PERSISTENCE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT OF GIRLS IN SCHOOLS: A CASE OF FIVE SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN LUSAKA PROVINCE OF ZAMBIA

BY

AGNES CHIKWANDA

A dissertation Submitted to the University of Zambia in Partial fulfillment of the Requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Arts in Gender Studies

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I, **Agnes Chikwanda**, do declare that this dissertation is my own work and that it has not been submitted by anyone at this institution or at any other University.

Signature: ............................................................................................................

Date: .................................................................................................................
Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my late father, Mr. Reuben Mwila Chikwanda (1915 – 2003), my late mother Mrs. Margret Chola Chikwanda (1926-2012) and my late brother in law Mr. Chishimba Lwatula (1938-2008), all of whom contributed in more ways than one to my education.
Certificate of approval

This dissertation by Agnes Chikwanda is approved as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Arts in Gender Studies of the University of Zambia.

Signed: .................................................. Date: .........................
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<tr>
<td>AAUW</td>
<td>American Association of University Women</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEBS</td>
<td>District Education Board Secretary</td>
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<td>E.F.A</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>FAWEZA</td>
<td>Forum for African Women Educationists in Zambia</td>
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<td>GIDD</td>
<td>Gender in Development Division.</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
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<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<td>PAGE</td>
<td>Program for advancement of Girl Child Education</td>
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<td>PEO</td>
<td>Provincial Education Officer</td>
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<td>PESO</td>
<td>Provincial Education Standard Officer</td>
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<td>PTR</td>
<td>Pupil Teacher Ratio</td>
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<td>TSC</td>
<td>Teaching Service Commission</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
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<td>WILSA</td>
<td>Women and Law in Southern Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>YWCA</td>
<td>Young Women Christian Association</td>
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<td>ZAMWA</td>
<td>Zambia Media Women Association</td>
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Abstract

Though schools are supposed to be safe places for caring for pupils, most often they are not, because of sexual harassment, especially of female pupils. Sexual harassment is a global phenomenon recorded across various settings all over the world including Zambia. Sexual harassment may include remarks, gestures or actions that are sexual in nature by the perpetrator towards the victim. The purpose of this study was to investigate the persistence of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers, male staff and male pupils in five selected high schools in Chongwe, Kafue and Lusaka districts of Lusaka province in Zambia. The specific objectives were to investigate the cultural factors contributing to the persistence of sexual harassment, to establish economic factors that contributed to the practice, to determine school factors that influenced it and to ascertain the effectiveness of the laws and regulations put in place to combat the vice.

This was a descriptive survey for which both quantitative and qualitative data was collected. Tools for data collection included questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs). The total sample size was one hundred and thirty eight (138) respondents consisting of 3 key stakeholders, 5 head teachers, 56 teachers and 74 pupils drawn from the five schools.

The study revealed that sexual harassment was a problem in Zambian schools and that both pupils and teachers were aware about it. 47.3% of the pupils interviewed were aware about the existence of sexual harassment of girls in their school while 52.7 % said that they were not aware about it. Among the pupils who indicated that they were aware of sexual harassment of girls in schools, 9 were males and 26 were females. As for the pupils who said that they were not aware of sexual harassment in schools, 26 were males while 13 were females. From this information, it is clear that female pupils were more likely to be aware of the problem than male pupils. Perhaps this underscores the fact that the female pupils as victims bore the brunt of the burden of sexual harassment. 55.4% of the pupils said that sexual harassment of girls in schools was a problem while 44.6% said it was not a problem. All the teachers who participated in this study indicated that they were aware about sexual harassment of girls in their respective schools, confirming its existence. Nearly half of the teachers (48.2%) said they had witnessed an incident of sexual harassment at the respective school in the previous 3 years. Findings were that culture on sex had
a great influence on sexual harassment in schools. Traditionally, sex has been used as an abuse of power exercised by those in power, who in this context happen to be male teachers and boys over slow learners or under privileged girls in schools. Economic factors like money, poverty, general vulnerability in relation to direct costs of schooling such as user fees and uniforms as well as academic favour also influenced sexual harassment of girls in schools. Academic favour is explained as teachers giving children good marks or grades irrespective of their actual performance and exemption from work. Schools on the other hand were discovered to lack handling procedures for protecting pupils who reported sexual harassment and those not yet been victims. Absence of clear policies and procedures for preventing and responding to harassment, attitudes among school authorities that minimize harassment or blame the school girls, inadequate or inappropriately lenient responses by school teachers and administrators, insufficient support services for pupils who are subjected to harassment as well as a preference for resolving cases of abuse internally rather than reporting them to relevant offices or civil authorities have been cited in the findings as well. Teaching Service Commission reviewed that over 1,000 teacher’s had been reported at the Commission in the year 2009-2011 for sexually harassing female pupils in schools. Out of this number only eight (8) male teachers had been dismissed country wide.

The study recommended among others that MoE should include in all Colleges of Education a component that will deal with issues relating to sexual harassment of girls in schools; design and implement guidelines for schools on how to effectively and expeditiously deal with sexual harassment and disciplinary action for teachers or fellow pupils if found wanting effectively and expeditiously. Lastly the study recommended that School authorities should create and publicize a sexual harassment policy and give a photocopy to parents.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction
This chapter gives the definition of sexual harassment, background information, scope of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, conceptual framework and theoretical framework of the study.

Sexual harassment of pupils is a human right violation affecting all age groups within growing stages of children worldwide. These Human Rights exist as embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of the child (UNCRC). A study in ten countries by Finkerhor (1994) indicates child sexual harassment to be international problem. The world health organization estimates that about 223 million children (150 million girls and 73 million boys) have experienced forced sexual abuse and other forms globally (Adusei 2009: 11. About 959 teachers and school staff have been accused of sexually harassing pupils in the past few years (http://www.bbc.co.uk/newsbeat/25367715). A separate study done between 2003/2009 in Africa revealed that 12,660 girls were sexually harassed by teachers (http://www.afroline.org/article/2010-10-15-sexual-abuse-rampant-at-rural-schools). A report by Africa Rights (2006) found cases of school teachers attempting to gain sex, in return for good grades or for not failing pupils, in Congo, Ghana, Nigeria, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Zambia and Zimbabwe. An investigative study of abuse of girls in Ghana, Malawi and South African schools by Leach et al. (2003) revealed that sexual harassment against girls in school include sexual propositions to girls by older male pupils and teachers, as well as the use of sexually explicit language, overt sexual graffiti. Sexual harassment is associated with many places which includes school buildings, teacher’s compounds and houses. A study by same Leach et al. (2003) indicated that toilets, play fields and classrooms are hot spot areas for sexual harassment of girls in school. One girl reported that boys stood by the door way after break and tried to fondle their breasts and buttocks, as they were pushing for being late.
Demographic and health Survey (DHS 2004-2006. The Zambia Demographic and Health Survey (DHS, 2006-2007) gives some insight into the problem at hand in the country but results are widely believed to be under estimated due to methodology constraints and secrecy of the vice. The survey showed that 20 percent of the Zambian women and girls between ages of 15-49 have experienced some form of sexual harassment in their life time (CSO, 2007).

Kasonde-Nga’ndu’s (2003) research on the extent of sexual harassment of girls in weekly boarding houses found that over 30% of the girls have been sexually harassed in weekly boarding houses. These finding points to the fact that weekly boarding contributes to the persistence of sexual harassment in schools. Malama (2006) also conducted a study that sought to investigate the prevalence and extent of sexual harassment of girls by boys in two high schools in Kitwe between the years 2006-2008. The findings of this study revealed the prevalence rate to be 8 counts of sexual harassment at school “A” and 10 counts at School “B” which was 90% and 96% respectively giving the average of 93% for both schools.

Sexual harassment has been defined as “unwanted sexual advances whether or not accompanied by contact, and sexualized degrading language,” (Menon etal: 2007). Others have defined it as “unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when submission to or rejection of this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects a person’s employment or education” (University of Zambia HIV & AIDS Policy, 2006). This definition usually includes one or more of the following characteristics: the offender has power over the victim, the behavior is unwanted (as perceived by the victim), and there is some negative outcome such as distress or interference with activities as perceived by the victim. Perhaps in more practical terms, sexual harassment is unwelcome behavior of a sexual nature that interferes with an individual’s life.

Sexual harassment may include remarks, gestures or actions that are sexual in nature. It may include unwanted physical contact; unwelcome remarks; verbal abuse or display of suggestive pictures; leering, whistling, jokes or other behaviours or gestures of a sexual nature; demands for sexual favours; names written on walls or desks; and pestering. It is, therefore impossible to give a definite definition of the term. In Zambia, according to UNZA HIV & AIDS Policy (2006),
sexual harassment in schools specifically teacher-pupil cases, refers to the occurrence of a teacher or school staff engaging in unwelcome and inappropriate sexual activities with a male or female pupil.

This is the dissertation report of a study conducted to investigate the persistence of sexual harassment in five high schools in three districts of Lusaka province in Zambia. Whereas the perpetrator of sexual harassment can be either a male or female teacher or staff and whereas the victim can be either a male or female pupil, sexual harassment in this study is contextualized by a male teacher, male staff or male pupil harassing a female pupil. The specific objectives of the study were to investigate the cultural factors contributing to the persistence of sexual harassment and establish economic factors that contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools. The other specific objectives were to determine school factors that influence sexual harassment of girls in schools and to ascertain the effectiveness of the laws and regulations put in place to combat sexual harassment of girls in schools in Zambia. In this first section of the report, an introduction by way of an overview is given. This is followed by the background of the study which includes the scope of the study, statement of the problem and objectives of the study. The research questions, significance of the study and the conceptual framework is given. The next section reviews the literature on the matter while the third section outlines the methodology of the study. The forth section gives the findings of the study while the fifth section discusses the findings in detail. The last section provides a conclusion and recommendations.

1.1 Background
Benefits of education for girls are undeniable. However, until we can ensure that schools are places of learning, rather than places of danger, girls will be held back, and yet when girls are educated and safe, they along with our entire societies will flourish. World Bank (2002) has noted that education for girls is one of the best development investments a country can make.

According to Pasqual (2008), the term sexual harassment was first pronounced in the 1970s. Since then the issue has become a recognized phenomenon worldwide in all cultural contexts. Sexual harassment in a broader sense includes a wide range of behaviours which include unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours and any other verbal and/or physical conduct of a sexual nature. If submissive to or rejection of this conduct explicitly or implicitly
affects an individual’s performance or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive environment (Anderson, 2006).

Definitions of sexual harassment may vary among and within societies and from country to country. They depend on how men and women socialize within that society, the existence of gender stereotypes and set notions that may exist within the society and the country (Haspels et al., 1996). In some societies, kissing, fondling and physical contact with genitals may be considered as sexual harassment while other kinds of verbal, non-verbal and physical conduct may not constitute sexual harassment. This can vary according to cultural and social practices and according to the context in which it occurs, (Zandonda, 2010).

In Canada, several definitions have been presented. According to the Supreme Court of Canada, sexual harassment may be broadly defined as any unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature that detrimentally affects the work environment or leads to adverse job-related consequences. The Alberta Human Rights and Citizenship Commission on the other hand defines it as any unwelcome behaviour, sexual in nature that adversely affects, or threatens to affect, directly or indirectly, a person's job security, working conditions, or prospects for promotion or earnings: or prevents a person from getting a job, living accommodations, or any kind of public service. The Calgary Board of Education defines sexual harassment as any unwelcome behaviour that is sexual in nature. Such behaviour may directly or indirectly affect or threaten to affect in an adverse manner a person's job security.

**Persistence of sexual harassment:** This is defined as the fact of continuing sexual harassment in spite of interventions.

**Teacher- pupil sexual harassment:** refers to the occurrence of a teacher or school staff engaging in unwelcome and inappropriate sexual activities with a male or female pupil.

**Gender inequality:** Refers to discrimination on the basis of a person’s sex in opportunities and the allocation of resources or benefits or in access to services.

Many schools worldwide Zambia inclusive have recently acknowledged sexual harassment as a significant problem and has developed policies which contain rules about sexual harassment.
Currently, teachers, pupils and school administrators alike are currently being educated on issues relating to sexual harassment in schools. The Ministry of Education in Zambia (MoE) has equally developed policies to try and control sexual harassment in schools. MoE in an effort to prevent and provide redress for this serious human rights problem of sexual harassment of girls in Zambian schools prohibited teachers from conducting private tutoring sessions in their homes. This new policy sought to prevent teachers from taking advantage of the privacy of this setting to sexually abuse their students. In addition, Zambian Government through the Ministry of Education has enacted two Acts called the Education Act 2010. This policy states that once a teacher sexually harasses a pupil, he/she will be suspended pending the abuse case and once convicted, will be fired and blacklisted (MoE, 2010).

Furthermore, MoE has worked with UNICEF and other partners to develop a “National Child Protection Policy for Schools.” Importantly, this policy protects children from and responds effectively to sexual violence and other forms of child abuse in schools including sexual harassment, yet sexual harassment of girls by male teachers and peer boys have continued to persist in Zambian schools (MoE, 2002). Zambia has ratified, without reservation, four international human rights treaties namely the International Convention on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), and United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) that obligate it to prevent and respond to sexual violence, including sexual harassment especially that of girls in schools.

In 1990 Zambia signed the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and later ratified it in 1991. The CRC is the main instrument in international human rights that governs the rights and welfare of children. It defines a child as anyone aged -18 years and below. The CRC is unique, in that it is the most widely ratified convention in the world. Article 4 of the CRC, to which Zambia is party, provides that states parties are obliged to undertake all appropriate legislative, administrative and other measures for implementation of the rights recognized in the present convention. United Nation (UN) Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 34, CRC, 1990), to which Zambia is a signatory. This Convention prohibits sexual harassment of children who include girls before the age of 18.
In addition, Zambia signed the 1990 African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child and the 1996 Stockholm Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children. Furthermore, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990), regardless of sex puts obligation on states to protect children from all forms of maltreatment perpetrated by adults and to undertake preventive and treatment programmes in that regard. It implored state parties to take all appropriate legislative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parents, legal guardians or any other person who has the care of the child.

Zambia has also voluntarily assumed a number of regional and sub-regional human rights obligations; the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights (African Charter), the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC), the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Protocol on the Rights of Women), the Protocol on the Prevention and Suppression of Sexual Violence Against Women and Children (Great Lakes Protocol), and the Southern African Development Community Protocol on Gender and Development (SADC Gender Protocol). In these treaties, sexual violence refers to all harmful practices or behaviors which negatively affect the fundamental rights of women and children, such as their right to life, health, dignity, education and physical integrity.

The Great Lakes Protocol on the Rights of Women/girls requires Zambia to implement measures that protect a woman’s right, girls inclusive to respect for her dignity and from all forms of violence especially sexual harassment of minors.. Zambia must make an effort to both prevent and punish sexual harassment and violence, including educating citizens about traditional and cultural beliefs that enable sexual violence against women. Procedurally, Zambia is required to streamline the complaint process for sexual violence victims and establish legal and medical practices for assisting victims. Zambia is also obligated under the African Charter to protect children’s rights under international declarations and conventions. The ACRWC provides that Zambia must pursue legislative, administrative, social, and educational measures to prevent children from being tortured, treated inhumanely, or sexually harassed.
Besides, the government has collaborated with civil society partners to establish girls’ clubs and programs that empower girls to protect themselves from and seek redress for sexual violence perpetrated by teachers or fellow students. A coalition of Zambian civil society organizations, including CAMFED, Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia (FAWEZA) and Planned Parenthood Association of Zambia (PPAZ), have established a “safe spaces” program in schools where adolescent girls can learn about and realize their rights. The programme gives girls a meeting space, provides them with knowledge and skills, and trains female teachers, staff members, and older students to serve as mentors. The program teaches girls to protect themselves from sexual violence and counsels them on where to seek help if they experience it. All-girls clubs such as the Girls’ Network also offer girl students an opportunity to discuss issues of particular concern to them and, through collective discourse and action, enhance their ability to protect themselves from violence.

In Zambia, the fight against sexual harassment of girls in schools is being carried out by coalition members who have engaged in various advocacy efforts and strategic activities aimed at publicizing sexual harassment of girls in schools by male teachers and boys. These include Zambia Media Women Association (ZAMWA) which has developed series of call-in radio shows aimed at furthering public education on the issue of teacher sexual harassment of girls in schools. The Young Women Christian Association (YWCA) has also put in place a hotline for girls to report on issues pertaining to sexual abuse including sexual harassment. Furthermore, the Women and Law in Southern Africa (WILSA) provides free legal Aid to girls that have been sexually harassed by teachers and boys in school since 2009.

Sexual harassment is about power and status and is usually perpetuated by someone who has power over another with less power or status. Mabula – Kankasa and Chondoka (1996) argued that these relations are characterized by unequal power relations and that the girls should not be viewed as consenting parties to the scourge. They recognized power-based factors such as fear, force, and intimidation as being the main elements used by the teachers to ensure victim compliance and silence. Haspels et al. (1996:20) argued that the problem relates not so much to the actual biological differences between men and women but rather, to the gender or social roles
attributed to men and women in social and economic life, and perceptions about male and female sexuality in society that can lead to unbalanced male-female power relationships.

Besides, Zambia has a fair amount of legislative and policy frameworks for protection of minors in which corresponding institutions are given the mandate to administer them and the many interventions that the government and Non-Governmental Organizations in Zambia have put in place. Clearly, persistence of sexual harassment in schools in Zambia is a mystery because laws and regulations including Non-Governmental Organizations are there to prevent the scourge. This study sort to establish factors influencing persistence of sexual harassment of girls in Secondary school.

