

SEXUAL HARASSMENT: EXPERIENCES, PREVALENCE AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY IN SOME SELECTED HIGHER INSTITUTIONS IN LAGOS, SOUTH-WEST NIGERIA:

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ABSTRACT

The renewed attention that sexual harassment, in all its forms, has received in recent past and continues to receive may not be unconnected to the observed rise in reported and unreported incidents, and the psycho-physiological distress experienced by the victims of this social malaise in Nigeria society, most particularly in the higher institutions of learning. This paper therefore empirically examined the incidents, prevalence and psycho-physiological implications of sexual harassment in some selected Nigerian tertiary institutions in Lagos metropolis. The study was a survey, which employed ex-post-facto research design. It draws from feminist and patriarchal theory of sexual harassment. A total of 328 students' from twelve departments of the six major faculties of the sampled institutions, which comprises of 124 males and 204 females, participated in the study. It was hypothesized that female participants will report more of public/street sexual harassments compared to their male counterpart who will report more of private, territorial sexual harassment. Female victims of predatory, dominance and territorial harassers will report significant negative psycho-physiological disorders compared to their male counterparts. The study revealed that there were significant gender differences in the pattern of sexual harassment reported by the participants. Female young adults reported that their male sexual harassers are more of predatory and territorial harassers when social contact is public, while their male counterparts reported that female engaged more often in territorial and street sexual harassment in public than males. Further analysis showed that male young adults reported that their female counterparts are territorial and street harassers in private, while the female counterparts reported the male are voraciously predatory harassers if the contact environment is private. The associated Chi-square value and Contingency correlation obtained provided support for this pattern and trend of sexual harassment among young adults when social contact is either public or private. This study also revealed significant gender difference in observed variance in the health symptoms, psychological distress symptoms and depressive symptoms of the victims of sexual harassment. It explained about 9%, 14% and 50.1% of the observed variance in victim's health, psychological distress and depressive symptoms respectively. Type of sexual harassment was significant for psychological stress and depressive symptoms. Expectedly, depressive symptoms were higher among females who were sexually harassed in public as compared to their counterparts that were sexually harassed in private. However, psychological distress was high among both male and female sexually harassed victims who reported predatory, dominance, territorial and street harassment in the public compared to their counterparts that experienced sexual harassment in the private. The pattern and emerging trend of the experience, prevalence and psychopathology of sexual harassment found in this study are novel and very instructive especially against the backdrop of the widely held belief that males are the main sexual harassers and that the females as the sole victims of sexual harassment. The results were discussed in the light of extant theories and literatures of human sexual orientations.

(Keyword: Sexual harassment, health symptoms, psychological distress, depressive symptoms, Affectivity)

INTRODUCTION

Sexual harassment is usually a hush-hush topic despite its pervasiveness in the Nigerian society. This is largely due to difficulties in establishing the facts around such untoward behaviors and lack of unanimity regarding its definitions. However, it is clear that this is one of the sub-texts of the unequal power games that define our male dominated society where economic power, positions of leadership and authority, opportunities for personal advancement among others are skewed in favour of men.

Sexual harassment is unsolicited or unwelcome sexual advances, usually by men (aggressors/offenders), towards females (victims), which might include unwanted kissing, touching or folding, rude jokes, as well as demeaning comments or remarks about body parts or dressing amongst many others that connote some sort of sexual desire or any other behavior of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offense or humiliation to another. (Hill & Silva, 2005; Sandler & Shoop, 1997; Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1980; Fitzgerald, 1993; Lucero, Middleton, Finch & Valentine, 2003) While it might be argued that some of these actions could be interpreted as “compliments”; the likelihood or certainty of negative consequences for victims (job loss, ruined careers, stigmatisation etc) if they refuse to yield to such unwanted attention, underlines the harassment aspect.

It is not difficult to blame the pervasiveness of sexual harassment on the transactional nature of the Nigerian society in modern times. It is a world of nothing goes for nothing, so if a female receives solicited or unsolicited gifts or favours from a more powerful male, it is perceived as only natural for her to give something in return - usually sex or other forms of it (quid-pro-quo). Indeed, this mindset, which seems valid even among the womenfolk, is a good justification for this sort of behaviour and the failure to bring perpetrators to justice.

What makes this more difficult for victims is that this sort of activity usually takes place in the shadows, without witnesses or evidence to support any claims thereafter. The incidents are also largely underreported because victims are genuinely concerned that reporting may lead to retaliation, stigmatization, ridicule and so on. Nonetheless, sexual harassment can be found in many settings including the workplace, tertiary schools, military/police, religious organisations and even in the domestic environment.

In the light of this seeming prevalence of sexual harassment, many public and private higher institutions in Nigeria, have instituted codes of ethics, sexual harassment policy and dress codes as well as attitudes codes in order to control people's unwelcome disruptive behaviour that might precipitate sexual harassment and abuses. But it seems that the efforts are slow in yielding the expected positive results. According to the National Sexual Violence Resource Center, sexual assault is the nation's most under-reported crime. One out of five women and one out of 16 men are sexually assaulted while in college (Cullen, Fisher & Turner, 2000). More than 90 percent of victims on college campuses do not report abuses against them (Mingo & Moreno, 2015; Hill & Silva, 2005).

Researchers (DeCoster, Estes, & Mueller, 1999; Dekker & Barling, 1998; O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998; Perry, Schmidtke, & Kulik, 1998; Pryor, Giedd, & Williams, 1995; Pryor, LaVite, & Stoller, 1993; Pryor & Whalen, 1997) have argued that sexual harassment, most often than not, arises from reciprocal interaction between individuals' predisposition to harass and favorable contextual factors. Thus, individuals with a chronic predisposition to harass will usually only engage in harassing behaviour when exposed to local social situations that are viewed as condoning and permissive of it. Sexual orientation harassment is as prevalent as other forms of harassment (Button, 2001; Moradi, 2006; Ragins, 2004). The experience of sexual orientation harassment has a negative impact on individual's job, health, and psychological outcomes (Button, Ragins & Cornwell, 2000). Those who are sexually harassed report a wide range of negative outcomes. There is extensive evidence of lower job satisfaction, worse psychological and physical health, higher absenteeism, less commitment to the organizations, and a higher likelihood of quitting one's job (Willness, Steel & Lee 2007; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, and Magley, 1997; European Commission 1998; and US Merit Systems Protection Board, 1995) Therefore, this paper seeks to examine psycho-physiological outcomes of sexual harassment on individual and group behaviour in the higher institutions of learning in Nigeria.

Sexual Harassment: Psycho-Physiological Reactions and Victim Coping Strategies

Sexual harassment is an immoral act that has serious implications not only on the harassers, but also on perpetrators, because it undermines physical and psychological state of mind (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1988; Taiwo *et al.*, 2014). Such a person may be subjected to serious forms of emotional trauma such as stress, fatigue and depression etc. Unfortunately, more often than not, allegations of sexual harassment are neglected or treated with levity; leaving the state of mind of the victims perpetually wounded. In term of student-student or teacher-student victims, harassers may experience poor academic performance and become generally unsatisfied with their studies (Imonikhe *et al.*, 2012; Omonijo, 2013; Taiwo *et al.*, 2014). Such students may equally display emotional distress, which manifests in symptoms ranging from anxiety to depression, irritability, impulsivity, anger and acute insomnia. It may also have adverse effects on their peer and family relations at home and at school (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1997; Ragins and Scandura, 1995). Studies have variously linked direct or indirect exposure to sexual harassment with negative psychological outcomes (see: Jacobson, Koehler & Jones-Brown, 1987; Shakoor & Chalmers, 1991), in which others directly witness or experience the victimization of another.

