. There was no case in the University C. In 2009, University A and B recorded 1 case each. There was no case in that year in the University C. In

2010, University A and B recorded 1 case each while the University C recorded 2. In 2011, University B recorded 2 cases while University C recorded 1 case. There was no case in the University A. In 2012, University B and C recorded 1 case each and there was no case in the University A.

Table ix equally presents disciplinary measures placed on members of staff caught for sexual harassment. Out of 14 of them in all, 85.7% were sacked from work while 14.3% were suspended. In the light of the above, the highest percentage of members of staff caught for sexual harassment in the sample came from the University B while, the least of them came from University A

4. Discussion

Our goal in this article was to examine the prevalence of sexual harassment in three selected Private Faith-Based Universities in Ogun-State, South-West Nigeria. Specifically, we sought to discover if female students report cases of sexual harassment to the school management and also investigate the number of staff caught for sexual harassment as well as disciplinary measures placed on them.

We were able to establish the prevalence of sexual harassment in these institutions (see table vi-ix). Our findings therefore confirm the existing literature on the prevalence of sexual harassment in academia (see Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Omolola 2007; Noah 2008; Chukwudi and Gbakorun 2011). Moreover, our result indicates that majority of female students disinclined to report their cases to the school management, which confirms the existing literature on underreporting cases of sexual harassment (see Adamolekun 1989). Besides, a Zimbabwean study carried out by Zindi (1994) in which all female participants (3500), complained of sexual harassment but 93% failed to report corroborates our finding. Dwelling on the opinion of respondents in table vi, one would have suggested that table ix would show large data of reported cases, but fewer cases were reported. The sociological interpretation of this finding could be that most of these students are dying in silence. Probably they are afraid of the consequences of reporting their lecturers.

We also found from the investigation that 14 members of staff were caught for indulging in sexual harassment within this period. Out of this figure, 50% came from the University B while 28.6% and 21.4% came from the University C and A respectively, which concurs with (Okeke, 2011). Finally, our result shows that 85.7% of members of staff caught for sexual harassment were relieved from work while 14.3% were suspended. This corroborates Jega (2013), who concludes that stiff penalties were handed over to culprits of sexual harassment, a tendency that the management of the Universities under study takes strong actions against sexual harassment, but its failure in not taking action about numerous unreported cases is not commendable.

5. Conclusion

Dwelling on the above discuss, the present study has brought to the fore the reality of sexual immorality between members of staff and female students in the private Faith-Based Universities, South-West Nigeria but the study concludes that majority of female students disinclined to report their cases to the school management. Finally, it is concluded that 14 members of staff were caught for sexual harassment and 85.7% of them were sacked from work while 14.3% were suspended.

However, another study is suggested to discover forms of sexual harassment prevailing in the Private Faith-Based Universities, South-West Nigeria and reasons why female students disinclined to report cases of sexual harassment to the school management. Also, a study that would examine the occurrence of sexual harassment between male and female students, male and female staff is suggested. Finally, a comparative study of sexual harassment between private Faith-Based Universities and public sector Universities is suggested.

6. Recommendations

Many of the under listed recommendations are consistent with the results found in this study

- Sacking of members of staff who indulged in sexual harassment may not be a right approach to its reduction in work settings including academia. Special trainings, reviewed conduct policies, accurate procedures for reporting should be put in place.
- Private Faith-Based Universities should organize orientation course to sensitize students on their rights and obligations and steps to take whenever their rights are being jeopardized.
- Seminars should be organised to inform students what constitutes sexual harassment from time to time.
- Proper investigation should be carried out on any reported case of sexual harassment.
- Nigerian Government should formulate law to prohibit sexual harassment in work settings.

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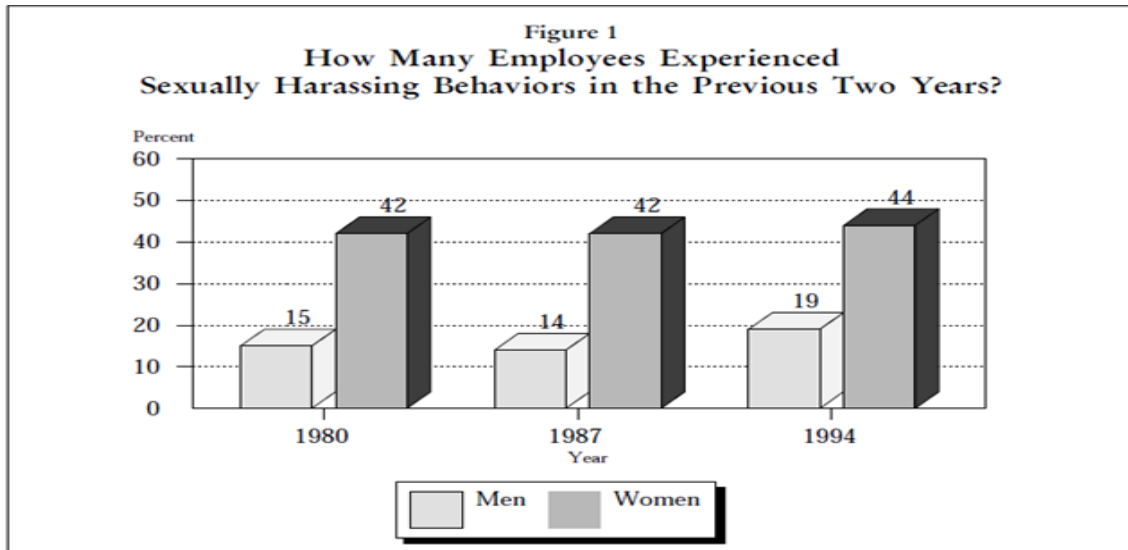
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Source: Adapted from the U.S Merit Systems Protection Board (1994)