1.2 Purpose of the study
This research is not the first of its kind but rather builds on earlier studies done on sexual harassment in schools conducted by several Zambian researchers. However, the general persistence of sexual harassment against girls in Zambian schools, in spite of the many interventions by government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), suggests that more studies like this one, would be useful as first step to increasing awareness levels among stakeholders raising the question of how successful such policies and legislatures approach have been and also ascertain if certain factors were being evident in the fight against the persistence of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers and boys in Zambian schools. Persistence of sexual harassment in Zambians schools has shown that, it is a matter that needs constant, concerted and sustained efforts. In this study the investigation of sexual harassment is limited to harassment of a female pupil by a male teacher, staff or pupil. This study is investigative in nature and limited to three districts of Lusaka province.

1.3 Statement of the problem
There are several studies that have outlined pervasiveness of sexual harassment against girls attending school in Zambia. There are also many policies and interventions, and there is fair amount of legislative and policy frameworks put in place for the protection of children in institutions of learning. However, sexual harassment in Zambian schools still remains a big challenge. The Zambia Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) (2006-2007) gives some insight into the problem at hand in the country but are widely believed to be under estimated due to
methodology constraints and secrecy of the vice. The survey showed that 20 percent of the Zambian women and girls between ages of 15-49 have experienced some form of sexual harassment in their life time (CSO, 2007).

Kasonde-Nga’ndu’s (2003) research on the extent of sexual harassment of girls in weekly boarding houses and found that over 30% of the girls have been sexually harassed in weekly boarding houses. This finding points to the fact that weekly boarding contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment in schools Malama (2006) also conducted a study that sought to investigate the prevalence and extent of sexual harassment of girls by boys in two high schools in Kitwe between the years 2006-2008.

Nonetheless, all these studies did not bring out interventions by government and reasons why sexual harassment has persisted in a coordinated manner like this study has done. The implication of neglecting issues on sexual harassment of girls in schools has been addressed adequately too. The concern in this study is that if nothing is done in terms of finding practical solutions to this problem, girls will continue to be sexually harassed in schools by the opposite sex. This study therefore, has focused on factors influencing persistence of sexual harassment in schools so as to come up with programmes and interventions aimed at curbing down the scourge in schools.

1.4 General Objective
The General Objectives of this study was to investigate the persistence of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers and boys in five selected high schools in Lusaka province.

1.5 Specific Objectives of the study
1. To investigate the home/cultural factors contributing to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.
2. To establish economic factors that contributes to sexual harassment of girls in schools.
3. To determine school/cultural factors that influence sexual harassment of girls in schools.
4. To ascertain the effectiveness of the laws and regulations put in place to combat sexual harassment of girls in schools in Zambia.

1.6 Research questions
1. What home/ factors contribute to persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools?
2. What economic factors contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools?
3. What school factors influence the sexual harassment of girls in schools?
4. What laws and regulations have been put in place to combat sexual harassment of girls in schools?

1.7 Scope of the study

The study covered 56 secondary school teachers and 74 pupils, 5 head teachers and 3 stakeholders from the Ministry of Education. The study investigated the persistence of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers, staff and peer boys in Lusaka Province and went to three districts out of five districts of the province. The study gathered primary data from Teaching Service Commission, MoE Headquarters, Provincial Education offices and head teachers through the guide interview, focus group discussions and questionnaires respectively. Secondary data were obtained from internet and libraries.

1.8 Significance of the study
This study is significant for a number of reasons. Firstly, the pervasiveness of sexual harassment in the nation’s schools raises the question of how existing policies and legislative approaches can be improved. Secondly, the study will underscore government’s obligations to protect young girls under Zambia’s own Constitution, the Great Lakes Protocol, and other human rights instruments to which Zambia is a party. This study will make a valuable contribution and interventions through its recommendations to the Ministry of Education, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as UNICEF, ZAMWA WILSA, CAMFED and YWCA to do more in fighting the vice in a coordinated manner. The Ministry of education, Gender and society would use the study to put effective mechanisms in place to address sexual harassment against girls within the school system, in order to ensure that in future girls are properly protected against sexual harassment by school officials and that they know where to turn if they have been
sexually abused. The findings will add more views and knowledge to the existing body of knowledge on how our girls would prosper if they were learning in a school that was sexual harassment free. Thirdly, the study has given recommendations which government can use to ensure that girls have full recourse to the law if they are sexually abused and that perpetrators are prosecuted to the full extent of the law. It would be useful also to the general populace especially the families, Non-Governmental Organization and all those interested in appreciating the importance of acting on sexual harassment in schools in order to reduce it.

1.9 **Theoretical and Conceptual Framework:** This study is anchored on the theoretical and conceptual framework.

1.9.1 **Theoretical framework**
Theories on persistence of sexual harassment in schools are based on five main theoretical formulations. However for the sake of this research, only three will be dwelt with regard to persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. These are biological; cultural; and abuse of power theories according to Eyre (2000).

1.9.2 **Biological theory**
Fineran and Bennet (1998) use the theory to give biological explanation to why men who sexually harass women do not seem to be aware of the effects of their behavior toward their victims. They argued that there is an automatic mental link between their concepts of power and sex.. These mental processes operate so quickly and efficiently that one is not conscious of their occurrences. Leach et al (2003) equally argue that girls are more susceptible to sexually harassment because of inequalities of power and status in society.

Leach (2003) suggests an imaginative holistic approach bringing together teacher trainers, parents, pupils, and Ministry of education officials and civil society at large in order to make girls safe from sexual harassment by teachers and fellow male school mates. Above all, such a step is also making school environments safe for female pupils.
1.9.3  *Cusick and Wheeler (1988); Bacchi (1998)*

The cultural theory provides a useful framework for persistence of sexual harassment in schools. Cultural theory will be discussed under three sub themes namely, ethical, structural approaches and structural with focus on the environment surrounding incidents of sexual harassment in the school. An ethical view of cultural theory according to Cusick and Wheeler (1988) dwells heavily on the fact that schools derive much of their authority from long-term ethical or moral bonds which bind their members. Bacchi (1998) who supported this theory sees sexual harassment as a sign of failing on the part of the organization to instill morality and integrity in its members and he advocates for a small school size. Eyre (2000) observed that in big institutions when a case is reported to the authority, it is individualized and interpreted in a legal perspective. Attention is given to the behaviour of the accused as it is separate from its social surroundings and the onus is on the victim to prove that she has really been harassed against her will.

1.9.4  *Bidwell (1965) and Deal (1982)*

The structural cultural approach focuses on school norms which are concerned with sexuality and as a way of influencing the behaviour of individuals. Proponents direct attention on observable and formal programmes like school rules as code of conduct. It may also focus on less overt features of the school like the way in which complaints are handled and tolerance of informal behaviours.

1.9.5  *Tangri et al (1982) and Lee et al (1996).*

Abuse of Power Theory according to Tangri et al (1982) has two sub theories; abuse of organizational power and abuse of society and power. Dey et al (1996) argues that nothing short of the total reform of the society will keep or alleviate the problem. Mackinnon (1979) also argues that a more sophisticated analysis of the power dynamics involved in sexual harassment is needed.

1.9.6  *Linnet A. (1992) Critiques of this theory*

However, Critiques of this theoretical approach like Linnet A (1992) consider such responses superficial and insufficient for changing complex patterns of values and belief in individuals.
1.10 Conceptual Framework of the study

Reicel and Ramey (1987) define conceptual framework as a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of inquiry and used to structure a subsequent presentation. It is a tool intended to assist a researcher to develop awareness and understanding of the situation under scrutiny and to communicate this. However, in this study the framework identifies four-way interactions or mutual influences namely economic, cultural, legislature and school or structural and institutional factors as the ones that mainly influence sexual harassment of girls and why it has persisted in schools. The fact that not one, but many factors were investigated as reasons for sexual persistence of girls in schools indicates that this study is more descriptive while the attempts to explain the reasons or the background to sexual harassment’s persistence in schools reveals its heuristic quality.
Figure 1.1 below helps us get a better understanding of this study and shows the main units of analysis and observation as it implicitly guided the study and then refined or modified from the actual study in the present investigation.

Source: Author (2016)
1.11 Summary
This chapter presented the introduction, background, scope of the study, statement of the problem objectives, research questions, significance, theoretical and conceptual framework as well as hypotheses of the study. The theoretical framework has used Eyre (2000), and its four-way interactions or mutual influences namely economic, cultural, legislature and school or structural and institutional factors as the ones that mainly influence sexual harassment of girls and why it has persisted in schools. Theories by Cusick and Wheeler (1988); Bacchi (1998) Bidwell (1965) and Deal (1982), Tangri et al (1982) and Lee et al (1996) modified theories (3) have been given too. Under the theoretical framework is the well elaborated conceptual framework on which this study is based using the, there after a hypotheses were given
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction
This section provides literature review upon which the study draws its analytical foundation. The definition of sexual harassment has been brought to emphasize the focus of the study. Literature on Global, regional and Zambia has been reviewed in length too.

Although studies on sexual behaviour can be traced way back to the 18th century and have over time employed a variety of approaches including the medical and psychiatric investigation of sexual disorders, data on persistence of sexual harassment especially among school girls is scanty. The adoption of multiple perspectives requires investigating the Legislature from the Constitution and amended Penal Code 2005 on sexual harassment of minors in Zambia, economic, cultural and school factors to determine if they influence persistence of sexual harassment in schools. Commonly, this approach is holistic since it attempts to capture interacting unique events using multiple methods. According to Patton (1987) interactivity also implies revealing how all parts work together to form the whole and not attempting to predict the future.

2.1 Definition of sexual harassment
For the sake of this study, the literature review has been divided into two: Global, Regional and Local literature on sexual harassment in schools because reported findings are similar to other literature for developing countries in general and to that of Sub-Saharan Africa in particular reports (Beyene, 1991; Leka and Dessie, 1996, Zewdie, 1991).

Perceptions on what constitutes sexual harassment vary among and within society because of its numerous definitions in academia. It depends on how men and women are socialized within that society, the existence of gender stereotypes and set notions the may exist in the work/school place (Haspels et al., 1996). For these and many other reasons, it is not possible to compile an exhaustive list of sexual harassing conduct that should be prohibited. While some acts may be easily identified as “sexual harassment, such as fondling, kissing and physical contact with
genital areas, many other kinds of verbal, non-verbal, physical conduct may not. This may vary according to cultural and social practices and context in which it occurred.

In some cultures “a kiss on the cheek or hugging is considered normal behaviour, while in another culture, it may be considered a sexual advance (Zandonda: 2010). However, one fact is that the word sexual harassment can be broken into three categories: verbal, physical and non-verbal. Whether or not the behaviour constitutes sexual harassment may depend on the reaction of the victim. The law is concerned with the impact of the behaviour, not the intent of the behaviour.

Gandari and Chihambakwe (2010:69) defines contact sexual harassment as “activities such as caressing, fondling, or tickling genitals, breasts, thighs; oral sexual actions like sucking breasts, tongue kissing; oral anal and virginal contact. Verbal (with words) harassment includes any hurtful or insulting words directed at someone because of her/his sex. For example certain nicknames like "stud," "babe," "chick", or "sexy" may be demeaning. Insulting remarks directed at someone because of his/her gender or race can also make up sexual harassment. Rude jokes of a suggestive nature could be offensive. Whistling may be considered to be a form of verbal harassment. Comments about one's appearance may not always be sexual harassment.

There are two types namely: contact and non-contact. Bezuidenhout (2008: 198); and Richter, Dawes and Higson –smith (2005) describes non-contact as one which occurs without actual sexual contact between the harasser and the child such as showing pornography, sending photographs via internet or phone, sexual gestures/ innuendos and derogatory remarks about the child’s body as well as verbal communication. Non-verbal (without words) harassment may include leering (staring), or sexual gesturing (movements). It may also include unwelcome exposure to material that is sexually suggestive such as pornographic photos, jokes, drawings or graffiti. According to shakeshaft, most of these sexual acts occur at the hands of educators (Shakeshaft, 2002:10).
2.2 Global Literature
Sexual harassment as in law and legislature is considered a form of illegal discrimination in many countries and a form of abuse (sexual & physiological) and bulling (Wikipedia Encyclopedia, 2009). However, Human Rights have made a great deal of progress as moral and legal force since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the United Nations (UN) on December 10, 1948. The Declaration is primary guide of the fundamental rights of all human beings and is also the point of reference for many treats on women and girls that followed; including the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination (Panda, 2003).

Sexual harassment of minors, girls in particular became a public issue in the 1970s and 1980s. Prior to this point in time, sexual abuse remained rather secretive and socially unspeakable. Studies on child molestation were nonexistent until the 1920s and the first national estimate of the number of child sexual abuse cases was published in 1948. By 1968 44 out of 50 U.S. states had enacted mandatory laws that required physicians to report cases of suspicious child abuse. Legal action began to become more prevalent in the 1970s with the enactment of the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act in 1974 in conjunction with the creation of the National Center for Child Harassment and Neglect. Since the creation of the Child harassment and Treatment Act, reported child harassment cases have increased dramatically. Finally, the National Abuse Coalition was created in 1979 to create pressure in congress to create more sexual abuse laws.

Second wave feminism brought greater awareness of child sexual abuse and violence against women, and made them public, political issues. Herman notes that her approach to her clinical experience grew out of her involvement in the civil rights movement. Her second book Trauma and Recovery coined the term complex post-traumatic stress disorder and included child sexual harassment as a possible cause. In 1986, Congress passed the Child Abuse Victims' Rights Act, giving children a civil claim in sexual harassment cases. The number of laws created in the 1980s and 1990s began to create greater prosecution and detection of child sexual abusers. During the 1970s a large transition began in the legislature related to child sexual harassment. Megan's Law which was enacted in 2004 gives the public access to knowledge of sex offenders
nationwide. Anne Hastings described these changes in attitudes towards child sexual abuse as the beginning of one of history's largest social revolutions. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that about 223 million children (150 million girls and 73 million boys) have experienced forced sexual intercourse or other forms of sexual harassment globally (UNVAC, 2006).

In 1978 the project on Status and Education of Women of the association of American College referred to sexual harassment as a ‘hidden issue’ to highlight the issue the silence that surrounded sexual harassment at both individual and organizational levels. According to Cloud (2002), different cultures have different legal protection of children from sexual harassment. However sex is wrong if practiced at the tender age and is condemned in many societies and can be seen by different definitions of age consent by different states. Hawaii for example has 14 years while The Netherlands law allows children aged 12-16 to make their own decision about sex. Canada, under section 153 of the criminal code introduced in 1985 ‘‘ is an indictable offence for a person in a position of trust like a teacher or any authority to have any contact, consensual or not, with a person under 18’’ (Dredger, 2003).

Sexual harassment occurs frequently in all society. The rate of prevalence can be difficult to determine in other societies than Western world because they have better ways of awareness and data capturing. In the U.K it is estimated at about 8% for boys and 12% for girls in schools. The estimates for the United States vary widely. A literature review of 23 studies found rates of 3% to 37% for males and 85 to 71% for females, which produced an average of 17% for boys and 28% for girls, while a statistical analysis based on 16 cross-sectional studies estimated the rate to be 7.2% for males and 14.5 for females (Wishnietsky, 1991). Watson, (1984) cited in Faulkner (1996) indicates that studies began exposing sexual harassment of children as a problem of considerable proportions, 57,500 cases of sexual abuse of girls in boarding schools at British boarding school in the late 1960s and 1970s. Numbers however went down in the last 15 years, (New York Times, 11 October 2004) However, irrespective of social and cultural background, researchers agree that sexual abuse is undisclosed and under reported Bagley, 1992; Finkelher and Browne, 1986; Slager-Jone, 1978, Tsai and Wagner, 1978) argued by disputing as wrong the common assumption that only priest, teachers, Boy Scout leaders and other adults who work
with children are responsible for sexual abuse but teachers too. The USA Department of Health and Human Service reported 83,600 substantiated reports of sexually abused children in 2005. Including incidents which were not reported would make the total number even larger (Wishnietsky, 1991).

American Association of University Women Survey: Similar studies have been conducted in the United States. In 1993, the American Association of University Women (AAUW) conducted a survey on sexual harassment in the schools. The survey was completed by 79 public schools across America. The results of the survey were alarming to many people as it revealed that 4 out of 5 students (80 percent) reported that they had been the target of some form of sexual harassment during their school lives. According to this survey, most students first experience sexual harassment in the junior high years. However, in some cases students reported experiencing their first incident as early as grade three. The survey showed that the level of harassment of boys is surprisingly high. However, the study showed that boys tended to take sexual harassment less seriously than girls. Whereas only 24 percent of the boys became "very upset" or "somewhat upset" by their experiences, 70 percent of the girls felt this way.

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disputing as wrong the common assumption that only priests, teachers, Boy Scout leaders and other adults who work with children are responsible for sexual abuse but male teachers as well.

Goldberg (1995) has also cited sexual abuse. The study was commissioned by the United States Education Department and was called “Educator Sexual Misconduct: A Synthesis of Existing Literature” (Kupelian, 2006). One of the most remarkable statistics she found was from a survey of student at a Carolina High School in 1991, which was published in the Journal of Education Research. It stated that 13% of the high school’s graduates had partaken in sexual intercourse with a teacher (Goldberg 1995). In another survey given to North Carolina high school students 14% reported that they had engaged in sexual intercourse with a teacher (Wishnietksky, 1991).