Coping with experience of sexual harassment is a matter serious concern to victims' emotional stability, particularly when the victims are students or workers. As a result, researchers have adopted multidimensional frameworks to study sexually harassed victims coping strategies (Gutek & Koss, 1993; Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg & Dubois, 1997). The Knapp *et al.*, (1997) framework introduced a two-by-two typology of sexual harassment, based on what they termed *focus* and *mode* (see Pina & Gannon, 2009). Focus refers to whether coping is focused on the self or the perpetrator, and mode refers to whether the victim is supported or unsupported with regards to external assistance (Knapp *et al.*, 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Similar to the types of responses identified by Bingham and Scherer (1993), Knapp *et al.* (1997) also recognized four response strategies for coping with sexual harassment; *advocacy seeking* (formal complaint, grievances), *social support*, *avoidance/denial*, and *confrontation/negotiation* with perpetrator (Knapp *et al.*, 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). According to Knapp *et al.* (1997) advocacy seeking and social coping are supported in terms of mode of response whereas the remaining two are unsupported. In terms of focus, avoidance/denial and social coping are self focused whereas the remaining two are perpetrator focused. Wasti and Cortina (2002) examined women's responses to sexual harassment cross-culturally and found some support for each of Knapp *et al.*'s (1997)

four response strategies for coping with sexual harassment (see also Malamut & Offerman, 2001). Wasti and Cortina did, however, recognize that their methodology (which was cross-sectional and survey-based) was unable to fully capture the range of interacting factors involved in the development and facilitation of coping responses to sexual harassment (see: Pina & Gannon, 2009).

Cortina and Wasti (2005) therefore, proposed that an individual's coping response to sexual harassment would likely stem from four main groups or *levels* of explanatory factors: (1) the individual, (2) the micro-context (i.e., the harassing situation), (3) the meso-context (i.e., the organizational context), and (4) the macro-context (i.e., the cultural context). Cortina and Wasti conducted four surveys—cross culturally—to examine women's experiences of sexual harassment, and coping responses to sexual harassment (measured using the *Coping with Sexual Harassment Questionnaire*, Fitzgerald, 1990). Using k-means cluster analysis techniques, Cortina and Wasti examined the best fitting cluster solutions for describing both professional and non professional women's coping configurations. The results showed that both professional and non professional women were best grouped according to three main clusters: (1) *avoidant-negotiators*, who coped by avoiding contact with the stressor or thoughts about the stressor, yet made attempts to negotiate with that stressor (i.e., the perpetrator); (2) *support-seekers*, who employed tactics similar to the avoidant negotiators, but also sought social or work-place supports; and (3) *detached* women, who detached themselves not only from the harassment, but also from any implementation of coping responses (i.e., they did not appear to utilize any coping responses).

Typology and Profile of Sexual Harassers

One of the difficulties in understanding sexual harassment is that it involves a range of behaviours. In most cases (although not in all cases) is difficult for the victim to describe what they experienced. This can be related to difficulty classifying the situation or could be related to stress and humiliation experienced by the recipient. Moreover, behaviour and motives vary between individual cases. Pryor and Whalen (1997) constructed a typology of sexual harassment based on the general psychological functions that sexual harassment can serve. It was proposed that there are two psychological functions served by sexual harassment behaviours: The expression of sexual feelings, and the expression of hostility. Within these two categories, there are further subcategories: First, sexually motivated harassment may involve sexual exploitation and the expression of male over female power and secondly, the expression of hostility over the female. Pryor (1997) suggested subtypes of sexual harassment to include: (1) sexual exploitation, (2) sexual attraction/miscommunication, (3) misogyny, and (4) hostile attitudes toward homosexuals. These factors according to Pryor and Whalen produce a proclivity to sexually harass.

Gruber and his colleagues (Gruber, 1992; Gruber, Smith & Kauppinen-Toropainen, 1996; Pina & Gannon, 2009) developed the *Inventory of Sexual Harassment* (ISH) in order to categorize sexually harassing behaviours. The ISH distinguishes between three clusters of behaviours: *verbal comments* (e.g., comments on looks or clothing), *verbal requests* (e.g., repeated requests for dates etc.) and *non-verbal displays* (e.g., staring, whistling), all of which range in severity (Gruber, 1992; Gruber et al., 1996). Timmerman and Bajema (1998) also categorized sexually harassing behaviours into the following main types; *verbal* (i.e., remarks about physical appearance, sexual jokes, verbal sexual advances), *non verbal* (i.e., staring and whistling), *physical* (i.e., behaviours ranging from unsolicited physical contact to *assault/rape*) and *quid-pro-quo* (i.e., threats of reprisals if sexual advancement is refused, or promises of advantages if sexual advancement is accepted).

Nevertheless, Dzeich, Billie, and Weiner (1990) have divided harassers into two broad classes (1) Public harassers: who are generally flagrant in their seductive or sexist attitudes towards colleagues, subordinates, students, etc. (2) Private harassers: who carefully cultivate a restrained and respectable image on the surface, but when alone with their target, their demeanor changes. Langelan (1993) also describes three different classes of harassers (1) Predatory harasser: who gets sexual thrills from humiliating others. This harasser may become involved in sexual extortion, and may frequently harass just to see how targets respond. Those who don't resist may even become targets for rape. (2) Dominance harasser: which is the most common type, described those who engages in harassing behaviour as an ego boost. (3) Strategic or territorial harassers: who seek to maintain privilege in academics or physical locations. (4) Street harasser: Another type of sexual harassment performed in public places by strangers. Street harassment includes verbal and nonverbal behavior, remarks that are frequently sexual in nature and comment on physical appearance or a person's presence in public (Bowman & Grant, 1993).

This present study inter-alia built on the above framework suggested by Dzeich, Billie, and Weiner (1990) and Langelan (1993) by empirical examining the medium of presentation of sexual harassment, behaviour that constitute sexual harassments as perceived by victims, as well as dispositional characteristics of different classes of sexual harassers be it male or female.

Statement of the problem

Nigeria tertiary institutions have gained notoriety as bastions of untoward sexual activities. Sexual harassment in the institutions is so pervasive that no tertiary institution seems to be exempted; from universities, to polytechnics to colleges of education including the religious institutions, even though these issues are being addressed slowly. Sexually abused/harassed persons do not remain the same after each episode; the individuals may suffer a number of psychological effects ranging from irritation and frustration to anxiety, stress, and trauma (Taiwo, Omole & Omole, 2014; Gutek, 1985; MacKinnon, 1979; Pryor, 1987; Stockdale, 1996). Schneider, Swan and Fitzgerald (1997) found that sexually harassed women had lower life satisfaction, poorer mental health, and more symptoms of Post-traumatic Stress Disorders (PTSD) than other women who are free from sexual harassment. Depending on the situation, a victim may experience extreme psychological damage, loss of social control mechanisms, stress and humiliation. Some of the psychological and health effects that can also occur in someone who has been sexually harassed are: depression, anxiety and/or panic attacks, sleeplessness and/or nightmares, shame and guilt, difficulty concentrating, headaches, fatigue, feeling betrayed and/or violated, and angry or violent towards the perpetrator (see: Taiwo, Omole & Omole, 2014; Gutek, 1985; MacKinnon, 1979; Pryor, 1987; Stockdale, 1996; Schneider, Swan and Fitzgerald, 1997). There have been studies that have identified particular characteristics of sexual harassment victims (particularly students) in terms of risk factors and vulnerability issues (Cleveland, 1994; Coles, 1986; Fitzgerald et al., 1994; LaFontaine & Tredeau, 1986; Mueller et al., 2001; O'Connell & Korabik, 2000). However, to date, there have been a few systematic studies of these characteristics, especially in terms of psycho-physiological consequences of sexual harassment.