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Table i. Forms of Sexual Harassment in America Based on the Opinions of Respondents

S/n	Offences categorised as harassment	Men	Women
1	Sexual remarks, jokes, teasing	14	37
2	Sexual looks, gesture	9	29
3	Deliberate touching, cornering	8	24
4	Pressure for sexual favours	2	7
5	Suggestive letters, calls, materials	4	10
6	Stalking	2	7
7	Pressure for sexual favour	2	7
8	Actual/attempted rape, assault	2	4

Source: Adapted from the U.S Merit Systems Protection Board (1987)

Table ii. Percentage of Respondents who Considered the Following Behaviors From their Supervisors as an Harassment

S/n	Types of Uninvited behaviours by a supervisor	Gender of Respondents/Years					
		Women			Men		
		1980	1987	1994	1980	1987	1994
1	Pressure for sexual favour	91	99	99	84	95	97
2	Deliberate torching, cornering	91	95	98	83	89	93
3	Suggestive letters, calls, materials	93	90	94	87	76	87
4	Pressure for dates	77	87	91	76	81	86
5	Suggestive looks, gestures	72	81	91	59	68	76
6	Sexual teasing, jokes, remarks	62	72	83	53	58	73

Source: Adapted from the U.S Merit Systems Protection Board (1994)

Table iii. Percentage of Respondents who Considered the Following Behaviours from their Coworkers as Harassment

S/n	Types of Uninvited behaviours by Coworkers	Gender of Respondents/Years					
		Women			Men		
		1980	1987	1994	1980	1987	1994
1	Pressure for sexual favour	81	98	98	65	90	93
2	Deliberate torching, cornering	84	92	96	69	82	89
3	Suggestive letters, calls, materials	87	84	92	76	67	81
4	Pressure for dates	65	76	85	59	66	76
5	Suggestive looks, gestures	64	76	88	47	60	70
6	Sexual teasing, jokes, remarks	54	64	77	42	47	64

Source: Adapted from the U.S Merit Systems Protection Board (1994)

Table iv. Population of Study and Sample Size

S/n	Universities	Students' Population	Sample	Staff Population	Sample
1	A	7, 234	500	724	40
2	B	5, 352	400	342	15
3	C	3, 201	300	215	10
	Total	15, 787	1, 200	1, 281	65

Source: Field survey data 2013.

Table v. Distribution of Questionnaire and Response Rate of Respondents

S/n	Universities	Distributed Questionnaires'	Returned Questionnaires'	Percentage
1	A	500	482	96.4
2	B	400	393	98.3
3	C	300	298	99.3
	Total	1, 200	1, 173	

Source: Field survey data 2013.

Table vi. Opinions of Respondents on Female Students Experiencing Sexual Harassment

S/n	Have you experienced Sexual Harassment on Campus?				Total
	Universities	Yes	No	Undecided	
1	A	200(41.5%)	160(33.2%)	122(25.3%)	482(100%)
2	B	197(50.1%)	102(26%)	94(23.9%)	393(100%)
3	C	124(41.6%)	98(32.9%)	76(25.5%)	298(100%)

Source: Field survey data 2013.

Table vii. Opinions of Respondents on Reporting Cases of Sexual Harassment

S/n	Did you report to the School Authority, When you Were sexually Harassed?				Total
	Universities	Yes	No	Undecided	
1	A	115(23.9%)	194(40.3%)	173(35.9%)	482(100%)
2	B	114(29.0%)	202(51.4%)	77(19.6%)	393(100%)
3	C	80(26.8%)	171(57.4%)	47(15.8%)	298(100%)

Source: Field survey data 2013.

Table viii. No. of Staff Caught for Sexual Harassment

S/N	Universities	No. of Staff Caught	%
1	B	7	50
2	C	4	28.6
3	A	3	21.4
	Total	14	100

Source: Field survey data 2013.

Table ix. Documented Cases of Sexual Harassment and Disciplinary Actions Taken Against Staff.

S/n	Universities	Year	Number of cases Recorded	Disciplinary Actions	
				No. of Staff Sacked	No. of Staff Suspended
1	A	2008	01(7.1%)	1	-
	B		02(14.3%)	2	-
	C		0(0%)	0	-
	Total		03(21.4%)	3(21.4%)	0
2	A	2009	01(7.1%)	0	1
	B		01(7.1%)	1	-
	C		00(0%)	0	-
	Total		02(14.3%)	1(7.1%)	01(7.1%)
3	A	2010	01(7.1%)	1	-
	B		01(7.1%)	1	-
	C		02(14.3%)	2	-
	Total		04(28.6%)	4(28.6%)	0
4	A	2011	00(0%)	0	-
	B		02(14.3%)	2	-
	C		01(7.1%)	1	-
	Total		03(21.4%)	3(21.4%)	0
5	A	2012	00(0%)	0	-
	B		01(7.1%)	0	1
	C		01(7.1%)	1	0
	Total		02(14.3%)	1(7.1%)	01(7.1%)
Total			14(100%)	12(85.7)	2(14.3%)
				14(100%)	

Source: Field survey data 2013.