An Ontario Survey shows that out of survey of 350 high schools in Ontario, conducted by the Ontario government and the Ontario Secondary School Teachers’ Federation, by the time girls reach high school 80 percent report that they have been sexually harassed in a school setting. Of those high-school girls who report having been harassed, 80 percent have been subjected to unwanted sexual comments or gestures, 80 percent have been touched, grabbed or pinched in a sexual way and almost 50 percent have had nasty sexual rumours spread about them (Alberta Civil Liberties Research Centre, May, 1997).

In a survey conducted with high school graduates: 17% of male and 82.2% of female reported sexual harassment by faculty or staff during their school careers. Approximately 14% of those surveyed said they had engaged in sexual intercourse with a teacher. In a National Survey conducted for the American Association of University Women (AAUW Foundation in 2000). Approximately 290,000 students experienced some type of physical sexual abuse by a member of a public school staff between 1991 and 2000 (http//NationMaster.com) From a survey given to 2064 students in 8th through 11th grade in 2002; 83% 0f girls have been sexually harassed; 70% of boys have been sexually harassed; 38% of the students who were harassed by teachers or school boys. Even with these statistics, it is difficult to be certain of the actual amount of sexual assault being committed by teachers to students. The majority of students who have been sexually abused do not report what is happening. The American Association of University Women (AAUW) did a recent study and found that 7% of students claimed having reported sexual harassment to a school staff member. None of the students talked to a staff member that
was labeled a Title IX officer and 35% did not tell anyone, including people close to them (The American Association of University Women reports (AAUW, 2006).

Another survey by the AAUW (AAUW, 2006) on students aged 8-11 revealed that 85% of girls have been sexually harassed, 76% of boys have been sexually harassed and 31% of girls experienced harassment “often” . The study also showed that 18% of boys experienced “harassment often”, 13% of girls reported being forced to do something sexual at school other than kissing and 9% of boys being forced to do something sexual at school other than kissing. Girls were five times more likely to find the incidents disturbing and three times more than to feel the harassment had affected their grades. 25% of girls were harassed by school employees and 10% of boys were harassed by school employees (Anderson 2006:16).

2.3 Regional Literature
The research done in Africa, for many young girls, the most common place where coercion and harassment are experienced is in school. Worse, girls are exposed to sexual harassment physically and verbally by their male classmates. In an extreme case of violence in 1991, 71 teenage girls were raped by their classmates and 19 others were killed at a boarding school in Meru, Kenya (Human rights watch, 2006).

The research done in Africa however has highlighted the role of teachers there in facilitating or perpetuating sexual coercion. A report by Africa Rights (2006) found cases of school teachers attempting to gain sex, in return for good grades or for not failing pupils, in Congo, Ghana, Nigeria, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

The prevalence of child sexual abuse in Africa is compounded by a belief that sexual intercourse with a virgin will cure a man of HIV or AIDS. This belief is common in South Africa, which has the highest number of HIV – positive citizens in the world.

Researcher Susanne Leclerc-Madlala states that the myth that sex with a virgin is a cure for AIDS is not confined to South Africa: “ fellow HIV/ AIDS researchers in Zambia, Zimbabwe and Nigeria have told me that the myth also exist in these countries and that it is being blamed for the high rate of sexual abuse against minors. A report by Africa Rights (2006) found cases of
school teachers attempting to gain sex, in return for good grades or for not failing pupils, in Congo, Ghana, Nigeria, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

An investigative study of abuse of girls in Ghana, Malawi and South African schools by Leach et al (2003) revealed that sexual harassment against girls in school include sexual propositions to girls by older male pupils and teachers, as well as the use of sexually explicit language, overt sexual graffiti. In Ghana 79.2% of girls indicated that they were troubled by older male pupils by kissing, touching their intimate body parts like breasts and buttocks. 36% of the same group claimed that this had an effect on their behavior in class, (Sexual Harassment Policy. 2009.2 Apr. 2009).

The study also argues that girls appear to accept such behaviors by older boys and teachers as an inevitable part of their daily school life thus allowing abusive actions to go unchecked. Evidence also suggests that school officials believe victims are to blame and consequently failed to discipline offenders a belief commonly shared in many countries in the Southern Africa.

Sexual harassment is associated many places which includes school buildings, teacher’s compounds and houses. A study by same Leach et al (2003 indicated that toilets, play fields) and classrooms are hot spot areas for sexual harassment of girls in school. One girl reported that boys stood by the door way after break and tried to fondle their breasts and buttocks, as they were pushing for being late. Girls felt unsupported with no way from authorities to address their plight. Boys patronize specific places like toilets, back yards and school grounds where they smoked marijuana and acted out more violently. Girls who are aware of this avoid those places for their own safety. Unfortunately this is done in the hands of head teachers, parents and guardians or the police Service and other enforcing agencies to school girls. Many again are the elderly people who include male teachers suffering from serious ailment like HIV/AIDS and have a belief that having sex with minors would cure them, (a practice which can result in infecting minors with the virus). Through such beliefs, the innocent children especially girls end up as victims of such circumstances” (Human Rights Watch 2006). The report reveals further that some sexual harassers who include male teachers take traditional herbs prescribed by traditional doctors to improve their libido and thus have devastating effect in as far as female
sexual harassment is concerned in schools. This is mainly caused by perpetrators who may become sexually very active including male teachers.

According to WIDSAA Southern Africa (2000), gender responsive policies have been outlined such as the re-entry of girls into the education system after giving birth and in favour of males in literacy rates, school enrolments, completion rates and education attainments, most of which are in part attributable to girl’s sexual abuse and subsequent pregnancies.

In Africa, WIDSAA Southern Africa (2000) revealed that, the 1994 African Ministers of Education Consultation on school Drop-out held in Mauritius policy makers agreed to review policies and programmes within their countries to fight sexual abuse of girls and to increase the retention of girls in schools.

### 2.4 Literature in Zambia

Sexual harassment has numerous definitions in academia. In Zambia, sexual harassment is defined as “unwelcome” sexual advances, requests for sexual favours and other verbal or physical conduct or a sexual nature when submission to or rejection of this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects a person’s employment or education, University of Zambia (UNZA, 2006:16).

Sexual harassment is a worldly stigmatized and emotionally-charged issue not only in Zambia. According to International Labour Organization, sex is a clear form of gender discrimination and a manifestation of unequal power relations between men and women/boys and girls (ILO, 2001). The persistent nature and prevalence of physical and sexual harassment against girls in Zambia is extremely high and there is overwhelming evidence from government surveys by Central Statistics office, scholars and Non-Governmental Organizations that it exists in Zambian schools.

In Zambia studies undertaken by Mwansa (1995), under PAGE programme identified sexual harassment of girls by male teachers, male classmates and other men as obstacles to attaining quality girl-child education in the country and that its persistence was due to Cultural factors. Mwansa (1995) carried a research and revealed that sexual harassment of girls in schools was more common in rural areas than peri-urban; rural districts like Chongwe had more cases of sexual harassment of girls than Lusaka district schools. Apparent collusion of the parents in the affair (as in a case featured in Lima Basic School in Chongwe by Mwansa (1995), which
reported that in a class of 39 pupils only 9 girls were present, owing to high rate of pregnancies. The same study reported that when a school boy was found sexually harassing a school girl, the matter was silently done away with as long as the boy’s family pays a fine in form of cattle. Parents interviewed argued that they keep their female children from school to protect them from abuse by male teachers and school boys. In the same study but at Pinto Basic School, teachers and male pupils were blamed for perpetuating the scourge.

Other literature similarly suggests that, there are some great cultural influence on persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Generally speaking, Zambia is a culture of men in which girls are raised to be obedient and submissive to men and in which children are raised to be subservient to adults and not assert them. Therefore, there are many factors promoting sexual harassment of pupils especially girl-child in schools. These factors include: “Power, patriarchy and economics drive and other factors has been linked to sexual harassment in schools. Other linkages are traditional Customs, Customary Law and other practices”, (Zandonda, 2010).

Women and Law in Southern Africa, Zambia chapter (Zambia Daily Mail, 2004) pointed out that the Zambian penal code does not prevent sexual harassment because it does not specifically address gender violence and advocates for the need for gender to be criminalized and for deliberate legislation to be enacted to control violence against women and girls. In the penal code, sexual abuse is only dealt with under defilement, which relates to sexual intercourse with a girl who is under the age of 16, with or without her consent (GIDD, 2000). The report also concluded that laws against sexual violence and abuse were inadequately enforced in Zambia. The insensitivity and ineffectual handling of sexual violence complaints by the law enforcement system often deters victims from reporting cases and impedes prosecution of perpetrators (Human right watch, May 02: 2006). Thus, made the late president Mwanawasa to order the establishment of an Inter- Ministerial program on the abuse of girls in Zambia because the report was on causes of sexual abuse of girls in Zambia and how it exposed these girls to HIV/AIDS.

A sexual behavior survey undertaken by the Government of Zambia in 2003 revealed that 16.3% of female respondents from all age groups had experienced forced sexual encounters, with 17.7% of the youngest age sample (15 to 19 years old) reporting “forced sex.” In a 2007 study undertaken by the non-governmental organization Women and Law in Southern Africa Research
and Education Trust-Zambia (WLSA-Zambia), schoolgirls indicated there was violence in schools ranging from verbal sexual harassment to rape. Often girls from the same school participating in one forum, seven had been sexually molested by the same teacher and none had reported it for fear of being victimized or further harassed.

Legislation relating to the protection of children especially girls from sexual harassment and commercial sexual exploitation is largely contained in the amended Penal code 2005 and there is no mention in the laws of Zambia on neither a definition of child sexual harassment nor commercial sexual exploitation of children (GRZ, 2005).

However, Zambia has a dual legal system propagated by statutory and customary laws currently in operation in the Constitution. The duo poses serious challenges in offering effective protection to children from sexual harassment and commercial sexual exploitation. Under statutory law the legal age for marriage is 21 years for both male and females while under customary law, the family controls and consents to sex on behalf of the girl child provided the girl has attained puberty, she may be married off and she is considered old enough to engage in sex. Therefore, amendments made to the Penal Code in 2005 addressing matters relating to child pornography and child marriages is made difficult to protect children against commercial sexual exploitation and sexual harassment in general including in schools. Whereas statutory law prohibits child marriages by stating legal age for marriage at 21 years for both males and females, on the contrary customary law legalizes child marriages. No wonder, nationwide, 42% of girls including those still schooling being married before they are 18 years old, 32% in urban areas and 49% in rural areas (UNICEF, 2005:139).

According to law in Zambia, child sexual harassment is having sexual intercourse with a child below the legal age of 16 and is based on the principle that a child is not capable of consent and that any apparent consent by a child is not considered to be legal consent (Penal Code:2005).

According to law in Zambia, child sexual abuse is having sexual intercourse with a child below the legal age of 16 and is based on the principle that a child is not capable of consent and that any apparent consent by a child is not considered to be legal consent (Daka: 2005). Women and Law in Southern Africa, Zambia chapter (Zambia Daily Mail, 2004) pointed out that the
Zambian penal code does not prevent sexual harassment because it does not specifically address gender violence and advocates for the need for gender to be criminalized and for deliberate legislation to be enacted to control violence against women and girls. In the penal code, sexual abuse is only dealt with under defilement, which relates to sexual intercourse with a girl who is under the age of 16, with or without her consent (GIDD, 2000). The report also concluded that laws against sexual violence and abuse were inadequately enforced in Zambia. The insensitivity and ineffectual handling of sexual violence complaints by the law enforcement system often deters victims from reporting cases and impedes prosecution of perpetrators (Human right watch, May 02: 2006). Thus, made the late president Mwanawasa to order the establishment of an Inter-Ministerial program on the abuse of girls in Zambia because the report was on causes of sexual abuse of girls in Zambia and how it exposed these girls to HIV/AIDS.

Daka, (2005) reviewed section 137 of the penal code of the laws of Zambia. According to him, indecent assault on a female can be committed by intentionally touching a female's private parts such as breasts, buttocks and sexual organs. The offender is guilt of a felony and is liable to imprisonment for 14 years and now 14-25 years in case a female is a minor. However he pointed out that these laws have a lot of flaws which hinders people from reporting and getting justice in Zambia and that whether a minor or not you need medical report to go to the police to report sexual abuse and should be within 72 hours but if you are in the rural set up, where to find the police post and the fine to pay at the clinic for medical report is a major challenge (Daka, 2005).

Women and Law in Southern Africa, Zambia chapter) points out that the Zambian penal code does not specifically address gender violence and advocates for the need for gender to be criminalized and for deliberate legislation to be enacted to control violence against women and girls (Zambia Daily Mail 2004). In the penal code, sexual harassment is not only dealt with under defilement, which relates to sexual intercourse with a girl who is under the age of 16, with or without her consent (GIDD, 2000).

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and Education Trust-Zambia (WLSA-Zambia), schoolgirls indicated there was violence in schools ranging from verbal sexual harassment to rape. Often girls from the same school participating in one forum, seven had been sexually molested by the same teacher and none had reported it for fear of being victimized or further harassed. YWCA (2007) also carried out a research on sexual harassment of girls in schools. It reported indecent dressing as a cause of sexual harassment. They argued that when male teachers and boys see a girl dressed in an eliciting way it arouses their feelings for sex, but they are unable to approach them and harassment is the only option. There was public awareness and concern about this, but many schools felt helpless to bring about change. Both male and female respondents in this study identified girls’ “dress” and their general behavior as a cause of the sexual harassment perpetuation. Respondents and researchers both noted that school crowding and teacher apathy further contributed to sexual behaviors in schools (Terefe and Mengistu, 1997).

A study of sexual abuse of girls by Shakafuswa (2006) revealed that sexual harassment against girls in school include sexual propositions to girls by older male pupils and teachers, as well as the use of sexually explicit language, overt sexual graffiti. The study also argues that girls appear to accept such behaviors by older boys and teachers as an inevitable part of their daily school life thus allowing abusive actions to go unchecked. Evidence also suggests that school officials believe victims are to blame and consequently failed to discipline offenders.

Malama (2009) looked at prevalence and extent of sexual harassment of girls by boys in two high schools in Kitwe covering the period 2006 to 2008. The findings indicated the prevalence rate to be 8 counts at school A which translates into 90% and 10 at school B which was 96%, giving the average of prevalence at 93% for both schools.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction
This section outlines the research methods used in this study as descriptive. It also includes the following: Research Site, Design, Sample Size, Sampling Procedure, Research instruments, pre-testing of research instruments, data collection procedure, problems encountered during data collection, data analysis, limitation of the study and ethical consideration.

3.1 Research Population
The estimated total population of high school pupils and teachers in Lusaka province was not known. 15 secondary schools were gazetted at the time of the study. Data was collected from four public schools namely Chongwe Secondary, Kafue Day Secondary, David Kaunda Technical Secondary and Chinika Secondary and one private school (ZIPAS) in Lusaka.

3.2 Study design
A survey design was used in conducting this research. A survey usually involves collecting data by interviewing a sample of people selected to accurately represent the population under study (Sidhu, 2006). Survey questions concern people’s behaviour, their attitudes, how and where they live, and information about their backgrounds.

Kombo and Tromp (2006) argue that descriptive survey design could be used when collecting information about peoples’ opinions, habits or any social issue. The study used this design because it follows a method of collecting data by interviewing or administering of questionnaires to a sample of individuals (Orodho, 2003). This study was qualitative in nature though quantitative methods was also employed to yield empirical data to compliment the qualitative data. According to Greene et al. (1989) they argue that the use of both quantitative and qualitative paradigms in a study increases the quality of the final results and provides a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon being studied in that the results obtained by the use of one paradigm could be clarified by the use of the paradigm in order to validate the results obtained.
To some extent, this study attempts to reflect upon historical and cross-sectional events as reconstructed by subjects or respondents. This study therefore opted to use a descriptive survey design over other designs to allow for in-depth study of the subjects.

3.3 Sample size
The sample comprised one hundred and thirty eight (138) respondents consisting of eight stakeholders from MoE; five head teachers, 56 teachers and 74 pupils drawn from Kafue, Lusaka and Chongwe districts.

3.4 Sampling procedure
Purposive sampling was used to select the Province while simple random was used to select the districts and the five schools in the province.

Purposive sampling relies on the subjective considerations of the researcher rather than scientific method. Thus, Lusaka province was chosen instead of the other eight. The rationale for choosing Lusaka was to select key informants like the Stakeholders based in Lusaka in order to receive information on what the study is trying to address. In this study the focus was on persistence of sexual harassment of girls in secondary schools and not any institutions.

Those randomly selected included the 100 teachers and pupils per school though only 56 teachers and 74 pupils from Lusaka, Kafue and Chongwe districts managed to participate. Others failed to return the questionnaires and participate in focus group discussion. Names of all Secondary schools in Lusaka Province were written followed by names of all the five districts in the province before classes in schools were also selected to determine which districts and schools will participate in the study. Lusaka, Kafue and Chongwe were selected as districts to take part in the study. Selection for classes was done in schools. From the classes, pupils who participated in the study were those whose names were randomly picked from the box which contained pieces of all names of pupils in participating classes. The selection and shuffling was done in front of pupils, before asking a pupil to pick one name at a time in front of witnesses to avoid biasness. Simple random sampling was used to select districts, teachers and pupils because it provided each participant in the population an equal chance to be selected as a study sample (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). However, the eight (8) key stakeholders from the Teaching Service Commission and the Ministry of Education Science, Early Education and Technical and
Vocational Training and the Provincial Education Standards Office representatives were purposively selected because these people are expected to have firsthand information on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Kombo and Tromp (2006:82) argue that the power of purposive sampling lies in selecting participants who will provide the richest information for in-depth analysis related to the central issue being studied.