There has always been the erroneous belief that females are the only victims of harassment, although men are overwhelmingly responsible for sexual harassment against women (Illies et al., 2003) but research also suggests that males are also victims of sexual harassment, including harassment by men towards other men and by women towards men or other women (Berdahl et al., 1996; Dubois et al., 1998; Magley et al., 1999; Waldo et al., 1998) However, these forms of sexual harassment have also received relatively little attention (Aggarwal and Gupta, 2000; Illies et al., 2003)

There has also been less theoretical and empirical attention paid to potential differential effects of sexual harassment from different perpetrators (Raver & Gelfand, 2005; Willness et al., 2007). Little is known about the characteristics and motivation of harassers and therefore little is known about how to prevent harassment. These omissions and paucity of literature in this area are the gaps in knowledge, which this study aims to fill. This paper therefore empirically examined the incidents, prevalence and psycho-physiological implications of sexual harassment in some selected Nigerian tertiary institutions in Lagos metropolis.

Objectives of the Study

- 1) To empirically ascertain the nature and pattern of sexual harassment experienced by adolescents and young adults in schools
- 2) To estimate the incidence and prevalence of experienced sexual harassments among adolescents and young adults in schools
- 3) To examine the relationship between experienced sexual harassment and psycho-physiological disorders among adolescents and young adults in schools.
- 4) To investigate influence of media of sexual harassment on psycho-physiological functioning of sexually harassed victims.
- 5) To ascertain the veracity of the prevailing belief that female victims of sexual harassment will report significant negative psycho-physiological disorders.

Research Hypotheses

- 1) Female participants will report more of Public/Street harassment compared to their male counterpart who will report more of private/domineering/territorial harassment.
- 2) Sexually harassed female will report more incidents of Sexual Coercion/Threats, Subjective Objectification and Touching/Intrusion into Private Life, while their male counterpart will report more Offensive Display of Sexual Advances, Subjective Objectification/Touching and Invasion of Personal Space.
- 3) Sexually harassed male will report more incidents of Offensive Display of Sexual Advances, Subjective Objectification and Touching and Invasion of Personal Space compared to their female counterpart
- 4) There will be a significant positive relationship between sexual harassment and psycho-physiological disorders among adolescents and young adults in schools.
- 5) Female victims of predatory, dominance and territorial harassers will report significant negative psycho-physiological disorders compared to their male counterparts

Sexual Harassment: Theoretical Framework.

The study seeks to integrate three existing models from the literature (the social psychological model and the socio-cultural model and Patriarchal capitalism model). From the psychological models, and "power distance" model the influence "attitudes towards women" on the presence of harassment was examined;

The social psychological model: This model suggests that sexually harassing behaviour may be predicted from an analysis of social situational and person factors (Pryor, Giedd, & Williams, 2010). It is generally believed that sexual harassment is a behaviour that some people do some of the time, particularly when social norms in specific organizational settings “permit” sexual harassment. Moreover, certain individuals may possess proclivities for sexual harassment (Pryor, Giedd, & Williams, 2010). When individuals with a proclivity for sexual harassment are placed in social situations that permit or accept this sort of behaviour, the behaviour is most likely to occur. From a review of research relating social norms in organizational settings and sexual harassment incidence, women are found more likely to experience sexual harassment in social situations where men perceive the social norms as permitting such behaviour especially in places such schools and workplaces when young adults and adults are co-habiting.

The social-cultural model: The social-cultural model of sexual harassment postulates that sexual harassment of women by men is a result of women’s inferior status and gender role expectations in the society (Brownmiller, 1975; Bohner, Weisbrod, Raymond, Barzui, & Schwarz, 1993, MacKinnon, 1979). Until recent years, the explanations for the occurrence of sexual harassment have focused on socio-cultural explanations. Feminist theories posit that sexual coercion and harassment stems from men’s general desire to maintain their power advantage over women within society (Bohner, Weisbrod, Raymond, Barzui, & Schwarz, 1993, MacKinnon, 1979). More recently, however, researchers have begun to recognize that individual differences play a powerful role in facilitating sexual harassment (see Pina et al., 2009). A recent theory concerning ambivalence toward women suggests that sexist ideologies are on a continuum from paternalistic views toward women (benevolent sexism) to violence against women (hostile sexism). These two forms of sexism are complementary and widespread across cultures, reflecting and maintaining the oppression of women (Glick et al., 2000; Bohner, Weisbrod, Raymond, Barzui, & Schwarz, 1993). That is, many women may be able to be successful in certain careers, like teaching and nursing, but may be barred from pursuing male dominated occupations and roles. In most cultures, women’s careers have typically been extensions of the female gender role (see: (Glick et al., 2000; Bohner, Weisbrod, Raymond, Barzui, & Schwarz, 1993; Martin, 1995)

Patriarchal Capitalism Model: The gendered structure of the society and subordination to male across interpersonal interaction make it difficult and costly for female to reject sexual advances of men in positions of seniority or authority (see: Mitchell, 1971; MacKinnon, 1979; Tangri & Hayes, 1997; Martin, 1995). According to many feminist theorists also, sexual harassment is a form of discrimination against women as a result of patriarchal systems that treat women as sex objects (MacKinnon, 1979; Tangri & Hayes, 1997). Thus, some men use their power to gain sex. But more often than not, patriarchal capitalism theory views women position in the labour market as a product of both the economic relations of capitalism and patriarchal gender relations. This theory posited that in a society where male dominant power is based on their control of female labour in the family and the labour market, then female sexual exploitation become inevitable because they are generally perceived as sex objects. This theory then regards sexual harassment of female workers by their male counterpart as a reflection of the male-dominated society and economic system (Fayankinnu, 2012; Mitchell, 1971). Patriarchy is that ideological mode which defines the system of male domination and female subjugation in any society (Mitchell, 1971). In other words, patriarchy is explained in terms of sexist supremacy ideology because it perceives men as leaders and superior to women and this can be observed in the way males behave (McFadden, 2001). By implication, so long as a society is organized along the patriarchal system the emerging trends in our higher institutions as far as sexual harassment is concern would

continue to condone and promote acts and practices that are discriminatory towards the female gender. Not surprisingly, the power or status of the harasser over the recipient affects perceptions of sexual harassment (Blumenthal, 1998). The harassers may disguise their behaviour as courtship, altruistic or perhaps romance (e.g., as in trying to be more private and intimate with the target). The literature on sexual harassment has only recently begun to explore the link between romance and sexual harassment (see: Pierce & Aguinis, 1997; Pryor, et al 1997; DeSouza, Pryor, & Hutz, 1998; DeSouza, Pryor, Ribeiro, Mello & Cammino, 2004).

Literature: Empirical review

Sexual harassment in the higher institutions is gradually assuming an extremely threatening dimension, yet we know little about experiences, incidence and its psychopathology on the victims in Nigeria. A small but growing body of research on sexual harassment suggests that it is quite prevalent among university students in Nigeria. (Adamolekun, 1989., 1992; Nnorom, 2004; Akinbulumo, 2003; Omonijo, Uche & Rotimi, 2013; Fayankinnu, 2004; Okoro and Osawemen, 2005; Omolola, 2007; Noah, 2008; Okeke, 2011; Chukwudi & Gbakorun, 2011; Abe, 2012; Imonikhe *et al.*, 2012). Research revealed that women are more likely to view potentially harassing behaviour as inappropriate as men (see Fitzgerald and Ormerod, 1991; Fitzgerald and Shullman, 1993; Gutek, & Morasch 1982). Research examining the nature of these harassment experiences suggests that the most prevalent form of sexual orientation harassment appears to involve *verbal abuses* and *interpersonal threats* (Croteau, 1996; Herek, 1989). Actual or attempted rape or assault (Omonijo, Uche, Nwadiafor & Rotimi, 2013). Unwanted deliberate touching or cornering (Johnson, 2010). Unwanted sexual looks or gestures (Kamal, Asnarulkhadi & Jamila, 2011). Unwanted letters, telephones call (Imonikhe, Aluede & Idogho, 2012). Unwanted gift materials of sexual nature (Johnson, 2010; Fayankinnu, 2012).

Johnson (2010) examines how sexual harassment impacts on student nurses. The purpose of the paper is to find out the prevalence of unwarranted sexual behaviours against student nurses in Nigeria. Forty one students participated in the survey in which they were asked questions to indicate their feelings, to identify harassers and way in which they cope with sexual harassment behaviours. The findings showed that primary initiators of sexual harassment were physicians and older lecturers. The most common feeling among students who were harassed was anger. Fifty-one percent indicated that the most commonly coping method was to complain to family members, followed by leaving the scene. The paper concludes by noting that nursing students in Nigeria were frequently exposed to various sexual harassments. Kamal, Asnarulkhadi and Jamila (2011) investigated the incidences of sexual harassment, the effects on victims and coping strategies for victims. The major finding of the study shows that men, regardless of their position and status, view sexual harassment as a sexual act, rather than a crime that affects the victims in many ways. Therefore, men are generally ignorant of the fact that their behaviour are subject to legal action. The paper concludes that there is a dire need to change our understanding of this issue. In order to obtain a more holistic view of this issue, there should be a paradigm shift where the focus should be on the perpetrators. As men are generally the perpetrators, it is hoped that an insight into background, thoughts, feelings, perceptions and attitude of the perpetrators would help understand why this phenomenon does exist

Fayankinnu (2012) in a similar study among student of higher institutions examines perception of acts considered as sexual harassment, experiences of sexual harassment from female students and consequences on males' economic, social and psychological well-being. Both qualitative and quantitative data were used in this study. Results revealed that sexual harassment could reduce

job satisfaction and job commitment, lead to low social well-being, and destroy self identity. Imonikhe, Aluede and Idogho (2012) in a similar study examined how teachers and students of tertiary institutions in Edo State of Nigeria perceived sexual harassment. The participants for the study consisted of two hundred lecturers and two hundred students of tertiary institutions in Edo state. The results indicated that majority of the respondents agreed that sexual harassment is prevalent in schools and that sexual harassment impacts negatively on the academic performance of victims. Based on the findings, it was recommended among others that tertiary institutions should provide the framework where teachers and students can dialogue on issues bothering on students' and lecturers' relationships

Omonijo, Uche, Nwadiafor & Rotimi (2013) reported the findings of a study of sexual harassment in three selected private faith-based universities, Ogun-state, south-west Nigeria drawing on the 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. Available record revealed that between 2008 and 2012 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. Taiwo, Omole and Omole (2014) in a similar study investigated the occurrence of sexual harassment and its psychological implication among students in five higher education Institutions in South West, Nigeria. A total number of 2500 students selected through systematic sampling participated in across-sectional survey. Findings revealed that significant trend of sexual harassment occur from a male lecturer to a female student. Poverty and negative peer influence are also key drivers of sexual harassment in higher educational institutions. Fear and trauma were rated highest as the psychological consequences of sexual harassment on the victims. This phenomenon has grave implication both for the individuals, higher education institutions and the labour market in Nigeria. Hence, the need to develop sustainable systems and structures for redress through development of anti-sexual harassment policies, well-equipped security unit, establishment of telephone hotlines and well trained school counselors to effectively handle cases of sexual harassment and secure justice for the victims.

In terms of affect, Stockdale et al. (1995) hypothesized that some reports of unwanted sexual behaviour may be more or less upsetting to the victim than they would appear to an observer or third party. For example, Fitzgerald and Hesson-McInnis (1989) showed that observers found the more physically intrusive forms of sexual harassment to be more serious than gender harassment or sexual seduction. However, the evaluations and experiences of actual victims did not necessarily coincide with the observers' evaluations. Thus, severity of experience may not necessarily be linearly related to acknowledgment of the event as sexual harassment (Stockdale & Vaux, 1993). Upon testing the affect model, Stockdale et al. (1995) found that individuals who experienced negative affect were those most likely to acknowledge sexual harassment. Thus, it seems that the negative affect experienced as a result of the harassing experience (e.g., anger, fear, confusion, hostility) could be more important than the actual type of unwanted sexual behaviour experienced (Stockdale et al., 1995).

Moreover, studies have shown that sexual harassment is significantly linked to the negative effects and symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder in a large proportion of the victims (see: Avina & O'Donohue, 2002; Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Koss, 1990; Willness et al., 2007). Avina and O'Donohue criticized *DSM-IV's* lack of operational conditions for meeting

diagnostic criteria, therefore claiming that this results in heavily relying on clinical judgment for what constitutes trauma (Avina & O'Donohue, 2002; Pina & Gannon, 2009). Although some severe forms of sexual harassment involve actual bodily threat and injury, which meets some of the criteria of PTSD according to *DSM-IV*, according to Avina & O'Donohue (2002; Pina & Gannon, 2009), more subtle forms of sexual harassment that may indeed accumulate to perceptions of physical threat, or feelings of helplessness currently do not meet criteria for PTSD, but need to be further explored to understand their full impact (Pina & Gannon, 2009). Willness et al. (2007) indeed verified in their meta analysis that experiencing sexual harassment (usually the most severe quid pro quo types) is positively correlated with symptoms of PTSD (see: Pina & Gannon, 2009). As experiences of sexual harassment are largely subjective, and the severity of the negative outcomes may vary greatly depending on type of harassment and victim personality characteristics, wider criteria may need to be applied to encompass what constitutes trauma (Avina & O'Donohue, 2002).

METHOD

Design

The study research design is typically *Ex-Post-Facto*. The participants were pre-selected simply by their registration for a front-line major compulsory courses in their various departments and faculties (ii) these students are young adults who are demographically and characteristically similar in all respect (iii) and as far as the variables under investigation is concerned they are assumed to have been manipulated *Ex-Post-Facto*, hence, measures were simply obtained from the participants.

Participants

Six hundred and forty eight (648) students' from twelve major departments of the University of Lagos Akoka campus, Lagos State University, Ojo Lagos, Yaba College of Technology, Yaba and Federal College of Education Technical, Akoka Lagos Nigeria participated in this study. Two hundred and seventy (270) of the participants in the study were males (mean age=23.3, *SD*=1.87; 41.6%), while three hundred and seventy eight (378) were females (mean age=21.6, *SD* = 0.45; 58.4%). The participants were randomly selected from different levels who have registered for general studies courses using accidental sampling techniques.