3.5 Research instruments
In collecting data for this study, the following research instruments were used: Questionnaires, interview guides and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs). Questionnaires yielded quantitative data from the teachers and pupils while interview guide provided in-depth information from the key informants. FGDs which were conducted with the teachers and pupils provided the qualitative data to supplement the quantitative data.

3.5.1 Questionnaires
The main aim of using the questionnaire was to gather information on persistence of sexual harassment of girls in secondary schools in Lusaka Province. The questionnaires was based on three theories stated in the theoretical framework with at least a question or two were evaluated from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

3.5.2 Focus Group Discussions
Two focus group discussions were conducted in each of the five schools for teachers and pupils. Teachers and pupils were randomly picked from the time table for teachers and class lists obtained from the deputy head teachers and class teachers in some incidences like school E.

3.5.3 Interviews
Guided Interviews are questions asked orally by the researcher to the interviewee. Advantages of structured interview are that the information gathered is reliable as each informant is subjected to similar questions with others and is time –saving since the respondents answer what has been asked by the researcher there and then. Structured interviews were conducted to the 8 stakeholders from teaching Service Commission MoE Headquarters representative, Provincial Education representative and 5 head teachers in the respective secondary schools.
3.5.4 Triangulation
The study used more than one method namely: Questionnaire for teachers and pupils, focus group discussions (FGDs) for teachers and pupils and Interviews for 8 stakeholders in the MoE.

3.6 Pretesting of research instruments
Before carrying out the main study, the researcher carried out a pre-test of the research instruments. The purpose of pre testing the research instruments was to check clarity, strength and weakness of the questionnaires and interview guides as well as to test whether the instruments were clear to pupils and other respondents. Questionnaires were pre-tested on randomly selected pupils and teachers from Libala secondary school.

3.7 Data collection procedure
Data was collected between May and October, 2011. The questionnaires for teachers and pupils were administered first followed by focus group discussions and then interviews with the key informants.

The questionnaires were used to collect data from the teachers and pupils while interview guides were used to gather data from the head teachers in the five schools and key informants from the Ministry of Education, Science, Early Education and Vocational Training (Headquarters in Lusaka. Furthermore, Focus Group Discussions were also held with teachers and pupils to supplement the information obtained from the questionnaires. The guided interviews were conducted first followed by administering of questionnaires and focus group discussions on different days in each of the five selected schools. The researcher facilitated every activity and focus group discussions were tape recorded while respondents filled the questionnaires which were collected immediately by the researcher apart from school C where questionnaires were left with guidance teacher because there was a science practical’s for grade 12s.

3.8 Problems encountered during data collection
The topic under discussion was very sensitive. Therefore; it was at times difficult for the researcher to get all the necessary data especially from head teachers who were not so willing to give information about their schools. Teachers also gave problems in all the five schools to participate in focus group discussions and the researcher had to involve the school administration to intervene. Apathy was also noticed in the answering of questionnaires by teachers and pupils.
in all the five schools under study especially School C where they were left with the guidance teacher leading to 130 teachers and pupils (74 pupils and 56 teachers instead of 200 respondents. Thus, because of apathy not all questionnaires were answered in the five schools that participated in this study. Nonetheless, sufficient data were gathered to give the desired results for this study. The researcher also fell sick and underwent major operation delaying to go in the field to collect data on time.

3.9 Data analysis
This study attempted to capture the required information by using different techniques of data collection from different sources. Therefore, before the commencement of data analysis, all the completed questionnaires were pre-coded edited and processed immediately they were received for completeness and consistence. This helped to identify and correct any observed data errors so that only meaningful data was considered for further analysis. Sarantos (1995) defines data analysis as the process by which data has been processed and converted into meaningful statements. After the collection of data was done, emerging responses that were added to the code. The coding provided a platform for identification of similar patterns from the answers given in the questionnaires. A content and descriptive analysis was used. The organized data was interpreted on account of concurrence and using a computer based on Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), a software package for analyzing data of primary type. Micro excel was another computer method used to produce tables, pie charts based on the data analysed using SPSS. Computer generated tables of frequencies, and cross tabulations were used in describing distributions of the variables which are presented in form of tables or graphs. The qualitative data which was gathered through interview guides was analysed by coding and grouping the emerging themes. Lloyd and Blanc (1996) suggest that in analyzing qualitative data, the initial task is to find concepts that help “make sense of what is going on”.

3.10 Limitations of the study
This study was limited to selected schools in Chongwe, Lusaka and Kafue districts of Lusaka province. The sample was rather small due to limited time and resources in relation to the entire population of schools in Lusaka Province. Therefore, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to other provinces. In addition, problems encountered as outlined in 3.10 above could be a limiting factor for the study.
3.11 Ethical considerations
Ethical concerns were considered in this study. Approval was sought from the University of Zambia Directorate of Research and Graduate studies through the school of Humanities and Social Sciences. A written approval by the Assistant Dean, Research and Graduate Studies was provided to take to the relevant authorities where data and documentations was obtained. Permission too was obtained from the respondents and the aim of the study was clearly explained to the participants before commencement of data collection. Participants were also informed that participation in the study was voluntary; they were free to accept to participate or not in the study if they so wished. Further they were notified that they were free to withdraw at any time if they felt so without any penalty. Participants were further assured of confidentiality and that information obtained from them was going to be used purely for academic purposes.
CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction
This chapter presents the findings of the study in relation with the objectives of the study. The general objective of the study was to investigate the persistence of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers and boys in five selected high schools in Lusaka province. The specific objectives of this study were to find out the cultural factors contributing to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, to establish economic factors that influences sexual harassment of girls in schools, to determine school factors that encourages sexual harassment of girls in schools and to ascertain the laws and regulations put in place to combat sexual harassment of girls in schools. The study accepts the null hypothesis that different factors contribute to persistence of sexual harassment of girls in secondary schools in Lusaka.

4.1 General information / Characteristics of respondents
4.1.1 Distributions of the pupil by grade level and gender

Pupils were required to state their grade level and gender. Their responses were as indicated in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Pupils’ grade level and gender (n = 74)

Source: Filed data, (2011)
At the time of data collection in 2011, high schools enrolled pupils from Grade 10 to Grade 12. Figure 2 shows that by more than half (56.7%; n 42) of the pupils who took part in the study were drawn from Grade eleven classes while 32 (43.3%) came from grade twelve classes. Of the total number of pupils, 26 (35.1%) were female and in Grade eleven while 16 (21.6%) were Grade 11 males. 25.7% (n 19) of the total sample were Grade 12 males and 17.6% (n 13) were Grade 12 females. The figure above illustrates that among the grade 12 pupils who participated in this study, there were more males than females pupils, with males accounting for 59.4% of the Grade twelve’ as compared to 40.6% female Grade twelve’. Further the figure shows that more female than male pupils from grade 11 took part in this study, representing 61.9% and 38.1 % gender for grade eleven in that order.

Gender and grade representation to the entire sample is as per proportions highlighted in the figure above.

4.1.2 Pupils age and gender

Pupils who participated in this study were asked to indicate their age and gender. The following are reactions as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Age of pupils and gender (n = 74)

Source: Filed data, (2011)
The figure 3 above shows that the largest proportion (31.1%; n 23) of respondents was aged 17 years. Of these, 9 were males while 14 were females. This was followed by those who were aged 18 years old who constituted 27% (n 20) of the total number of pupil respondents. Among this proportion, 10 (50 %) were males and another 10 (50%) were females. Further the figure shows that 19 (25.7%) of the pupils indicted that they were aged 16 years. In this proportion, 9 (47.4%) were males and 10 (52.4%) were females. The rest of the pupils, 12 (16.2%) indicated that they were 15 years of age. Among these pupils, 7 (58.3%) were males whereas 5 (41.7%) were females. The respective proportions for gender and age for the entire sample are highlighted in the Figure above. The mean age of the pupils was 16.7. All the pupils were adolescents.

4.1.3 Distribution of pupils by grade level and school
As regards to the grade level and school of the pupils who took part in this study, Table below shows the distributions of pupils by grade and school.
Table 1: School and grade level of pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of School</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chirika High School (School B)</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>3 (4.0%)</td>
<td>5 (6.8%)</td>
<td>8 (10.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>3 (4.0%)</td>
<td>4 (5.4%)</td>
<td>7 (9.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZIPAS High School (School E)</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>2 (2.7%)</td>
<td>7 (9.5%)</td>
<td>9 (12.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>4 (5.4%)</td>
<td>6 (8.1%)</td>
<td>10 (13.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David Kaunda Technical High School</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>2 (2.7%)</td>
<td>1 (1.4%)</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(School C)</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>2 (2.7%)</td>
<td>3 (4.0%)</td>
<td>5 (6.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chongwe High School (School A)</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>4 (5.4%)</td>
<td>4 (5.4%)</td>
<td>8 (10.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>10 (13.5%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10 (13.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kafue Day High School (School D)</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>5 (6.8%)</td>
<td>9 (12.1%)</td>
<td>14 (18.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>35 (47.3%)</td>
<td>39 (52.7%)</td>
<td>74 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed data, (2011)

Table 1 shows that the majority of the pupils (56.8%; n 42) were in grade 11. At 18.9% (n 14) of the total number of respondents, school D accounting for the largest proportion of Grade 11 pupils. This was followed by School E, 9 (12.2%) and then School A represented by 8 (10.8%). As for the grade 12 pupils, most of them came from A and E Secondary Schools, represented by
10 (13.5%) each of the total respondents. This was followed by B Secondary School accounting for 7 (9.5%). The rest of the findings on this item were as shown in the table above.

### 4.2 Findings from pupils/teachers from questionnaires and focus group discussions presented as quantitative and qualitative data

Presented in this section are the findings of the study from the quantitative and qualitative data as obtained from the field during data collection?

#### 4.2.1 Length of period pupils have been in school

As regards to the period that the pupils have been in the same school, Table 2 shows their responses.

**Table 2: Period pupil have been in school**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 2 years</td>
<td>5 (6.8%)</td>
<td>10 (13.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – 4 years</td>
<td>13 (17.6%)</td>
<td>11 (14.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – 6 years</td>
<td>17 (22.9%)</td>
<td>18 (24.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>35 (47.2%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>39 (52.8%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

As can be seen in Table 2, 35 pupils (47.2%) indicated that they have been in the same school for a period for a period of between 5 to 6 years. Among these pupils, 18 (51.4%) were females while 17 (48.6%) were males. The table further shows that 24 (32.5%) pupils said that they have been in school for a period of between 3 – 4 years. Of these, 13 (54.2%) were males whereas 11 (45.8%) were females. The least, 15 (20.3%) were those who indicated that they have been in school for a period of between 1 – 2 years. The findings of the above data indicates that most pupils have been in school for quite some good period of time and thus may be in a position of knowing what was happening in school as regards to sexual harassment of girls in the school.
4.2.2 Living arrangements of the pupils
Pupils were asked to say who they were living with. Figure 4 below shows their responses.

**Figure 4: Living arrangement of pupil (n = 74)**

![Pie chart showing living arrangements of pupils]

- **Both parents:** 50.0%
- **Boarding school:** 29.7%
- **Relatives:** 20.3%

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

Figure 4 shows that the majority of the pupils, 37 (50.0%) indicated that they were living with both parents. Of these, 16 were males and 21 were females. Further the figure shows that 22 (29.7%) said that they were living in boarding school. Amongst these pupils, 12 were males whereas 10 were females. 15 (30.3%) of the pupils said that that they were living with their relatives. Amongst these, 7 were males while 8 were females. The above finding implies that the majority of the pupils who took part in this study lived both their mothers and fathers.

4.2.3 Occupation of pupils’ parents
The occupation of parents was sought with the assumption that parents’ occupation has direct influence on children’s welfare. To this effect, pupils were asked to state the occupations of their parents/guardians. Figure 6 shows their reactions to this variable.
Figure 5: Pupils parents’ occupation (n = 74)

Source: Filed data, (2011)

As can be seen in Figure 5, the largest proportion of the pupils indicated that their parents were farmers while 36 (48.6%) said that their parents’ occupation was ‘trading’. Further, 17 (23.2%) said that their parents were involved in other occupations. Furthermore, the figure shows that 3 (4.0%) of the pupils said that their parents were fishermen while 1 (1.3%) indicated that their parents’ occupation was artisan. Furthermore, 1 (1.3%) of the pupils indicated that their parents were teachers. The finding above shows that the predominant occupation of the parents was farming.

4.2.4 School and gender of teachers

As regards to the gender and schools where the study was conducted, Table below illustrates the composition of the teachers and schools that participated in this study.

Table 3: School and gender of teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of secondary school</th>
<th>Gender of respondent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male (in %)</td>
<td>Female (in %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinika High (School B)</td>
<td>5 (8.9%)</td>
<td>10 (17.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZIPAS Private (School E)</td>
<td>7 (5.4%)</td>
<td>3 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David Kaunda Technical</td>
<td>3 (5.4%)</td>
<td>1 (1.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows that 32 (57.1%) male and 24 (42.9%) female teachers participated in this study. Of these 15 (26.8%) were drawn from school B and another 15 (26.8%) were from A High School while 12 (21.4%) and 10 (17.9%) were drawn from schools D and E secondary schools respectively. The rest of the schools and respondents and their gender were as shown in the table. The table indicates that there were more male teachers (57.1%) as compared to their female counterparts (42.9%) who participated in the study and that more of these teachers were drawn from A and B Secondary Schools with the two schools making up 53.6% of the total number of teachers in the study.

4.2.5 Age of teachers
In terms of the ages of the teachers and their gender, table 4 below shows the distributions.

**Table 4: Age and gender of teacher respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Gender of respondent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 – 29</td>
<td>15 (26.8%)</td>
<td>10 (17.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 39</td>
<td>9 (16.1%)</td>
<td>8 (14.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49</td>
<td>6 (10.7%)</td>
<td>4 (7.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 – 59</td>
<td>1 (1.8%)</td>
<td>2 (3.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from Table 4 the largest proportion was for teachers were aged between 20 and 29 years old, with 25 (44.6%) of the teachers in this age group. Of these male, 15 were male and 10 were female. This was followed by those in the age range 30 to 39 at 30.4% (n 17). Further, 17.9% (n 10) were aged between 40 and 49 years old. Other age groups were as illustrated in Table 4. The table shows that most of the teachers were still young and energetic to serve the ministry for a longer period before they retire.

### 4.2.6 Teachers highest professional qualification

Teachers were required to indicate their highest professional qualification they had attained. Their responses were as shown in Table 5 below.

#### Table 5: Highest professional qualification of teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender of respondent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>24 (42.9%)</td>
<td>18 (32.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>5 (8.9%)</td>
<td>4 (7.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3 (5.3%)</td>
<td>1 (1.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (1.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32 (57.1%)</td>
<td>24 (42.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed data, (2011)

As can be seen from the table 5 above, the majority of the teachers (75%; n 42) indicated that they had a diploma as their highest professional qualification. Of these, 24 were males while 18
were females. The table further show that 9 or 16.1%) of the teachers said that they had a university degree as their highest professional qualification. Amongst these teachers, 5 were males while 4 were females.

4.2.7 Teachers teaching experience
Teachers were asked to indicate the period they have been in the teaching profession. Their reactions were as shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Teachers teaching experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching experience</th>
<th>Gender of respondent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 – 4 years</td>
<td>5 (8.9%)</td>
<td>6 (10.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – 9 years</td>
<td>12 (21.4%)</td>
<td>7 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 – 14 years</td>
<td>5 (8.9%)</td>
<td>7 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 – 19 years</td>
<td>7 (5.4%)</td>
<td>3 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years and above</td>
<td>3 (5.4%)</td>
<td>1 (1.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32 (57.1%)</td>
<td>24 (42.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed data, (2011)

As can be seen in the table above, about a third (33.9%; n 19) of the respondents had between 5 to 9 years of teaching experience. Of these, 12 were males while 7 were females. Further, 12 (21.4%) of the teachers indicated that they had between 10 and 14 years of teaching experience. Of these 7 were females while 5 were males. Furthermore, 11 (19.6%) of the teachers indicated that they were in the teaching profession for a period of between 0 to 4 years. Of these, 6 were females while 5 were males. The rest of the responses were as shown in the table 12.
4.3 Whether pupils were aware of sexual harassment in schools

Pupils that participated in the study were asked to indicate if they were aware about sexual harassment of girls in schools. Their views were as shown in Figure 6.

**Figure 6: Whether pupils were aware of sexual harassment (n = 74)**

![Pie chart showing 47.3% awareness and 52.7% unawareness]

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

Figure 6 above shows that 47.3% of the pupils (n 35) were aware of the existence of sexual harassment of girls in school while 39 (52.7%) said that they were not aware about it. Among the pupils who indicated that they were aware of sexual harassment of girls in schools, 9 (25.7%) were males and 26 (74.3%) were females. As for the pupils who said that they were not aware of sexual harassment in school, 26 (66.7%) were males while 13 (33.3%) were females. From the figure, it is clear that female pupils were more likely to be aware of the problem than male pupils.