Instruments

1. *Sexual Harassment*: Sexual harassment was measured by is a 23-item self-reported Sexual harassment scale (SHS-23) designed by G.A. Akinbode (2012) to assess the level and feeling of sexual harassment. The scale is divided into five subscales measuring different aspects sexual harassment: (i) Intrusion into Private Life (IPL) 5-items, (ii) Offensive Display of Sexual Advances (ODSA) 4-items, (iii) Sexual Coercion and Threats (SCT) 6-items, (iv) Subjective Objectification and Touching (SOT) 5-items and (v) Invasion of Personal Space (IPS). Response structure follow 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Never to 7 = Extremely frequent. Akinbode (2012) reported internal consistency reliability of 0.87, 0.89, 0.83, 0.79 and 0.90 respectively and Criterion-related validity of 0.29. All items are scored directly. The lower the total score (i.e. 23 as lowest possible score), the lower is the individual's experience of sexual harassment. On the other hand, the higher the score (i.e. 161 as the highest score), the greater the individual's level sexual harassment experienced. A score of 92 places the individual at the mid-point between being harassed and not harassed.
2. *Sexual Harassment Typology*: Sexual Harasment Typology was measure by Typology of Sexual Harasment Scale (TSH_Scale) designed by G.A. Akinbode (2012) to assess different

types of sexual harassment as reported by victims of sexual harassment. The scale is divided into four subscales measuring different aspects sexual harassment: (i) Predatory (ii) dominance (iii) Territorial and (iv) Street harassment. Akinbode (2012) reported internal consistency reliability of 0.67, 0.69, 0.89 and 0.71, respectively and Criterion-related validity of 0.59. All items are scored directly. The lower the total score (i.e. 23 as lowest possible score), the lower is the individual's experience of sexual harassment. On the other hand, the higher the score (i.e. as in 161 is the highest score), then, the greater the individual's level sexual harassment experienced. A score of 92 places the individual at the mid-point between being harassed and not harassed.

3. *Health Symptoms Distress* : Health symptoms distress was measured by Health Symptoms Distress Checklist (HSD-Checklist) developed by Akinbode (2013) for the purpose of eliciting appropriate experienced health symptoms distress among young people. The scale is a 26-items checklist measuring different aspects health issues and problems on a 3-point response structure defined as (i.e. Not Bothered at all, Bothered a little and Bothered a lot). Akinbode (2013) obtained Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.68. Scores are interpreted from the number of items checked (i.e. 0-7 items implies low health risks, 8-14 items indicate moderate health risk, 15-26 items indicate high health risk).
4. *Depression*: Depressive symptoms were measured by Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI-21 Scale). Scores for each of the 21-items questions are added to obtain a total score. The lowest possible score for each question is zero and the highest possible total score is 63. Depression is interpreted in terms of total score obtained for the 21-items (i.e. 1-10: normal; 11-16: Mild mood disturbance; 17-20: Borderline clinical depression; 21-30: Moderate depression; 31-40: Severe depression and over 40: Extreme Depression). Akinbode (2013) obtained Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.55.
5. *Psychological Distress*: Psychological distress was measured by Symptom Distress Checklist (SDC Scale) developed by Edmund J. Bourne (2012) to evaluate people's health distress symptoms. The scale is divided into two subscales measuring different aspects distress (i.e. psychological distress and physiological distress). Akinbode (2013) obtained Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.78. scores are interpreted from the number of items checked (i.e. 0-7 items implies low stress level, 8-14 items indicate moderate stress level, 15-21 items indicate high stress level and 22 and above indicate a very high stress level).
6. *Affectivity*: Positive and negative affect was measured by Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) designed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) to measure positive affectivity and negative affectivity. PANAS comprises of two subscales, a 10-item Positive Affectivity (PA) and a 10-item Negative affectivity (NA). Morris (1995) reported internal consistency reliability of PA = 0.86 and NA = 0.91, and Schaubroeck & Jones (2000) reported PA = 0.85 and NA = 0.83 internal consistency, respectively. For Positive Affects, the higher the score the greater the tendency to experience a positive mood. For Negative Affects, the higher the score, the greater tendency to experience a negative mood.

RESULTS

In order to answer the various research questions and test hypotheses computations of means, standard deviations as well as correlational and multiple linear regression analysis was implemented. Results of the computations are presented in the Tables 1 to Tables 6.

Table 1: Profile of Sexual Harassers by Gender Orientations and Behavioural Implications

Behavioural Manifestation	Media of Harasment	Type of Harassers	Male			Female		
			Mean	Std. Dev	N	Mean	Std. Dev	N
Health Symptoms	Public	Predatory	7.15	4.87	95	7.56	2.57	41
		Dominance	7.12	4.74	34	7.37	4.57	49
		Territorial	7.17	4.96	42	8.46	5.96	94
		Street	8.00	4.98	22	12.38	7.87	63
	Private	Predatory	8.31	6.17	29	7.87	3.83	23
		Dominance	6.33	4.03	18	7.93	5.61	15
Territorial		7.50	4.89	22	11.70	7.70	46	
Psychological Distress	Public	Predatory	71.42	3.97	95	77.88	3.26	41
		Dominance	71.79	3.68	34	71.76	3.15	49
		Territorial	71.43	4.13	42	67.32	1.58	94
		Street	72.73	4.50	22	54.37	2.92	63
	Private	Predatory	67.76	8.13	29	75.35	0.62	23
		Dominance	73.00	1.16	18	69.13	16.47	15
Territorial		72.09	4.19	22	57.09	2.85	46	
Positive Affects	Public	Predatory	68.88	16.12	8	62.27	20.32	45
		Predatory	37.53	7.01	95	37.59	6.08	41
		Dominance	37.62	6.52	34	36.94	6.22	49
		Territorial	35.12	7.75	42	38.33	6.90	94
	Private	Street	36.55	6.27	22	36.84	5.54	63
		Predatory	33.97	7.82	29	36.43	7.19	23
Dominance		35.61	7.05	18	39.87	5.33	15	
Negative Affects	Public	Territorial	37.41	8.05	22	36.24	6.71	46
		Street	33.00	7.69	8	36.93	8.76	45
		Predatory	7.22	1.51	95	7.40	1.59	41
		Dominance	7.31	1.76	34	7.53	1.82	49
	Private	Territorial	7.00	1.82	42	7.37	1.84	94
		Street	6.77	1.31	22	7.38	1.79	63
Predatory		7.21	2.00	29	7.11	2.52	23	
Private	Dominance	7.22	1.83	18	7.12	1.73	15	
	Territorial	6.45	1.79	22	5.63	1.53	46	
	Street	6.25	1.28	8	6.60	1.67	45	

Table 1 show the means, standard deviation and population of male and female participants on measures of sexual harassment (types and medium of harassment) and their social-psychological outcomes (health symptoms, psychological distress and negative affects). The table indicates a

mean difference in health symptoms of participants as a function of the medium of harassment and also the type of the harasser. When the medium of harassment is public, the mean score on the health symptom of male and female participants/victims is highest when the harasser is a street harasser (Mean = 8.00) (Mean = 12.38), territorial harasser (Mean = 7.17) (Mean = 8.46), predatory harasser (Mean = 7.15) (Mean = 7.56) and dominance harasser (Mean = 7.12) (Mean = 7.37) respectively. But the mean score of females' health symptoms is higher than the males in each of the four types of harassers.

When the medium of harassment is private, the mean score on the health symptom of male participants/victims is highest when the harasser is predatory harasser (Mean = 8.31), territorial harasser (Mean = 7.50), street harasser (Mean = 6.63) and dominance (Mean = 6.33) harasser respectively. But for female, the mean score on the health symptom is highest when the harasser is territorial (Mean = 11.70), street (Mean = 9.62), dominance (Mean = 7.93) and predatory (Mean = 7.87) respectively. The table also indicates a mean difference in psychological distress symptoms of participants as a function of the medium of harassment and also the type of the harasser. When the medium of harassment is public, the mean score on the psychological distress of male participants/victims is slightly high when the harasser is a street harasser (Mean = 72.73) compared to other types dominance (Mean = 71.79), territorial harasser (Mean = 71.43) and predatory harasser (Mean = 71.42) of harassers. But for female, the mean score on psychological distress is highest when the harasser is predatory (77.88), dominance (71.76), territorial (67.32) and street (54.37) respectively.

When the medium of harassment is private, the mean score on the psychological distress of male participants/victims is highest when the harasser is a dominance harasser (Mean = 73.00), territorial harasser (Mean = 72.09), street harasser (Mean = 68.88) and predatory harasser (Mean = 67.76) respectively. But for female participants, the mean score is highest when the harasser is a predatory harasser (Mean = 75.35), dominance harasser (Mean = 69.13), street harasser (Mean = 62.27) and territorial harasser (Mean = 57.09) respectively. Table 1 also shows a mean difference in negative affect as a function of the medium of harassment and also the type of harassers. When the medium of harassment is public, the mean score on negative affects of male participants/victims is highest when the harasser is dominance (Mean = 37.62), predatory harasser (Mean = 37.53), street harasser (Mean = 36.55) and territorial harasser (Mean = 35.12) harasser respectively. But for female, the mean score on negative affects is highest when the harasser is territorial (Mean = 38.33), predatory (Mean = 37.59), dominance (Mean = 36.94) and street (Mean = 36.84) respectively.

When the medium of harassment is private, the mean score on the negative affects of male participants/victims is highest when the harasser is a territorial harasser (Mean = 37.41), dominance harasser (Mean = 35.61), predatory harasser (Mean = 33.97) and street harasser (Mean = 33.00) respectively. But for female participants, the mean score is highest when the harasser is a dominance harasser (Mean = 39.87), street harasser (Mean = 36.93), predatory harasser (Mean = 36.43), and territorial harasser (Mean = 36.24) respectively.

Hypothesis 1: Female participants will report more of public/street male harassers compared to their male counterpart who will report more of private/domineering/territorial female harassers

Table 2: 2x2x4 Chi-Square Contingency Summary Table of Who is Harassing Who

Media of Harassers	Gender Of Harrasers		Types of Sexual Harassers				X ² & Contingency Correlation Coefficient
			Predatory	Dominance	Territorial	Street	
Public	Male	Observed	95	34	42	22	X ² = 58.05 C _r = 0.343
		Expected	59.7	36.4	59.7	37.3	
	% within type	69.9%	41.0%	30.9%	25.9%		
	Female	Observed	41	49	94	63	
Expected		76.3	46.6	76.3	47.7		
		% within type	30.1%	59.0%	69.1%	74.1%	
Private	Male	Observed	29	18	22	8	X ² = 23.64 C _r = 0.331
		Expected	19.4	12.3	25.4	19.8	
	% within type	55.8%	54.5%	32.4%	15.1%		
	Female	Observed	23	15	46	45	
Expected		32.6	20.7	42.6	33.2		
		% within type	44.2%	45.5%	67.6%	84.9%	

The result in table two shows that there were significant gender differences in the pattern of sexual harassment reported by the participants ($X^2 = 58.05, p < 0.5$ and Contingency Correlation = 0.343). Female young adults reported that their male harassers are more of predatory (95; 69.9%) and territorial (42; 30.9%) when social contact is public, while the male participants reported that females engaged more often in territorial (94; 69.1%), dominance (49; 59.0%) and street (63; 74.1%) sexual harassment in public than males. This pattern and emerging trends is very instructive especially against the age-long perception that male are the dominant sexual harasser. Also, further analysis shows that male young adults reported that their females are territorial and street harassers in private, while the females reported the males are predatory harassers if the contact environment is private. The associated chi-square value ($X^2 = 58.05, p < 0.5$ and Contingency Correlation = 0.343) provided significant support for this pattern and trend of sexual harassment among young adults when social contact is private.

Hypothesis 2: Sexually harassed female will report more incidences of Sexual Coercion/Threats, Subjective Objectification/Touching and Intrusion into Private Life while the males reports more of Offensive Display of Sexual Advances, Subjective Objectification/Touching and Invasion of Personal Space.

Table 3a: Mean and Standard Deviations of Participants Scores on the Observed Dimensions of Sexual Harassment by Gender

DIMENSIONS OF SEXUAL HARRASMENT	Gender			
	Male (n = 270)		Female (n = 378)	
	M	SD	M	SD
1. Intrusion into Private Life	7.77	1.67	7.50	1.81
2. Offensive Display of Sexual Advances	5.90	2.30	6.74	2.44
3. Sexual Coercion and Threats	7.73	0.24	7.86	4.12
4. Subjective Objectification and Touching	6.30	1.85	6.79	2.20
5. Invasion of Personal Space	4.57	1.80	4.69	2.11

Intrusion into private life of the sexually harassed victims was higher for male sexual harassers compared to their female counterparts (Male: mean = 7.77; 1.67) and (Female: mean = 7.50; SD = 1.81). Meanwhile, offensive display of sexual advances was more pronounced in the female sexual harassers compare to male sexual harassers (Male: mean = 5.90; SD = 2.30) and (Female: mean = 6.74; SD = 2.44). Surprisingly, both male and females sampled reported subjective

objectification/touching, sexual coercion as well as threat and invasion of personal space of their sexually harassed victims.

In order to investigate the strength of between and within group differences in the perception of various dimensions of sexual Harassment by Gender a One-Way ANOVA was computed as presented in Table 3b.

Table 3b: ANOVA Summary Table of Comparison of Dimensions of Sexual Harassment by Gender

SOURCE	Variation	Sum of Sqaures	Df	Mean Squares	F-ratio	Pv
Offensive Display of Sexual Offenses * Gender	Between Group	110.629	1	110.629	19.423*	P<0.05
	Within Group	3679.371	646	5.696		
Intrusion of Private Life * Gender	Between Group	11.200	1	11.200	3.656*	P<0.05
	Within Group	1978.800	646	3.063		
Invasion of Personal Space * Gender	Between Group	2.414	1	2.414	0.609	P>0.05
	Within Group	2559.086	646	3.961		
Sexual Coercion and Threats * Gender	Between Group	2.464	1	2.464	0.152	P>0.05
	Within Group	10431.086	646	16.147		
Subjective Objectification and Touching * Gender	Between Group	37.157	1	37.157	8.734*	P<0.05
	Within Group	2748.343	646	4.254		

Analysis of variances in Table 3b show that Offensive Display of Sexual Advances and Subjective Objectification /Touching was higher among females towards males compared to males because variation between the group was greater than the variation within the group, therefore the associated F-ratios = 19.423 (p<0.05) and F-ratio = 8.734 (p<0.05) respectively was significant, which implies that the variation were not due to chance but due to gender differences. Similarly, Intrusion into Private Life was higher among males towards females compared to females among the sampled participants (F-ratio = 19.423, p<0.05). However, between group differences in Sexual Coercion and Threats was not significantly different from within group differences, hence, the associated F-ratio = 0.152 (p>0.05) was not significant. This result is instructive and it underscores the general perception that male commit offenses of Sexual Coercion and Threats to female. The result show inter-alia that the perception of sexual coercion or threat is only an overzealous anxiety experienced by bystanders or participant observers.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a significant positive relationship between experience of sexual harassment and psycho-physiological disorders among young adults.

Table 4: Correlation Matrix of the Predictor Variables and the Criterion Measures

VARIABLES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Intrusion of Private Life	1.00									
2. Invasion of Personal Space	.239**	1.00								
3. Offensive Display of Sexual Offenses	.232**	.110**	1.00							
4. Sexual Coercion and Threats	.507**	.117**	.059	1.00						
5. Subjective Objectification and Touching	.231**	.125**	.453**	-.080*	1.00					
6. Health Symptoms	.027	.063	.064	.316**	.121**	1.00				
7. Stress Symptoms	.217**	.022	.015	.109**	-.085*	.872**	1.00			
8. Psychological Distress	.233**	.129**	.239**	.191**	.412**	-.895**	-.744**	1.00		

9. Negative Affects	.342**	.153**	.172**	.298**	.284**	.899**	.700**	-.956**	1.00	
10. Positive Affects	-.803**	-.235**	-.233**	-.583**	-.304**	-.079*	-.309**	-.149**	.193	1.00
Mean	7.61	4.64	6.39	7.81	6.58	8.50	68.96	68.00	29.50	59.33
SD	1.75	1.99	2.42	4.02	2.07	5.91	3.30	7.62	5.89	4.27

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

Inter-correlation matrix presented in Table 4 show some interesting results. Stress symptoms, psychological distress and negative affect increases markedly with increased Invasion of Personal Space, Offensive Display of Sexual Advances, Sexual Coercion and Subjective Objectification and touching. Similarly, Positive Affect dropped significantly showing a negative relationship with Intrusion into private life, Invasion of Personal Space, Offensive Display of Sexual Advances, Sexual Coercion and Subjective Objectification and touching. Hence, hypothesis 3 which posited that there will be a significant positive relationship between experience of sexual harassment and psycho-physiological disorders among young adults is hereby accepted

Further, Relative contribution of the predictor variables on the criterion measure was implemented through a linear multiple regression analysis as presented in Tables 5a -5d.