4.3.1 Whether teachers were aware about sexual harassment of girls in school

Teachers too were asked whether they aware of sexual harassment in schools, all the teachers who participated in this study indicated that they were aware about sexual harassment of girls in their respective schools. This was opposite to 47.3% of pupils who said yes and 52.7 who said no. In short teachers were more aware of sexual harassment in their school than pupils.

4.3.2 Pupils’ response on the seriousness of sexual harassment of girls in school

Respondents were required to indicate the level of seriousness of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Their reactions were as shown in Table 7.
Table 7: Pupils’ responses on the level of seriousness of sexual harassment of girls in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very serious</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
<td>9 (12.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious</td>
<td>11 (14.9%)</td>
<td>12 (16.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very serious</td>
<td>13 (17.6%)</td>
<td>6 (8.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not serious</td>
<td>5 (6.8%)</td>
<td>4 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
<td>8 (10.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>35 (47.2%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>39 (52.8%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

The data in Table 7 above illustrates that 23 pupils (31.1%) indicated that sexual harassment of girls in schools was “serious” while 12 (16.3%) said that it was “very serious”. Among the pupils who indicated that it was “serious”, 12 were females while 11 were males. As for those who said that it was “very serious”, 9 were females while 3 were males. Nonetheless, 19 (25.7%) of the pupils said that it was “not very serious”. Of these respondents, 13 were males whereas 6 were females. The rest of the findings were as shown in the table. From the findings above, it could be said that most of the pupils were of the view that sexual harassment of girls in schools was a serious issue which has raised a lot of concern among the community.

4.4 Pupils views on whether sexual harassment of girls was a problem in Zambian schools

Pupils were required to say if sexual harassment was a problem in Zambian schools. Their responses were as shown in Figure 7 below.
Figure 7: Pupils responses on whether sexual harassment of girls was a problem in schools (n = 74)

Source: Filed data, (2011)

As can be seen from Figure 7, 41 (55.4%) of the pupils said that sexual harassment of girls in schools was a problem. Among these pupils, 30 (73.2%) were females while 11 (26.8%) were males. The figure further shows that 33 (44.6%) of the pupils said that it was not a problem. Of these pupils, 24 (72.7%) were males and 9 (27.3%) were females. The above findings show that more females than males were of the view that sexual harassment of girls in schools was a problem. The results are opposite of what they pupils said on awareness of sexual harassment in their school and yet the question is almost the same.

For the 41 (55.4%) who stated that sexual harassment of girls in schools was a problem, they reported that of late there has been a high prevalence of male teacher relationships with some female pupils.
4.4.1 Teachers views on whether sexual harassment of girls in schools was a problem in school

Teacher’s responses on this issue were as illustrated in Figure 13 below.

Figure 8: Views of the teachers on whether sexual harassment of girls in schools was a big problem

Source: Filed data, (2011)

As can be seen from the figure 8, more than half of the teachers (55.3%; n 31) agreed that sexual harassment of girls was a big problem in schools. Amongst these respondents, 18 were males while 13 were females. However, 12 (21.4%) of the teachers said that it was not a problem. Of these teachers, 7 were females while 5 were males. The rest of the teachers, 13 (23.2%) did not respond to this issue. Amongst these, 9 were males while 4 were females.
4.5 Teachers’ responses on whether there has been any case of sexual harassment in their school in the past 3 years

Teachers were asked state whether they had witnessed sexual harassment of girls in school in the past three years. Their responses were as shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Cases of sexual harassment of girls in the past three years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Gender of respondent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10 (17.9%)</td>
<td>17 (30.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7 (5.4%)</td>
<td>3 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3 (5.4%)</td>
<td>1 (1.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>12 (21.4%)</td>
<td>3 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32 (57.1%)</td>
<td>24 (42.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed data, (2011)

In Table 8, 27 teachers (48.2%) said “yes”, they had witnessed sexual harassment at their school in the past three years. Among these, 17 were females while 10 were males. Further, the table shows that 10 (17.9%) said “no”. Of these respondents, 7 were males while 3 were females. The rest of the responses were as indicated in the table. The above findings show that there were occurrences of sexual harassment of girls in school during the period in question.

4.5.1 Pupil’s opinion on whether there were guidelines and fairness of those guidelines on sexual harassment

Pupils were required to indicate whether their schools had guideline on sexual harassment and how fair the guidelines were in schools. They further asked whether those guidelines contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. The findings showed that 39 (52.7%) of the pupils were of the view that lack of guidelines on sexual harassment in schools contribute
to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. of these, 26 (66.7%) were males whereas 13 (33.3%) were females. Furthermore, the findings revealed that 35 (47.3%) of the pupils stated that lack of guidelines on sexual harassment in schools did not have any effect on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst this category of respondents, 9 (25.7%) were males while 26 (74.3%) were females. The findings above simply imply that lack of guidelines on sexual harassment in schools contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools because they do not exist in the school visited. Both teachers and pupils denied having guidelines on sexual harassment in their schools.

4.5.2 Pupils views on whether lack of guidelines on sexual harassment in schools contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

The pupils as respondents were required to indicate whether lack of guidelines on sexual harassment in schools contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. The findings showed that 39 (52.7%) of the pupils were of the view that lack of guidelines on sexual harassment in schools contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Of these, 26 (66.7%) were males whereas 13 (33.3%) were females. Furthermore, the findings revealed that 35 (47.3%) of the pupils stated that lack of guidelines on sexual harassment in schools did not have any effect on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst this category of respondents, 9 (25.7%) were males while 26 (74.3%) were females. The findings above simply imply that lack of guidelines on sexual harassment in schools is a danger curbing sexual harassment of girls in schools.

4.5.3 Teacher's opinion on whether there were guidelines on sexual harassment in their schools and fairness of those guidelines on sexual harassment

Teachers were required to indicate whether the guidelines on sexual harassment were there and whether they were fair. They indicated that only school rules which has nothing to do with sexual harassment in schools were there and not school guidelines on sexual harassment.
Other reactions were as shown in the Figure 9 below.

**Table 9: Teachers opinion on whether the guide-lines on sexual harassment were fair.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Gender of respondent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12 (21.4%)</td>
<td>7 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>19 (33.9%)</td>
<td>14 (25.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1 (1.8%)</td>
<td>3 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32 (57.1%)</td>
<td>24 (42.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

As can be seen from the table 9, more than half teachers (58.9%; n 33) were of the view that the guidelines were not fair. Amongst these teachers, 19 were males whereas 14 were females. However, 19 (33.9%) of the teachers felt that it was fair. Of these 12 were males while 7 were females. The above findings confirm that the guidelines were not fair.

**4.5.4 Pupils’ knowledge on policies regarding sexual harassment of girls in schools**

Respondents were asked to say whether they had knowledge on policies in relation to sexual harassment of girls in schools in Zambia. Their reactions were as shown in Table 10 below.
Table 10: Pupils responses on whether there were any policies in place in schools on sexual harassment of girls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>9 (12.0%)</td>
<td>26 (35.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>26 (35.2%)</td>
<td>13 (17.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35 (47.2%)</td>
<td>39 (52.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed data, (2011)

The table shows that 39 (52.8%) of the pupils indicated that they did not know any policies in place which deal with issues pertaining to sexual harassment of girls in schools while 35 (47.2%) said that they knew such policies. Amongst the pupils who said that they did not know any policies in school to deal with sexual harassment of girls in schools, 26 were males and 13 were females. Furthermore, the table shows that amongst those who answered in affirmative, 26 were females while 9 were males. The findings above reveal that these pupils are not protected, or are not aware of any protection in their schools being reinforced. Protection of pupils especially girls is cardinal in the fight of sexual harassment of girls in schools.

4.5.5 Aware of any policy on sexual harassment that prevents sexual harassment of girls in schools

Teachers were asked to say whether they were aware of any policy that prevents sexual harassment of girls in schools. Their reactions were as shown in Figure 10 below.
Figure 9: Whether teachers were aware of any policy on prevention of sexual harassment of girls in schools

Source: Filed data, (2011)

As can be seen from the figure above, just over half of the teachers (51.8%; n 29) indicated that they were not aware about the policy that prevents the sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst these teachers, 19 were males whereas 10 were females. However, a quarter (25%) consisting of 5 males and 9 females said that they were aware of the policy that prevents sexual harassment of girls in schools. The rest of the respondents, 13 (23.2%) did not respond to this question.

4.5.6 Pupils’ responses on receptiveness of school authority on cases regarding sexual harassment of girls in schools

Pupils were asked to state how they perceived the receptiveness of school authorities once a case on sexual harassment if reported to their office. Their responses were as illustrated in Table 11 Below.
Table 11: Pupils’ responses on easiness to report sexual harassment of girls in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very easy</td>
<td>4 (5.4%)</td>
<td>2 (2.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>6 (8.1%)</td>
<td>5 (6.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very easy</td>
<td>15 (20.3%)</td>
<td>19 (25.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not easy</td>
<td>8 (10.8%)</td>
<td>9 (12.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
<td>4 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35 (47.2%)</td>
<td>39 (52.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed data, (2011)

Table 11 shows that the majority of the pupils, 34 (46.0%) were of the view that it was not very easy at all to report issues pertaining to sexual harassment of girls in schools. Of these pupils, 19 were females whereas 15 were males. The table further shows that 17 (23.0%) of the pupils indicated that it was not easy. Amongst these respondents, 9 were females and 8 were females. However, 6 males and 5 females, a combined total of 14.9% said it was easy. The rest of the responses were as indicated in the table above. From the results above, it is not easy to report sexual harassment cases in these schools.

4.5.7 Pupils’ views on how girls are treated once they refuse to be in relationship with a male teacher or male pupil

As regards to the way girl pupils are treated once they refuse to have a relationship with a male teacher or pupil, the findings were as shown in Table 12.
Table 12: Pupils’ views on treatment of girls by male teachers and pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude of teachers</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very fair</td>
<td>6 (8.1%)</td>
<td>2 (2.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>7 (9.4%)</td>
<td>9 (12.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair</td>
<td>9 (12.2%)</td>
<td>10 (13.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very unfair</td>
<td>10 (13.5%)</td>
<td>16 (21.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
<td>2 (2.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>35 (47.2%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>39 (52.8%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

As can be seen from Table 12 above, the largest majority of the pupils (35.1%; n 26) were of the view that pupils were very unfairly treated by the male teachers once they refused to have a relationship with them. Of these respondents, 16 were females whereas 10 were males. In addition, 19 or 25.7% out of 74 female pupils felt that girls in school were “unfairly” treated by male teachers and pupils. Amongst these respondents, 10 were females and 9 were males. However, quite a small number of the pupils, 8 (10.8%) were of the view that the girls were “very fairly” treated by the male teachers and pupils in school. Of these pupils, 6 were males whereas 2 were females. From the above findings, it may be said that girls in schools were “unfairly” treated by both the boys and male teachers in school.

When asked what they meant as unfair treatment, most of the pupils indicated that these pupils were either punished or given unfair marks in class and were subjected to all sorts of embarrassing statement. As for the boy peers, they normally threatened to beat up the girls who refused to have a relationship with them. The study revealed that pupils who reported sexual harassment cases faced obstacles in their respective schools.
4.5.8 Pupil’s responses in FGD on obstacles in dealing with sexual harassment cases successfully

During the focus group discussions with the pupils at E and A schools, most of them blamed the school authorities for failing to instill morality and integrity in their teachers by concealing perpetrators. One pupil said:

“School authorities have a tendency of concealing the perpetrator, especially if it is a teacher in the school.”

Another issue that emerged during the focus group discussion was that of giving concrete evidence of the case. Pupils said that giving evidence was rather difficult. A pupil at school A reported in a focus group the following:

“The school authorities would not believe us when we report about the incidence. But I wonder why they do this because a victim knows about it. I would appreciate if the authorities helped us with documentation to take to the appropriate authorities”, (13th Oct, 2011).

Failure on the part of the school to instill morality and integrity in its members also came out during the focus group discussions with the pupils. The pupils said that school authorities fail to discipline the erring teachers and pupils. This, they said, contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. One of the female teacher at school A said:

“When a case is reported to the authority, it is individualized and interpreted in a legal perspective. Attention is given to the behaviour of the accused and the burden is left on the victim to prove that she has really been harassed against her will”, (13th Oct.2011).

School rules as well as code of conducts in all the four public schools were mentioned as obstacles in dealing with sexual harassment cases successfully. One male pupil said:

“Some school rules are so stiff and do not permit us to have access to the school administration. This contributes to increased cases of sexual harassment in schools especially to our girls”, (.

As observed from the above findings through the FGDs, there is overwhelming evidence that there are mammoth obstacles in dealing with sexual harassment cases successfully.
4.5.9 **Obstacles in dealing with sexual harassment cases successfully as viewed by the Teachers.**

In a focus group discussion with the teachers at High school B, it was noted that the main obstacle in dealing with sexual harassment of girls in their school and many other schools was that girls who are desperate to continue their education and whose parents cannot provide the necessary support are forced into sexual relationships with older partners, who will give them money for fees in exchange for sexual favours. One of the teachers in school A said parents also contribute to the scourge in that:

“Some parents in some cases accept the need for daughters to be ‘sponsored’ in this way” (School A, 7th Oct.2011).

4.5.10 **Pupil’s responses in FGD on whether girls that have experienced sexual harassment in school face many obstacles to obtaining redress**

In a focus group discussion with the pupils at school D, most of the pupils argued that girls that have experienced sexual harassment have faced many challenges to obtain redress from the school authorities. They said that the girls feared being victimized by the school authority and were also in fear of stigmatization by their fellow pupils once they discovered that they were victims of sexual harassment.

Unfriendly welcome or the negative attitude by the school authorities was yet another obstacle mentioned in a FGD in obtaining redress. One female pupil in school D said:

“When I went to report my case, the head teacher said that I should just forget about it. This was when a teacher in school sexually harassed me that I am an adult and that I should learn to keep things in secrecy” (26th Oct.2011).

Another female pupil at school D reported thus:

*Upon presenting my case, which involved a teacher, I was told that it was a taboo to do so. The head teacher told me that don’t you know that what you want to do will cost the teacher’s job? (26th Oct.2011).*

Access to the offices of the school authorities was also another obstacle that came out during the focus group discussions with the pupils. One pupil at school D still reported that:
“As I was trying to go to see the head teacher to report about the harassment which involved my peer boys, I was blocked by a senior teacher who defended the action taken by the boy” (26th Oct.2011).

Another pupil at the same school said:

“Absence of clear policies and procedures for preventing and responding to harassment, attitudes among school authorities that marginalize sexual harassment, insufficient support services for pupils who are subjected to abuse, and a preference for resolving cases of abuse internally rather than reporting them to relevant offices or civil authorities, all contribute to increased persistence of sexual harassment in schools” (26th Oct.2011).

The above revelations give direction to an understanding that girls that have experienced sexual harassment in school face many obstacles to obtaining redress.

4.5.11 Pupils’ perceptions of attitudes of teachers and school administrators towards sexual harassment of girls in school

Respondents were required to give information on the attitudes of teachers and school administrators towards sexual harassment of girls in school. Their reactions were as indicated in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude of teachers</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very positive</td>
<td>5 (6.7%)</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>2 (2.7%)</td>
<td>1 (1.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very positive</td>
<td>23 (31.1%)</td>
<td>27 (36.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not positive</td>
<td>2 (2.7%)</td>
<td>3 (4.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
<td>5 (6.7%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from Table 13, the majority of the pupils (67.6%; n 50) said that it was “not very positive or as expected”. Among these respondents, 23 were males while 27 were males. Further the table shows that 8 (10.8%) of the pupils were of the view that it was “very positive”. Of these pupils, 5 were males while 3 were females. Furthermore, 2 male and 3 females or 6.7% of all respondents indicated that it was “not positive”. From the above findings, it could be said that the poor attitude of the teachers towards sexual harassment of girls in schools contributes to the vice.

4.5.12 Action the school authority takes once a case of sexual harassment of girls has been reported to them

As regards to what action the school authority takes when a case involving sexual harassment of girls is reported to them, majority of the pupils, 39 (57.2%) out of 74 pupils who responded to this issue, said that nothing much was done by the school authority as the schools lacked handling procedures for protecting pupils who reported sexual harassment in schools. However, 16 (21.6%) said that the school authorities preferred that such cases be resolved quietly and internally. Further, 11 (14.9%) of the pupils reported that if the case involved a teacher, he was transferred to another school. Furthermore, 8 (10.8%) of the pupils reported that the school authority rarely engage formal Ministry of Education processes for the discipline and possible dismissal of teachers. When asked why the school authority did not react accordingly, the reason that was frequently offered by the interviewed boys and girls was that pupils failed to report sexual harassment because of fear of retaliation, particularly when the perpetrator was a teacher.

4.5.13 Pupils responses in FGD on whom they felt were the perpetrators of sexual harassment of girls in schools

As regards perpetrators of sexual harassment, most of the girls said that teachers were among the highest number of these perpetrators in schools. One female pupil at school A high said: “Girls who refuse teachers’ love proposition are unjustifiably punished”.

Another female pupil at the same school said: “If a teacher (male) proposes you and you turn him down, when he comes to class to teach, he would ask you difficult questions and if you are not able to answer he would punish you mercilessly. Same applies to the seniors (males) but in
their case, the least thing (offence) you do they punish you……you would be asked to weed or scrub the dining hall” (13th Oct.2011).