Table 5a: Relative Contributions of the Predictor Variables to the Prediction of Psychological Distress

Model	B	Beta	T	Sig.	R	R ²	Fcal	pv
1. Intrusion into Private Life	.155	.015	.355	Ns	.474	.224	37.11	P<0.05
2. Invasion of Personal Space	.409	.046	1.286	Ns				
3. Offensive Display of Sexual Offenses	.258	.035	.897	Ns				
4. Sexual Coercion and Threats	.913	.208	5.012	P<0.05				
5. Subjective Objectification and Touching	3.428	.404	9.959	P<0.05				

Dependent variable = Psychological distress

Table 5b: Relative Contributions of the Predictor Variables to the Prediction of Psychological Health Symptoms

Model	B	Beta	T	Sig.	R	R ²	Fcal	pv
1. Intrusion into Private Life	.904	.268	5.965	P<0.05	.410	.168	25.94	P<0.05
2. Invasion of Personal Space	.137	.046	1.236	Ns				
3. Offensive Display of Sexual Offenses	0.001	.004	.103	Ns				
4. Sexual Coercion and Threats	.683	.464	10.78	P<0.05				
5. Subjective Objectification and Touching	.616	.216	5.153	P<0.05				

Dependent variable = Health Symptoms

Table 5c: Relative Contributions of the Predictor Variables to the Prediction of Depressive Symptoms

Model	B	Beta	T	Sig.	R	R ²	Fcal	pv
1. Intrusion into Private Life	5.988	.452	9.884	P<0.05	.393	.155	23.19	P<0.05
2. Invasion of Personal Space	-.211	-.018	-.478	Ns				
3. Offensive Display of Sexual Offenses	0.000	.000	.003	Ns				
4. Sexual Coercion and Threats	-2.050	-.354	-8.116	P<0.05				
5. Subjective Objectification and Touching	-2.433	-.217	-5.092	P<0.05				

Dependent variable = Depressive Symptoms

Table 5d: Relative Contributions of the Predictor Variables to the Prediction of Negative Affects

Model	B	Beta	T	Sig	R	R ²	Fcal	pv
1. Intrusion into Private Life	.497	.148	3.37	P<0.05	.452	.204	33.00	P<0.05
2. Invasion of Personal Space	.170	.058	1.58	Ns				
3. Offensive Display of Sexual Offenses	0.004	.002	.044	Ns				
4. Sexual Coercion and Threats	.348	.238	.5.65	P<0.05				
5. Subjective Objectification and Touching	.743	.262	6.385	P<0.05				

Dependent variable = negative affects

Table 5a shows that Intrusion into Private Life, Invasion of Personal Space, Offensive Display of Sexual Offenses, Sexual Coercion and Threats and Subjective Objectification and Touching jointly accounted for about 22.4% of the observed negative affects among the sampled participants. Results also show clearly that Sexual Coercion and Threats and Subjective Objectification and Touching independently predicted about 20,8% and 40.4% of the observed variance in negative psychological distress experienced respectively. Health symptoms were tested as presented in Table 5b. Intrusion into Private Life, Invasion of Personal Space, Offensive Display of Sexual Offenses, Sexual Coercion and Threats and Subjective Objectification and Touching jointly presented about 16.8% of the observed negative affects among the sampled participants. Specifically, Intrusion into Private Life, Sexual Coercion and Threats and Subjective Objectification and Touching independently accounted for about 26,8%, 46.4% and 21.6% of the observed variance in negative psychological distress experienced respectively. In terms of depressive symptoms, as presented in Table 5d Intrusion of Private Life, Sexual Coercion and Threats as well as Subjective Objectification and Touching accounted for about 15.4% of the observed depressive symptoms among the participants. Intrusion of Private Life, Sexual Coercion and Threats as well as Subjective Objectification and Touching independently predicted about 52.2%, 35.4%% and 21.7% of the observed variance in experienced depressive symptoms, respectively.

In terms of *affect*, as presented in Table 5d Intrusion of Private Life, Sexual Coercion and Threats as well as Subjective Objectification and Touching accounted for about 20.4% of the observed negative affects among the sampled participants. Meanwhile, Intrusion of Private Life, Sexual Coercion and Threats as well as Subjective Objectification and Touching independently predicted about 14,8%, 23.8% and 26.2% of the observed variance in negative affects respectively. These results are very instructive, and provide understanding of unexplained psychological disorders and mood swing among sexually harassed victims.

Hypotheses: 4: *Female victims of predatory, Dominance and territorial harassers will report significant negative psycho-physiological disorders.*

In order to investigate the nature and pattern of relationship between gender of harassers, category and typology, a 2x2x4 MANOVA was computed and the summary table is provided in Table 6

Table 6: 2x2x4 MANOVA: Gender, Media of Harasments, Typology of Harassers and Criterion Measures

Source	Health Symptoms Distress (R ² = .090) Average Wilk's Lambda = 0.945		Psychological Distress Symptoms (R ² = .140) Average Wilk's Lambda = 0.965		Depressive Symptoms (R ² = .501) Average Wilk's Lambda = 0.974		Negative Affects (R ² = .029) Average Wilk's lambda = 0.988	
	MSQ	F-cal	MSQ	F-cal	MSQ	F-cal	MSQ	F-cal
	Gender (A)	362.473	11.097*	1936.031	7.072*	3702.20	7.169*	252.923
Media (B)	.802	.025	289,648	1.058	413.847	0.801	80.877	1.644
Typology (C)	79.292	2.427	1679.166	6.134*	1693.10	3.279*	44.014	.895
A * B	6.837	.209	5.665	.021	555.753	1.076	75.608	1.537
A * C	78.913	2.416	2323.955	8.489*	267.305	0.518	7.106	.144
B * C	67.288	2.060	227.605	.831	1098.48	2.127	58.201	1.183
A * B * C	30.804	.943	597.026	2.181	992.556	1.883	138.043	2.806*

Table 6 results show that gender influence was significant on sexually harassed victims' health symptoms (F-ratio = 11.097*, p<0.05; Wilk's Lambda = .945), psychological distress symptoms (F-ratio = 7.072*, p<0.05; Wilk's Lambda = .965), and depressive symptoms (F-ratio = 7.169*, p<0.05; Wilk's Lambda = .974), respectively. Further, the associated R² values clearly shows that gender explained only about 9%, 14% and 50.1% of the observed variance in victims health symptoms, psychological distress and depressive symptoms. Also, media of harassment was not significant in predicting victims health symptoms, psychological distress and depressive symptoms (health symptoms : F-ratio = 0.025*, p>0.05; psychological distress symptoms : F-ratio = 1.058, p>0.05; depressive symptoms : F-ratio = 0.801, p>0.05). Similarly, type of sexual harassment was significant for psychological stress symptoms (F-ratio = 6.134*, p<0.05; Wilk's Lambda = .965) and depressive symptoms (F-ratio = 3.279*, p<0.05; Wilk's Lambda = .974). Expectedly, result shows that depressive symptoms were higher among females who were sexually harassed in public as compared to their counterparts that were sexually harassed in private. Depressive symptoms were higher among males who were publicly street-harassed compare to their males' counterpart who were privately street-harassed. Similarly, psychological distress was higher among both male's and female's sexually harassed victims who reported predatory, dominance, territorial and street harassments in the public compared to their counterparts that otherwise experience sexual harassment in the private. Thus, hypothesis 3 is partly accepted.