Boys in school were also mentioned as perpetrators of sexual harassment of girls in school. For instance one girl child at school C which a boarding said:

“Boys have a tendency of threatening us that should we refuse their advances we risk being humiliated and beaten” (11th Oct 2011).

Figure 10 Teachers’ responses on whether there were any laws and regulations put in place to fight sexual harassment of girls in schools

As regards to whether there were any laws and regulations put in place to fight sexual harassment of girls in schools, the teachers’ responses were as shown in Figure 11 below.

Source: Filed data, (2011)

The figure 11 above shows that 46.4% of the teachers (n 26), agreed that there were laws and regulations put in place to fight sexual harassment of girls in schools while 17 (30.4%) disagreed and 8 (14.3%) did not respond to this issue, of the teachers who agreed, 16 were males whereas 10 were females. Amongst the teachers who disagreed, 8 were males and 9 were females. The findings above shows that there were laws and regulation put in place to fight sexual harassment of girls in schools as evidenced by the knowledge by some teachers who stated it.
4.5.14 Pupil’s responses in FGD on their views on effectiveness of procedures for handling sexual harassment of girls in schools

It was discovered in the FGDs with the pupils that schools lacked handling procedures for protecting pupils who reported sexual harassment.

One pupil at school C narrated:

“One girl at our school reported that a teacher had threatened to beat her if she did not have sexual relations with him. Instead of the school authority taking the necessary action, they surrendered the teacher to another school without stating the cause of transfer for fear of becoming witness in case parents reported to Provincial office” (11th Oct.2011).

However, one male pupil in the same focus group discussion disclosed thus:

“Only if a girl student became pregnant and the situation could not be swept under the rug, schools did take disciplinary action against teachers and not boys” (11th Oct.2011).

Perhaps the reason most frequently offered by the interviewed boys and girls was failure to report sexual harassment because of fear of retaliation, particularly where the perpetrator was a teacher. Preferring to resolve cases of sexual abuse quietly and internally or, at the most, to transfer abusive teachers to another school, schools rarely engaged formal Ministry of Education processes for the discipline and possible dismissal of teachers.

4.5.15 Views on Adequacy/ inadequate of handling sexual harassment of girls in school
Pupils were asked to indicate how adequate the school handled cases pertaining sexual harassment of girls. Their reactions were as shown in Table 14.
Table 14: Pupils responses as regards to adequacy/inadequacy of handling sexual harassment cases in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very adequate</td>
<td>11 (14.8%)</td>
<td>12 (16.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
<td>4 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very adequate</td>
<td>15 (20.3%)</td>
<td>19 (25.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not adequate</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>3 (4.1%)</td>
<td>1 (1.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35 (47.2%)</td>
<td>39 (52.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

As can be seen from the table above, the largest proportion of the pupils, (45.9%; n 34) said that handling of sexual harassment of girls in schools was “not very adequate” handled. In the midst of these pupils, 15 were males while 19 females. Further, the figure shows that 23(31.0%) were of the view that it was “very adequately” handled. Of these, 11 were males while 12 were females. Furthermore, the table shows that 7 (9.5%) indicated that it was “not adequately” handled. Of these respondents, 3 were males while 4 were females. The least, 4 (5.4%) said that they did not have an idea on the subject. Amongst the pupils who indicated that they did not know how the cases were handled, 3 were males and 1 was a female pupil. However, procedure followed when handling cases of sexual harassment in these school was not satisfactory.

**4.5.16 Teachers views on the adequacy of laws and regulations governing sexual of girls in schools**

Majority of the respondents, 35 (62.5%) were of the view that the legal and policy framework addressing child sexual harassment was not adequate. Of these respondents, 26 were females while 9 were males. Furthermore, 15 (26.8%) were of the view that the laws and regulations governing sexual harassment of girls in schools had more weaknesses than strengths. Amongst
these respondents, 8 were females while 7 were males. The rest of the respondents, 6 (10.7%) did not respond to this issue. Of those who did not respond, 4 were females whereas 2 were males.

**4.5.17 Teachers’ responses on how are sexual harassment cases handled in the school**
About 36 (64.3%) percent of the teachers said they were not happy about how sexual abuse cases were handled in schools. Amongst these respondents, 10 were males while 26 were females. However, 20 (35.7%) said that they were happy with the way sexual harassment of girls in schools are handled. Of these teachers, 11 were males while 9 were females. The above finding shows that teachers were not happy with the way cases of sexual harassment of girls in schools were handled.

For the respondents who said that they were not happy with the way sexual harassment of girls in schools were handled, 20 (55.6%) said that sanctions usually meted out to perpetrators were not deterrent enough. Further, 16 (45.4%) said that the perpetrators should be reported to the policy.

**4.5.18 Teachers view on how procedures dealing with sexual harassment of girls in school can be made more effective**
Most of the respondents, 35 (62.5%) were of the view that perpetrators of sexual harassment of girls in schools should be arrested. Of these, 24 were females while 11 were males. However, others, 12 (21.4%) were of the view that if it involved teachers, such teachers should be given stiffer punishment. Amongst these respondents, 10 were females while 2 were males. Furthermore, 9 (16.1%) of the teachers were of the view that if it involved teachers, they should be expelled. Of these respondents, 7 were males while 2 were females. The above findings confirm that teachers were of the view that procedures of handling sexual harassment of girls in schools should be stiffened.

**4.5.19 Pupils responses in FGD on their views on how authorities in schools handle sexual harassment of girls**
The FGDs revealed that schools did not handle well issues surrounding sexual harassment of girls in schools. For instance at Secondary School E, a pupil explained thus:

“At our school, the authorities seem to be occupied with other issues. They rarely attend to issues on sexual harassment of girls. It is a waste of time reporting cases of sexual harassment in our school” (19th Oct. 2011).
It was also found from the FGDs that boys and girls expressed uncertainty on reporting issues relating to sexual harassment to their parents and guardians and if at all they were supposed to report because their head teachers were too unfriendly to entertain sexual harassment cases.

One friend to the girl victim of sexual harassment at school A revealed that:

“It is sheer waste of time to report sexual harassment in her school because, authorities do not take action, instead the revelation would only make them embarrassed and stigmatized by friends” (13th Oct.2011).

From the above findings, it is evident that school authorities were hostile to issues regarding sexual harassment of girls in schools.

4.5.20 Teachers’ views on how sexual harassment cases are handled in school
In explaining how sexual abuse cases are handled in schools teachers during focus group discussions at schools C and D had this to say:

“Sexual harassment cases reported are investigated and if the case was found to have merit, it was then referred to the guidance and counseling teacher or head teacher for advice before sanctions are applied if necessary. If a teacher was identified as perpetrator, the case was referred to the Provincial Education Officer (P.E.O) and then Permanent Secretary and finally for appropriate action to be taken it has to be Teaching Service Commission only” (11th and 26th Oct.2011 respectively).

However, both sexes of teachers expressed strongly during focus group discussions that they were not satisfied about the way sexual harassment cases were handled and explained in depth.

4.5.21 Pupils views on whether concealing of perpetrators by school administrators to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools
As regards to whether concealing of perpetrators by the school authority contributes to sexual harassment of girls in schools, more than half of the pupils, 39 (52.7%) were of the view that concealing of perpetrators did not contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. However, 35 (47.3%) of the pupils said that it contributed to sexual harassment of girls
in schools. For the respondents who indicated that it did not contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools, 24 (61.5%) were females while 15 (38.5%) were males.

Furthermore, for the respondents who said that concealing of perpetrators contributed to sexual harassment of girls in schools, 20 (57.1%) were male pupils whereas 15 (42.9%) were females. The findings above imply that to some extent, concealing of perpetrators contributes to sexual harassment of girls in schools.

4.5.22 Pupils responses in FGD on their views of pupils on whether laid down procedures in handling sexual harassment of girls in school contributed to its persistence

During FGDs with the pupils, it was observed that procedures laid down in addressing sexual harassment in schools were not adequate.

The discussions revealed that most pupils especially girls in the four government schools do not have adequate knowledge on their rights enshrined as regards to sexual harassment by the male teachers and peer boys. A pupil said:

“We do not know how to be assertive, who to report to when harassed sexually and the role we are to play in ending sexual abuse cases involving ourselves”.

The Legal and Policy Framework addressing child sexual harassment is not adequate, it has more weaknesses than strengths. The Zambian legal system is composed of judicial officers, law enforcement officers and legal practitioners. Legislation relating to the protection of children from sexual harassment and commercial sexual exploitation is largely contained in the Penal code and there is neither mention in the laws of Zambia a definition of child sexual harassment nor commercial sexual exploitation of children.

4.5.23 Pupils views on whether lack of stiffer punishment to perpetrators contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

As regards to whether lack of stiff punishment influenced the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, Figure 10.10 shows their reactions.
As can be seen from the figure 12 above, most of the respondents, 40 (54.1%) were of the view that lack of stiff punishment did not contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Of these, 27 (67.5%) were females and 13 (32.5%) were males. However, 34 (45.9%) indicated that lack of stiff punishment did influence sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst this category of respondents, 22 (64.7%) were males and 12 (35.3%) were females. The findings above, despite a small difference between the number of respondents who agreed and disagreed, it shows that pupils were of the view that lack of stiff punishment on the perpetrators was not an issue.

### 4.5.24 Pupils views on whether lack of action by school authorities contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

As regards to lack of action by school authorities once a case has been reported, the majority of the pupils, 48 (64.9%) agreed that lack of action by school authorities contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools while 26 (35.1%) disagreed. Among those who said “yes”, 28 (58.3%) were males whereas 20 (41.7%) were females. As for the pupils who “disagreed”, 7 (26.9%) were males and 19 (73.1%) were females. The above findings indicate that lack of action by school authorities contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.
4.5.25 Pupil’s responses in FGD on their views on sanctions meted out to perpetrators
There was a general outcry from the four government schools during focus group discussions on sanctions meted out to perpetrators of sexual harassment of girls in schools. The FGD revealed that the sanctions usually meted out to perpetrators by the school authorities, except school E were not deterrent enough and suggested that school authorities should solicit the assistance of Board Members. They said, perpetrators should be reported to the police.

4.5.26 Findings from Head Teachers on how sexual harassment cases are handled in schools using the interview guide
To consolidate the findings from the teachers, pupils and the in education, data was also collected from the head teachers on the key variables.

4.5.27 Whether there was a procedure to follow in dealing with sexual harassment in schools
The five head teachers reported that there were no specific guidelines on procedures to follow when dealing with issues relating to sexual harassment of girls in schools. However, the disciplinary committee where the deputy head teacher was the chairperson sits to charge the perpetrator of sexual harassment and then gives recommendation in writing to the province. Evidence in written form victim/whistle blowers and perpetrator is also compiled and forwarded to the provincial office. The only female teacher from school B said:

“We do not have or follow a clear and consistent grievance mechanism in addressing sexual harassment cases” (7th Oct.2011).

For instance, the headmistress at School A said:

“I would not refer cases to police authorities. I believe that the schools should be the ones to investigate in order to ensure the truth comes out” (13th Oct.2011).

However, a lot of issues came up on action taken against the perpetrators which included the following: little action, most of the cases are concealed or withheld.
4.5.28 Whether head teachers as administrators were happy on how cases involving sexual harassment were handled in schools

Nearly all the head teachers reported that they were not happy in the manner these issues were handled. They bemoaned non-availability of proper guidelines on procedures for handling such cases. The head teachers from school B admitted thus:

“We do not follow a clear and consistent grievance mechanism in addressing sexual abuse cases” (7th Oct. 2011).

However, the head teachers from school D said:

“These sexual abuse cases of girls in schools are reported only after being investigated and if the case is found to have merit, it is then referred to the guidance and counseling teacher or head teacher for advice before sanctions are applied if necessary. If a teacher is identified as perpetrator, the case is referred to the Teaching Service Commission (TSC) through Provincial Education” (26th Oct. 2011).

Another head teacher from school C said:

“Generally, Zambia has severe criminal penalties, including in some jurisdictions, life imprisonment or capital punishment. An adults’ sexual harassment with a child below the legal age of consent is defined as statutory rape, based on the principle that a child is not capable of consent and that any apparent consent by a child is not considered to be legal consent” (11th Oct. 2011).

4.5.29 Teachers’ knowledge on legislature and regulations on sexual harassment of girls in schools that are in place in Zambia

Asked teachers in all the five schools as to whether they knew any legislature and regulations regarding sexual harassment of girls in schools. Their response was that the legal and policy framework addressing child sexual harassment is not adequate; it has more weaknesses than strengths. However, one teacher at school C responded thus:

“Legislation relating to the protection of children from sexual harassment and commercial sexual exploitation is largely contained in the Penal code. However it is rarely if at all, mentioned in the laws of Zambia” (11th Oct. 2011).
4.5.30 Pupils views on whether school environment contributes to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

The study sought to find out from the pupils if they perceived school environment as being a contributing factor to sexual harassment of girls in schools. Figure 14 below illustrates their reactions.

**Figure 12: Responses of pupils on whether school environment for girls contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools (n = 74)**

![Graph showing responses of pupils on school environment and sexual harassment.](image)

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

The figure above shows more than half (55.4%) indicated that school environment was not a contributing factor to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools whereas 44.6% were of the view that it was a factor. Further analysis shows that among the pupils who said that school environment was a factor, more were males compared to females. The figure above also reveals that amongst the respondents who said that it was not a factor, more were females than males.

4.5.31 Pupils responses in FGD on whether social and economic factors influence sexual harassment of girls in schools

Economic factors such as need for educational fees as well as poverty were also cited during the FGDs with pupils at school B as a major driver of persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Results indicated that most perpetrators possess some form of power or prestige in the form of economic, social or physical that was used as a tool to entice or coerce the victims.
It was also revealed during the focus group discussion that some mothers influence their daughters to engage in boy-girl relationship for financial and material gains. One pupil at school B said:

“It is saddening in that our parents who are supposed to protect us are the ones in front proposing that we settle the matter amicably outside courts and school authorities. They are interested in money than our lives and our future. How shall we live then?” (7th Oct. 2011).

Another girl pupil reported as follows:

“When I reported to my parents on how the teacher in school sexually harassed me, I was told that uli cipuba meaning you are a fool. Let the teacher go on because we need money for the household let alone money to sponsor you” (7th Oct.2011).

From the above narration, there is enough evidence that economic factors play a vital role in promoting the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.

4.5.32 Teacher’s views on Economic factors influencing the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in school

Teachers were asked to indicate some economic factors which they felt contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. The majority of the teachers, 42 (75.0%) were of the view that early marriages in order to get “lobola” (bride price). However, 8 (14.3%) said “raising revenue for the upkeep of their household”. The FGD findings revealed that perpetrators who fell into trouble with the law would use money to have the matter not reported further. Sadly enough, this happens in the hands of parents and guardians or the Police Service and other enforcing agencies in as far as child sexual harassment are concerned.

Sexual harassment was cite as an ingredient to early marriages during focus group discussion with teachers in three schools namely: A, B and E.

Other factors revealed during the same focus group discussions for perpetration of sexual harassment of girls in schools at schools A, C and D included the collusion of parents in the sexual harassment affairs. Teachers blamed parents by saying:
“Parents do contribute to sexual harassment of pupils through opting to settle cases of sexual harassment outside courts, especially in the rural parts of Zambia as discovered in schools A and D which are rural districts. They would rather accept money forgetting the consequences of having their child in early marriage”

Poverty and general vulnerability were also mentioned in all the five schools the FGDs as some major contributing factors to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. For instance one male teacher at school A narrated that:

“When I went to see some parents whose child reported to me about sexual harassment, the parents told me that it was none of my business. They insisted saying that we need upkeep in the house and of course some money to have this girl in school” (13th Oct.2011).

From the above information, it seems that economic factors have a direct impact on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.

4.5.33 Pupil’s responses in FGD on whether cultural traditions and practices influence of sexual harassment of girls in your schools

In a focus group discussion with the pupils in all the five schools, pupils argued that inequalities of power and status in society contribute to sexual harassment of girls in their schools. For instance at school A, one female pupil said:

“Male teachers and boys have more powers and carry their patriarchy status from home to schools which they use to oppress girls in classes and outside classrooms” (13th Oct 2011).

The FGDs further revealed that patriarchy was viewed as dividing rights, privileges and power primarily by gender, and as a result oppressing women and privileging men.

Girls at School E blamed God for making males more masculine than females. One of the female pupils said: “Boys take advantage of girls in school because they are aware that we cannot fight back when we are sexually harassed by boys” (13th Oct. 2011).

At school C, the focus group discussion brought out the drastic effects of sexual harassment such as emergence of HIV & AIDS and STIs as having an impact on society. To this effect one female teacher lamented thus:
“Some male teachers like other people have come to believe that sleeping with the girls would cure them of their ailments. Of course this belief has been pronounced in many areas in as far as sexual harassment is concerned. Thus, to this end, most male teachers associate girl sexual harassment of girls to the myth that it can cure HIV & AIDS” (11th Oct. 2011).

It was also found that through such beliefs, the innocent children especially girls end up as victims of such circumstances, especially that of being sexually harassed.

Further information from the FGDs in four public schools revealed that some sexual harassers take traditional herbs prescribed by traditional doctors to improve their libido and thus have devastating effect. It was also reported that a number of individuals running businesses also believe that having sex with a child would grow their businesses. Paradoxically, some sexual harassers who include male teachers have continued to use money as a weapon of setting themselves free.

4.5.34 Pupils views on whether cultural norms and customs contributes from questionnaires to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

Pupils were asked to say whether cultural norms and customs contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools. The findings of the study showed that majority of pupils, 62 (83.8%) felt that it was a contributing factor whereas 12 (16.2%) said that it was not. Amongst the pupils who indicated that it was a contributing factor, 35 were male pupils while 27 were females. Further, for those who said it was not a contributing factor, none were males and 12 were females. From the above statistics, one can safely say that cultural norms and traditions contribute much to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.

The main factors mentioned are from questionnaire were as follows: Indecent dressing, parents’ lack of will to press charges against perpetrators, lack of preparatory programmes in schools, media/internet influence, and poverty. However, indecent exposure was the most pronounced cause of sexual harassment of girls in schools.
4.5.35 Teachers views on whether customary law influences persistence of sexual of girls in schools

Regarding to whether customary laws influenced the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, the majority of the teachers were of the view that customary laws influence the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.

One female teacher at school A had this to say: “some teachers have married their former pupils whom they had been sexually harassing in the name of dating since such pupils were in Grade 10”.

From the discussion, there were also negative connotations picked out that indicated that girls were not safe and were in fact vulnerable to sexual harassment within the schools system. For instance, one male teacher during the discussions said: “umwine bala alya mwibala”, meaning the owner of the field must eat from the same field” Source: (13th Oct.2011). Such a statement can be viewed from the context of custodianship, with such a teacher considering himself as a customary custodian of all pupils whom he can control in a way that suits him. This statement implies that girls cannot be expected to be safe in the midst of teachers with this kind of mindset.

However, a few teachers reported that customary laws did not have any effect on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst these teachers, the majority were males. From the above sentiments, it could be said that customary laws do actually contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools.

4.5.36 Pupils views on whether ignorance of regulations and laws on sexual harassment of girls in schools contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

As regards to whether ignorance of regulations and laws on sexual harassment of girls in schools contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, the pupils’ reactions were as illustrated below.
Figure 13: Pupils views on whether ignorance of regulations and laws on sexual harassment contributes to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools (n = 74)

Source: Filed data, (2011)

Figure 14 above shows that the majority of the pupils, 56 (75.7%) were of the view that ignorance of regulations and laws on sexual harassment contributed to the persistence of Sexual harassment of girls in schools. On the other hand, 18 (24.3%) of the pupil respondents indicated that it did not. Amongst the pupils who said that it did contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools, 35 (62.5%) were males and 21 (37.5%) were females. Further for the respondents who declined that ignorance of regulations and laws on sexual harassment contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, all 18 females. The above revelation indicates that ignorance of regulations and laws pertaining to sexual harassment of girls in schools contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.
4.5.37 *Pupils’ responses on whether poverty does influence of sexual harassment of girls in schools*

As regards to whether poverty influence the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.

**Figure 14:** Pupils’ response on whether poverty contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools (n = 74)

![Bar chart showing responses to the influence of poverty on sexual harassment]

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

From the figure above, it can be seen that most of the pupils, 51 (68.9%) were of the view that poverty was a factor in as far as sexual harassment of girls in schools was concerned. Of these pupils, 31 (62%) were males whereas 20 (38%) were females. Further the figure shows that 23 (31.1%) of the respondents refuted, saying that poverty did not encourage sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst this category of respondents, 4 (17.4%) were males and 19 (82.6%) were females. From the above statistics, there is a clear indication that pupils perceived poverty as one of the driving force on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.
Table 15: Teachers opinion on whether poverty contributed to sexual harassment of girls in schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Gender of respondent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>12 (21.4%)</td>
<td>7 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>5 (8.9%)</td>
<td>7 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>7 (12.5%)</td>
<td>3 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5 (8.9%)</td>
<td>6 (10.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>3 (5.4%)</td>
<td>1 (1.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32 (57.1%)</td>
<td>24 (42.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed data, (2011)

As can be seen from Table 15 a third of the teachers (33.3%; 19) “Strongly agreed” that poverty contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst these teachers, 12 were males while 7 were females. Further, 12 or 21.4% (7 females and 5 males) “agreed” that it contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. However, 10 or 17.9% of the teachers “strongly disagreed” that poverty contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Of these respondents, 7 were males while 3 were females. Furthermore, 11 (19.6%) of the teachers “disagreed”. Amongst these respondents, 6 were females while 5 were females. The findings above showed that poverty indeed contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools because overall 55.3% of the respondents agreed.

When asked why they thought so, out of 19 (33.3%) of the teachers who “strongly agreed” 10 indicated that in pursuit of school requirements girls are usually sexually harassed. Furthermore,
6 of the respondents were of the view that lust for “essentials” made the girls vulnerable to sexual harassment.

**4.5.38 Pupils views on whether lack of boarding facilities had a bearing on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools**

Pupils were asked to say whether or not lack of boarding facilities contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Their responses were as shown in Figure below.

**Figure 15:** Pupils responses on whether lack of boarding facilities contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools (n = 74)

![Bar chart showing responses of male and female pupils on the impact of lack of boarding facilities on sexual harassment of girls in schools.](image)

*Source: Filed data, (2011)*

As can be seen from the figure above, most of the pupils, 39 (52.7%) said that lack of boarding facilities did not contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools. Of these respondents, 20 were males and 19 were females. The findings further reveal that 35 (47.3%) of the pupils felt that lack of boarding facilities in schools contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls. Under this category of the pupils, 20 were females and the others, 15 constituted male pupils. From the above data, it seems that pupils, though in marginal numbers, were of the view that lack of boarding facilities did not much matter as far as sexual harassment of girls in schools is concerned.
4.5.39 Pupils views on whether peer pressure contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

As regards to peer pressure as a contributing factor to the continued sexual harassment of girls in schools, the reactions of the pupils to this issue were as shown in Figure 17 below.

Figure 16: Pupils views on whether peer pressures contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools (n = 74)

As can be envisaged from the figure, the majority of the pupils, 60 (81.1%) were of the view that peer pressure contributed to sexual harassment of girls in schools whereas 14 (18.9%) said that peer pressure did not have any effect on sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst the pupils who said it was a contributory factor, 34 (56.7%) were males and 26 (43.3%) were females. On the other hand, of the 14 pupils who said it had no effect on sexual harassment of girls in schools, 13 (92.9%) were female while 1 (7.1%) was male.

4.5.40 Pupils views on whether media/internet contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

In terms of the effect of media/internet, the majority of the pupils, 55 (74.3%) indicated that media/internet was one of the contributing factor to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. However, 19 (25.7%) of the respondents were of the view that it had no effect at all. Of the 55 respondents who responded in affirmative, 35 (63.6%) were males whereas 20 (36.4%) were females. Furthermore, the findings revealed that amongst the pupils who said that media/internet had no effect on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, all the 19
respondents who said so were females. It seems from the findings that media had a major influence on sexual harassment of girls in schools.

**Figure 17: Responses from pupils on whether home tuitions contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools (n = 74)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>36.5%</td>
<td>32.4%</td>
<td>68.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
<td>31.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. 6. *Source: Filed data, (2011)*

As can be seen in Figure 18, most of the pupils, 51 (68.9%) said that home tuitions contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools while 23 (31.1%) said that home tuitions did not contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Amongst the pupils who indicated that it contributed to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, 27 (52.9%) were males while 24 (47.1%) were females. Furthermore, for the 23 respondents who said it had no effect on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, 15 (65.2%) were females while 8 (34.8%) were males. The above findings seem to indicate that home tuitions contribute to sexual harassment of girls.

**4.5.41 Pupils views on whether bad (indecent) dressing contributes to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools**

In terms of whether indecent dressing contributes to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, Figure 4.19 illustrates the responses from the pupils on this item.
Figure 18: Responses of pupils on whether indecent dressing contributes to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools (n = 74)

The Figure above shows that most of the pupils, 62 (83.8%) “Agreed” that indecent dressing contributed to sexual harassment of girls in schools. However, 12 (16.2%) were of the view that it had no effect on sexual harassment of girls in schools. The figure further shows that, 35 male pupils and 27 female pupils agreed that indecent dressing contributes to sexual harassment of girls in schools. Furthermore, for the 12 respondents who indicated that indecent dressing was not a factor as far as sexual harassment of girls in schools, all the respondents were females.

4.5.42 Pupils views on whether inadequate parental guidance contributes to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

Pupils were asked to say whether inadequate parental guidance contributes to sexual harassment of girls in schools. The findings of the study showed that majority of pupils, 48 (64.9%) felt that it was a contributing factor whereas 26 (35.1%) said that it was not. Amongst the pupils who indicated that it was a contributing factor, 32 were male pupils while 16 were females. Further, for those who said it was not a contributing factor, 3 were males and 23 were females. From the above statistics, one can safely say that inadequate parental guidance contributes much to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.
4.5.43 Pupils views on whether lack of preparatory programmes in colleges contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools

Respondents were asked to indicate as to inadequate preparation of teachers in colleges in relation to sexual harassment contributes to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. The findings of this study showed that more than half of the pupils, 39 (52.7%) refuted the statement while 35 (47.3%) agreed that inadequate preparation of teachers in colleges contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. Of the respondent who answered in affirmative, 15 were males while 20 were females. The findings of this study further showed that amongst the pupils who indicated that preparatory of teachers in colleges did not contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, 20 were males whereas 19 were females. The above findings entails that most of the pupils were of the view that teacher preparatory in colleges has no effect on sexual harassment of girls in schools.

4.5.44 Pupils’ views on what government should do to curb issues of sexual harassment of girls in schools

Pupils in the five schools were asked to express their views, given a chance, on what they felt the government should put in place in order to manage sexual harassment of girls in schools.

As regards to what the pupils felt the government should do to curb sexual harassment of girls in schools, the majority (72.9%) of the pupils (n=54) were of the view that the government should put in place laws and legislation that should be followed by schools. Of these respondents, 38 were females while 16 were males.

Further, above (16.2%) of the pupils said that the government should stiffen punishment for the perpetrators of sexual harassment were males, of girls in schools. Amongst this category, 7 were females and 5 were males. Furthermore, 5 (6.8%) of the pupils indicated that there should be, in schools, uniform rules and regulations that school administrators should follow. Of these pupils 3 were males whereas 2 were females. The rest of the respondents, 3 (4.1%) did not respond to this issue. amongst these respondent, 1 was males whereas 2 were females.
4.5.45 Teachers’ opinions on why sexual harassment of girls in schools persisted in spite of legislature and many interventions by government and Non-Governmental Organizations

Teachers were asked what they felt were the causes of the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools, respondents attributed causes of sexual harassment in schools to poverty’s cultural and traditional practices, exposure to pornographic material and academic favour. Academic favour was explained as teachers awarding pupils who accepted the ‘advances’ of the teachers good marks or grades irrespective of their actual performance and exemption from work.

Further revelations revealed that the way and manner children are protected and cared for, both at home and in school was said to be weak. One female teacher and school B said:

“Sexual pleasure, lack of parental care and control, peer influence and curiosity, and indecent dressing are some of the factors that contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools” (7th Oct.2011).

In a nut shell, the focus group discussions in all the five schools blamed the school authorities for the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools at school D had this to say:

“School authorities fail to instill morality and integrity in their teachers by concealing perpetrators, especially if they were fellow teachers” (26th Oct.2011).

The group of teachers from B and C felt Head teachers and Provincial Education Officer failed to give convincing evidence to the Permanent Secretary for Ministry of Education.

One teacher from school C said that, according to statistics from parliament by then Minister of Education in August 2010:

“Records from Bulletin on sexual harassment in schools showed that over 200 cases of sexual harassment reported country wide are reported year in year out, but many of these cases being thrown out due to lack of concrete evidence from the schools and the victims” (11th Oct.2011).
Meanwhile, some female teachers at school C blamed the school norms concerned with sexuality including observable and formal programmes like school rules as well as code of conducts in these schools.

The same FGDs revealed that male teachers tended to believe that it was within their right to have a sexual relationship with school girls or marry pubescent girls as long as she was agreeable to the proposal when such ideas contradict the law of the land on sexual relations with a child under the age of 16, which is inconsistent with the definition of a child under international law as under the age of 18.

The FGDs further revealed that there are provisions in the Penal Code that criminalize rape, attempted rape, and sexual abuse of minors. The prescribed punishment for these offenses is severe, with maximum terms of life imprisonment for each. However, it was observed that our court system also lacks facilities for youths.

One of the teachers at school C said thus:

“To report a sexual crime, a girl must face a police department that is not child friendly or gender sensitive and a health service provider that may scold the victim for being promiscuous” (11th Oct.2011).

Focus group discussions for teachers in the five schools also revealed that lack of implementing policies and legislature was yet another cause for the persistence of sexual harassment of girls on schools.

Lack of boarding facilities was brought out in the FGDs. For instance, at secondary school A, the Weekly Boarding is very common. However, because girls have no boarding facilities in the school, they resorted to squatting in the nearby quarters which contributed to sexual harassment of the girls. During focus group discussion, it was revealed that these girls are abused by male teachers, boys who are school mates and other men in the community.

Further revelations from the school A FGDs on why sexual harassment of girls in schools persisted in schools in spite of legislature and many interventions by government and Non-Governmental Organizations were that immediate supervisors conceal perpetrators, referring
cases to the head teachers; the gap between enactments of policies and implementation; juvenile
delinquency; weaknesses in school rules, and ignorance in terms of the provisions of the law
which is associated with the lack of information dissemination on the Penal Code were
pronounced as some of the causes of the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.

During focus group discussion with teachers in schools A and B secondary, it was discovered
that some male teachers sexually harass school girls under the age of 16. One of the teachers
said:

“These unruly teachers defend their immoral activities giving such stupid reasons as being under
the pressure to have sex due to use of traditional herbs and other western medicines like Viagra
which they say influence the male libido abnormally. They also say that they thought the girl
seemed old enough”.

During the same FGDs at school B, the influence of psychotic substances such as beer and other
drugs were cited too.

From the above findings, it may be said that there are quite a number of factors leading to the
persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools which needs the attention of the appropriate
authorities in the education sector.

4.6 Findings from Stakeholders from the qualitative data
The following section presents the findings from the stakeholders from the qualitative data
collected during the study.

4.6.1 Findings from the Provincial Education Standards Office
To complement the findings from the teachers and pupils who participated in this study, data was
also collected from respondent A through the interview guide.

4.6.2 Years in service of respondent A
The respondent was asked to indicate the number of years they have been in the same post. The
respondent named A indicated that he has been in this position for a period of 7 years.
Qualification of respondent A

As regards to the qualification, the respondent was a holder of Bachelor’s degree in Education and was pursuing a Master’s Degree programme in Adult Education at the University of Zambia.

4.6.3 Respondent A’s response on whether there was a procedure of dealing with perpetrators who sexually harass girls in schools

The Stakeholder A was asked to state whether there was any procedure laid down which dealt with perpetrators of sexual harassment of girls in schools. His responses were as narrated below.

Lack of reporting by schools was also cited during the guided interview with respondent A stated that:

In 1996, the Zambian government decentralized educational responsibilities by creating District Education Boards responsible for monitoring and evaluating school performance. Among other things, DEBS investigates allegations of teacher abuse and recommends appropriate punishment,” (14th Oct.2011).

He further explained the bureaucracy of reporting sexual harassment in school for further action as follows:

“School administrations should report allegations of sexual violence to DEBS, which then conducts its own investigation and refers the case to the Provincial Education Officer (PEO), who in turn refers the case to the Permanent Secretary for Human Resources (PS). The PS refers the case to the Teaching Service Commission (TSC), which has the ultimate authority to dismiss a teacher. Because the PEO, PS, and TSC do not conduct their own investigations, DEBS’s investigation and recommendation are critical to the punishment of teachers,” (14th Oct.2011).

He further explained that where no physical evidence of sexual violence exists and the teacher does not confess, P.E.O typically transfers a teacher to another school. He further said:

“Lack of transparency surrounding transfers makes this situation especially problematic, as this may expose students in other schools to the sexually abusive teacher and future malfeasance”. 
Respondent A acknowledges that:

“The procedure of reporting the cases of sexual harassment in schools is too long and the process itself is long and cumbersome. The process is subject to manipulation and abuse. Sometimes the cases reach some offices without the original letters written by a pupil who was abused”.

4.6.4 Respondent A’s responses on factors influencing the persistence of sexual harassment in schools

In an interview with the stakeholder A the following emerged as narrated below. He said that some factors that influenced sexual harassment of girls in schools included lack of implementing policies and legislature and lack of boarding facilities for girls. In terms of lack of boarding facilities for girls, he explained thus:

“Weekly Boarding is very common especially in rural/peri urban areas. Because girls have no boarding facilities, they mostly end up squatting in the nearby quarters. This makes them vulnerable to sexual abuse by male teachers and boys who are school mates and other men”.