DISCUSSION

Sexual harassment is a form bullying or a coercion of such which is sexual in nature. It is an unwelcome or inappropriate promise of rewards in exchange for sexual favours (Paludi, Michele & Barickman, 1991). The present study was organized around three main objectives. First, to empirically ascertain the nature of sexual harassment experienced among Adolescents and young adults. Second, we explore the incidence and prevalence of experienced sexual harassments among adolescents and young adults using valid measures of behaviours that was perceived as sexually harassing. Third, using self-reported psycho-physiological symptoms data, we examine the psycho-physiological correlates of sexual harassment on the victims. In an attempt to expand the understanding of the nature and prevalence of sexual harassment in schools as widely researched (Robert, 1977; Gutek, 1992; Gutek & Dunwoody, 1987) the study was conducted among young adults and adolescents who were known to be highly vulnerable. Surprisingly, findings from results supported the reports of Scarville, Button, Edwards, Lancaster and Elig, (1999) which suggested that some women were believed to benefit from seductive behaviour and sexual behaviours at school, gaining unfair advantage and acquiring perks and

privileges from their flirtatious and seductive behaviours. In line with this our findings indicate that sexual harassment in tertiary institutions South-West Nigeria is not only a reality, but an unfolding events where young adults takes an unfair advantage, acquiring perks and privileges from their flirtatious and seductive behaviours .

Basically, the nature, pattern and prevalence of sexual harassment experienced among adolescents and young adults in the sampled tertiary institutions were identified as Intrusion into Private Life (IPL), Offensive Display of Sexual Advances (ODSA), Sexual Coercion and Threats (SCT), Subjective Objectification and Touching (SOT), Invasion of Personal Space (IPS). Between and within schools under reference, there were significant gender differences in the pattern of sexual harassment reported by the participant. About the nature and pattern of sexual harassment experienced by the respondents in this study suggests that male sexual harassers are more of predatory and territorial in nature when social contact is in the public glare, while female sexual harassers are more often than not territorial, dominance and street harassers in public than males. Also, females are territorial and street harassers when social contact is private, while the male's harassers are particularly predatory harassers if the social contact environment is private.

Moreover, the most prevalent form of sexual orientation harassment appears to involve more of verbal abuses and interpersonal threats which was very consistent with finding reported by Croteau (1996), Herek (1989), Omonijo, Uche, Nwadiafor and Rotimi (2013), Kamal, Asnarulkhadi and Jamila (2011). This pattern and emerging trends is perhaps at variance with the widely held view that male factor are the only culprit of sexual harassment. Interestingly, it was established that men reported women unusual behavioural and figural dispositions that are potentially sexually harassing in recent times. However, it was established that that women are more likely to view potentially harassing behaviour as inappropriate as men, which is consistent with the findings reported by Fitzgerald and Ormerod (1991), Fitzgerald and Shullman, (1993), Gutek, & Morasch (1982) and William, Rueb and Steel (1998). Either by commission or omission women appears to have embraced unusual behavioural and figural dispositions deliberately to sexually harass to the male folk in the public glare. In fact, such sexually harassing behaviour and figural dispositions may become particularly offensive when the medium of presentation is private as reported by men in this study thereby amplifying the findings of Fitzgerald and Ormerod (1991) and Fitzgerald and Shullman, (1993).

Another noteworthy finding is that sexual harassment correlates positively with sexually harassed victims psycho-physiological outcomes, thereby contributed significantly to the observed self-reported psycho-physiological disorders. Our study indicated that sexual harassment predicted about 22.4% of the observed variance of self-reported psychological distress, 16.8% of the observed health symptoms, 15.5% of the observed depressive symptoms and 20.4% of the observed negative affects. This finding amplify the findings reported by Taiwo, Omole and Omole (2014), Adams-Roy & Barling, (1998) Barling et al (1996), Gutek and Koss (1993), Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg and Dubois (1997), Bingham and Scherer (1993), Gartner and Macmillan (1995), and Pina and Gannon (2009) that Sexually harassed victims suffer a number of psychological effects ranging from irritation and frustration to anxiety, stress, humiliation, trauma, extreme psychological damage. Influence of participant's gender was significant on sexually harassed victims' health symptoms, psychological distress symptoms and depressive symptoms respectively explaining up to about 9%, 14% and 50.1% of the observed variance in victims psychological functioning. However, type of sexual harassment was predicted observed psychological stress and depressive symptoms. Expectedly, negative affect, depressive and health symptoms were observed to be significantly higher among females who were sexually

harassed in public as compared to their counterparts that were sexually harassed in private which is consistent with the findings of (Stockdale & Vaux, 1993) that individuals who experienced negative affect were those most likely to acknowledge sexual harassment. The report further explained that the negative affect experienced as a result of the harassing experience (e.g., anger, fear, confusion, hostility) could be more important than the actual type of unwanted sexual behaviour experienced (Stockdale et al., 1995). Similarly, depressive symptoms were higher among males who were publicly street-harassed compare to their males' counterpart who were privately street-harassed. Psychological distress was also higher among both male's and female's sexually harassed victims who reported predatory, dominance, territorial and street harassments in the public compared to their counterparts that otherwise experience sexual harassment in the private thereby amplifying the earlier findings reported by Jacobson, Koehler and Jones-Brown (1987) and Shakoor and Chalmers (1991) which variously linked direct or indirect exposure to sexual harassment with negative psychological outcomes. This finding is very instructive particularly when sexual harassment in the Nigeria tertiary institutions is so pervasive that no tertiary institution seems to be exempted.

Conclusions

Sexual harassment is a serious problem in Nigeria's higher institutions today. Attempts to effectively cope with the emerging problem have not achieved the success level desired. To reduce the risks of sexual harassment it is essential to first understand the nature, pattern and presentation of the problem and its immediate and remote causes. This study demonstrates that sexual harassment is pervasive and precociously real and both female and male have been victims of various kinds of sexual harassment depending on the media and presentation either in private or public. Understanding its causes, nature and pattern as well as psycho-physiological consequences is critical to developing a program of deterrence in our higher institutions of learning. The study established inter-alia that psychological significance of sexual harassment to emotional and mental health well-being of victims, thereby established a strong advocacy for the government, families and NGO's in the provision appropriate psychological intervention for sexually harassed and traumatised individuals. In addition, the findings enable professionals working with perpetrators of sexual violence/abuse to (1) pinpoint the range of psychological factors that facilitate sexual offences, and (2) highlight those psychological factors that require treatment and appropriate interventions. As the whole sexual harassment process becomes more fully understood, strategies for attacking the problem will become more effective. Therefore models which consider interaction of multiple causative factors allow identifying groups with the greater risk and implementing preventive action rather than corrective action (Whaley, 2001). However, organizational psychology focuses attention on organizational awareness and governance policy on sexual harassment schools. Social psychology directs our attention to organizational norms, opportunity, and power asymmetries that encourages sexual harassment. Most often than not school managements are aware that sexual harassment is a source of concern for their staff and students. But then, awareness does not commonly translate into the establishment of organizational norms deterring sexual harassment.

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