He also revealed that ignorance by the girls in terms of the laws protecting them from sexual harassment was yet another factor contributing to sexual harassment of girls in schools. He observed that generally people and teachers inclusive did not appreciate the provision of the different legislation relating to the protection of the child especially the issue of the age of consent to sex by a girl child. He further said:

“In light of the foregoing, one may be tempted to note that the ambiguities relating to who is a child under the current legislation in Zambia and the dual system of customary and statutory law vis-à-vis the age around sexual consent, could also contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools. Further, the reason of lack of knowledge at what age a child can be deemed to make right decisions as regards issues surrounding sex becomes an important root cause of girl sexual harassment especially among teachers who may not be privy to changes in the statutory regulations relating to who is a child” (14th Oct.2011).
CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study which sought to investigate the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. The chapter brings out the themes from the findings under each objective. The following were the objectives of the study: to find out the cultural factors contributing to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools; to establish economic factors that contributes to sexual harassment of girls in schools; to determine school factors that influences sexual harassment of girls in schools; and to ascertain the laws and regulations put in place to combat sexual harassment of girls in schools.

5.1 Influence of culture and traditional practices on the persistence of sexual harassment in schools

Culture has a great influence on people’s lives. Some research studies have shown that Zambia has a culture where girls are raised to be obedient and submissive to men. The results on cultural and tradition factors have shown that traditionally, sex has been used as an abuse of power exercised by those in power, who in most cases happen to be male teachers and boys over girls’ especially slow learners or under privileged girls in schools. In a focus group discussion the study revealed that power, patriarchy and economics drive sexual abuse. The study also established that many of the causes were interrelated, and linked to culture and values including roles and status of men and women in society. Schools like any other social context are the sites of power relations between male and female teachers and boys and girls.

The study’s finding on abuse of power is in line with Tangri et al. (1982) who in their theory discussed two sub-theories namely abuse of organizational power and abuse of society and power. Dey et al. (1996) argue that nothing short of the total reform of the society will keep or alleviate the problem. Mackinnon (1979) also argues that a more sophisticated analysis of the power dynamics involved in sexual harassment is needed. Fineran and Bennet (1998) use the theory to give theoretical explanation as to why men who sexually harass women do not seem to be aware of the effects of their behaviour toward their victims. They argued that there is an
automatic mental link between the concepts of power and sex. These mental processes operate so quickly and efficiently that one is not conscious of their occurrences.

This finding conforms to those of Leach et al. (2003) who equally argue that girls are more susceptible to sexual harassment because of inequalities of power and status in society. This study has shown that male teachers and boys have more powers and carry their patriarchy status from home to schools which they use to oppress girls in classes and outside classrooms. For these pupils sexuality is the root cause of their oppression in schools. The argument of the girls in schools is in line with radical feminist who discusses gender, patriarchy, and the oppression of women. The theory argues that “Women are oppressed because they are women”. The core of radical feminist is the idea that, in most societies, women have been systematically oppressed and that men have been historically dominant which is referred to as patriarchy. Patriarchy is viewed as dividing rights, privileges and power primarily by gender, and as a result oppressing women and privileging men, it exposes sexual exploitation of men on women (Radical Feminism and Feminist Radicalism; 1984; Firestone, 1970). This theory equally discusses male sexual entitlement as a belief that men are owed sex on account of their maleness or right to use women’ bodies. It exposes sexual exploitation of men on women (Echols, 1989; Willis, 1984).

In line with the above theories, girls at School E argued out that male teachers and peer boys have taken advantage of girls in schools because of being more masculine than females. Boys take advantage of girls in their school because they are aware that girls cannot fight back when they are sexually harassed.

This argument was similar to a biological theory based on physical differences between the sexes by Eyre (2000) who argue that hormonal and body size differences make males more aggressive than females. This formulation assumes males as perpetrators, and females as victims, of sexual harassment. Though males should be taught self-control, lapses must be taken in stride; boys will be boys. Through this lens, the best preventative measures would be protection, and often confinement, of females. Although punishing male perpetrators might be useful to society as a deterrent, it would be rather ineffective in changing the behavior of individuals.
This study further revealed that many male teachers that participated in the study felt it was their right to abuse girls. For instance at school A High School, three teachers revealed during a focus group discussion how they have married their former pupils, whom they started dating in Grade 10. One teacher went further by bragging using a Bemba proverb that “umwine bala alya mwibala”, meaning the owner of the field must eat from the same field. For them it was within their right to have a sexual relationship with school girls or marry pubescent girls as long as she was agreeable to the proposal. Therefore, it is within this context that we can conclude that this presumption of young girls being sexually harassed by male teachers is from the disguise of the fact that girl-friend have the right to have sex with him. This is what promoted sexual relationships including sexual harassment by male teachers and the girl child in schools (Eyre, 2000). It is worthy to note that boys between 11 and 17 years were also likely to engage in such kind of sexual activities with girls in the same age group. However, it was observed, during FGD with teachers that even men below 39 years, with wives were likely to engage themselves into sexual relationships with girls of the same age group.

The study also revealed that girls in schools do not have adequate knowledge on the rights against sexual harassment by these male teachers, how to be assertive and the role they are to play in ending sexual abuse cases. Prima facie reason for the low report of sexual harassment by the girl pupils could be attributed to the fact that society sees matters concerning sex as taboo subject for “open” discussion. The International Labour Organization (1992) argued that sexual harassment has been and is used as a tool to perpetuate the subordination of women/girls. It is, in most cases, a means by which men assert power over women/girls through the threat of or acts of violence, the perpetuation of gender stereotypes, and economic control. According to International Labour Organization (1992), sexual harassment is inextricably linked with power and takes place in societies which often treat women/girls as sex objects and second class citizens. Thus it’s difficult to eradicate sexual harassment in schools.

This study has revealed, during FGDs in the schools that participated in the study that teachers sometimes entice girls to have sex with them for better grades and small sums of money to purchase soap and other essentials. The FGDs also revealed that some male teachers like other people have come to believe that sleeping with the girls would cure them of their ailments like
HIV and AIDS. Thus, to this end, most male teachers associate sexual harassment of girls to the myth that it can cure HIV and AIDS, and can boost business, a practice which can result in infecting minors with the virus. In the same FGD, a female teacher at secondary B also revealed that some herbs prescribed by traditional doctors were used by men for boosting their libido. Through such beliefs and actions, the innocent children especially girls end up as victims of such circumstances.

In summary, these behaviors seem harmless when looked at individually, but they are symptoms of a larger cultural attitude that over values male sexuality and expects female sexuality to exist for male pleasure. Therefore, sexual harassment of girls in schools, whether by male teachers or pupils, is part of a wider problem of school-based violence and is also a reflection of society-wide violence by males against females.

5.3 Influence of economic factors on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools
Economic factors included money, poverty, general vulnerability, relation of direct costs of schooling (such as user fees and uniforms) and academic favour. Academic favour is explained as teachers giving children good marks or grades irrespective of their actual performance and exemption from work.

Focus group discussions held with grade elevens (11s) at school D indicated that teachers who are perpetrators possess some form of power or prestige in the form of economic which may be social or physical that is used as a tool to entice or coerce the victims. For instance in this study one girl reported saying:

“If a male teacher proposes to you sexual advance and you turn it down, when he comes to class to teach, he would boo you by asking difficult questions and if you fail to answer he would pass silly comments to humiliate you or punish you mercilessly. The same applies to peer males especially those older than you but for them at least the worst offence you do is unnecessary punishments if they are prefects or have friends with such responsibilities,” (26th Oct.2011).

However, the focus group discussion held at secondary school A revealed a different view on how economic factors influence pervasiveness of sexual harassment in schools. For them, some
parents regard girl children as money spinners through giving them in early marriages so that these men or boys may influence their financial and material benefits.

The study also sought to find out the extent to which teachers related the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools with direct school costs. The study has shown that 51% of teachers highly rated persistence of sexual harassment of girls in school to the direct costs of schooling which included the user fees and cost of uniforms. This finding conforms to studies conducted by (Mensch et al., 1999; Bledsoe and Cohen 1993) who in their studies discovered that in many poor countries the imposition of school fees under government structural adjustment programmes and other costs such as uniform and books have increased the incidence of sexual harassment among some school girls. Girls who are desperate to continue their education and whose parents cannot provide the necessary support are forced into sexual relationships with older partners, who will give them money for fees in exchange for sexual favours. In some cases, parents accept the need for a daughter to be ‘sponsored’ in this way. Luke and Kurz (2002), in their study of cross-generational harassment in sub-Saharan Africa, named financial reasons, including the need to pay school fees and other necessities as the main reason why adolescent girls engage in such relationships.

Although poverty was linked to persistence of sexual harassment and abuse of girls in schools by teachers and boys, there was recognition among stakeholders like respondent A who argued that as much as these girls may accept love proposals from a teacher because of their vulnerability and lack of money to buy essential items, the blame has to be shared, even amongst those with greater exposure and greater authority like male teachers. A female head teacher at school B also added her voice on poverty contributing to persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools. She revealed that economically, some families with girls who have been sexually harassed in her school have opted to marry them off to the perpetrator so that they receive bride price or lobola. She noticed some parents in her school would use their girl children as a tool to raise revenue for the upkeep of their household as reported by Kasonde-Ng’andu, 2003.

This revelation was similar to what was discussed in a workshop organized by the Zambian Ministry of Education where it was revealed that families sometimes pressurize a teacher who
has sexually harassed a girl to marry her, in exchange as opposed to reporting the abuse or taking the abuser to court (MoE, 2010).

At secondary school E which was private in nature, a number of issues came up during a focus group discussion. One male pupil reported that in the face of widespread poverty, some families would rather seek compensation in the form of financial support or marriage than pursue a criminal prosecution that may have little likelihood of success. Lack of support from survivors or their families at any stage of an investigation or trial typically dooms the prosecution and prevents the survivor from obtaining legal redress. However, in the same focus group discussions, it was reported that parents put more blame on school and economic conditions than on their own cultural practices. A male teacher who is a boarding master at Secondary A stated that the situation is distressing in their school because young girls waste their precious lives through sexual abuse especially those girls squatting or practicing weekly boarding as a result of lack of accommodation. Male teachers and peer boys and other men pay their rentals, buy them food and shower them with expensive gifts such as cell-phones and thus end up giving in to their sexual demands. This finding is in line with Kasonde Nga’ndu (2003) in her study on the Safety of girls in weekly boarding. This study has similar observation with the above findings on high sexual harassment in boarding schools compared to day schools.

5.4 Influence of school factors on the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools
The Provincial office representative observed that the court system 39 (57.2%) lacks facilities for youths and that reporting a sexual crime, a girl must face a police department that is not child friendly or gender sensitive and a health service provider that may scold the victim for being promiscuous. (MoE, 2010). However, 65% of the female teachers blamed the school norms concerned with sexuality including observable and formal programmes like school rules as well as code of conduct in these schools as some of the causes for the persistence of sexual harassment in schools. This is in line with Bidwell (1965) and Deal (1982) who focused on school norms which are concerned with sexuality as a way of influencing the behaviour of individuals, proponents’ direct attention on observable and formal programmes like school rules as code of conduct. It may also focus on less overt features of the school like the way in which complaints are handled and tolerance of informal behaviours.
5.5 **Head teachers’ views on factors contributing to persistence in sexual harassment of girls in schools**

As regards factors that contribute to sexual harassment of girls in schools, it was found that the collusion of parents in the sexual harassment affairs of their girl, opting to settle cases of sexual harassment outside courts, especially in rural areas was common. This contributed greatly to the persistence in sexual harassment of girls in schools. The size of school and effort to fight sexual harassment was cited in school B by the head teacher who was the only female in the sample size. This was like an ethical view of cultural theory according to Cusick and Wheeler (1988) dwells heavily on the fact that schools derive much of their authority from long-term ethical or moral bonds which bind their members. Bacchi (1998) who supported this theory sees sexual harassment as a sign of failing on the part of the organization to instill morality and integrity in its members and he advocates for a small school size. Eyre (2000) observed that in big institutions when a case is reported to the authority, it is individualized and interpreted in a legal perspective. Attention is given to the behaviour of the accused as it is separate from its social surroundings and the onus is on the victim to prove that she has really been harassed against her will.

In the same focus group discussion, it was observed that the four government Schools lacked handling procedures for protecting pupils who reported sexual abuse and those that have not been victims yet. The reason most frequently offered by the interviewed boys and girls was failure to report sexual harassment because of fear of retaliation, particularly where the perpetrator was a teacher preferring to resolve cases of sexual abuse quietly and internally or, at the most, to transfer abusive teachers to another school. Schools rarely engage formal Ministry of Education processes for the discipline and possible dismissal of teachers.

The study through the group discussion further discovered that girls who experience sexual harassment in schools face many obstacles in obtaining redress. At secondary A 50% of its pupils, during focus group discussions, blamed the school authority for concealing perpetrators. Many factors were highlighted that included the absence of clear policies and procedures for preventing and responding to harassment, attitudes among school authorities that minimize abuse or blame the school girls, inadequate or inappropriately lenient responses by school teachers and administrators, insufficient support services for pupils who are subjected to abuse, and a
preference for resolving cases of abuse internally rather than reporting them to relevant offices or civil authorities. The few girls whose cases reach the Teachers and school administrators affirmed that most cases of school-based sexual harassment never come to light.

In the same vein, during focus group meeting at schools B and D schools14 pupils (9 girls and 5 boys) reported that sexual harassment was not fruitful. Even if girls were blamed for the abuse, they felt that nothing would be done about it; teachers are hiding the problems of other teachers,” one girl explained. Similarly, it was noted during guided interview with head teachers that they avoided answering the question on whether the issue of addressing sexual harassment in their schools was adequately covered well, as a way of protecting the image of their schools. Similar revelations in a focus group discussion at school D observed that reporting of sexual harassment by authorities and victims was not adequate as expected. However, teachers were quick to note in case of a pregnancy where the situation could not be “swept under the rug” schools did take disciplinary action against male teachers or peer boys.

Lack of reporting by schools was also cited during the guided interview with PESO and Permanent Secretary (PS) at Ministry of Education Headquarters who both referred to the 1996 decentralization. “The Zambian government decentralized educational responsibilities by creating District Education Boards responsible for monitoring and evaluating school performance.” (14th Oct. 2011). Among other things, DEBS investigates allegations of teacher sexual harassment especially of girls in schools and recommends appropriate punishment (MoE, 2010). He further explained the bureaucracy of reporting sexual harassment in school for further action as follows: School administrations should report allegations of sexual violence to DEBS, which then conducts its own investigation and refers the case to the Provincial Education Officer (PEO), who in turn refers the case to the Permanent Secretary for Human Resources (PS). The PS refers the case to the Teaching Service Commission (TSC), which has the ultimate authority to dismiss a teacher. Because the PEO, PS, and TSC do not conduct their own investigations, DEBS’s investigation and recommendation are critical to the punishment of teachers found sexually harassing girls in schools (14th October 2011).

Stakeholder A further explained that where no physical evidence of sexual violence exists and the teacher does not confess, PEO typically transfers a teacher to another school. As discussed
earlier in this report, the lack of transparency surrounding transfers makes this situation especially problematic, as this may expose students in other schools to the sexually abusive teacher and future malfeasance. In addition, unlike in South Africa, where schools must report allegations of child abuse to the civil authorities, in Zambia, neither P.E.O nor the schools in its jurisdiction are legally required to report sexual violence claims to the police 14th Oct. 2011).

Respondent A for Lusaka explained the procedure for reporting sexual harassment of any kind in schools in the following statement follows male teachers or peer boys sexually harassing female pupils in schools are supposed to be immediately suspended pending investigation by DEBS, and Teaching Service dismisses that teacher or suspends the boy if found guilty (14th Oct.2011).

5.6 Influence of Laws and Regulations on the persistence of sexual harassment in schools

The focus group discussion conducted at school A, it was revealed that there was a lot of collusion by parents in the cases before the courts of law by their girl–children by opting to settle cases of sexual harassment outside courts on perpetrators of sexual harassment who included male teachers and peer boys. This finding conforms to the findings by Mwansa (1995) who discovered that sexual harassment of girls is more common in rural areas than peri-urban. Rural district had more cases of sexual harassment of girls than urban district schools. The observation by Mwansa (1995) confirms the Teaching Service Secretary statistics in nine provinces and over five districts of Lusaka province. The statistics showed more rural and peri urban Provinces recording high cases of male teachers and pupils’ sexual harassment cases. The scenario was the same for rural and districts of Lusaka which was the study site.

In one rural school), the apparent collusion of the parents in the affair (as in a case featured in Lima Basic School in Chongwe reported that in a class of 39 pupils only 9 girls were present, owing to high rate of pregnancies due to sexual harassment and other factors of cause (Mwansa, 1995). The same study reports that when a school boy is found sexually harassing a school girl, the matter is silently done away with as long as the boy’s family pays a fine in form of cattle. In the same study but at Pinto Basic School, teachers and male pupils were blamed for sexually
abusing the girls. Parents interviewed argued that they keep their female children from school to protect them from abuse by male teachers and school boys.

The study through focus group discussion with teachers established that according to the law obtaining currently; it has a dual legal system propagated by statutory and customary laws currently in operation in the Constitution (GRZ, 2005). The duo poses serious challenges in offering effective protection to children especially girls from sexual harassment and commercial sexual exploitation. Under statutory law, the legal age for marriage is 21 years for both male and females while under customary law, the family controls and consents to sex on behalf of the girl child provided the girl has attained puberty, she may be married off and she is considered old enough to engage in sex. Therefore, amendments made to the Penal Code in 2005 addressing matters relating to child pornography and child marriages is made difficult to protect children against commercial sexual exploitation and sexual harassment.

The currently statutory law that prohibits child marriages by stating legal age for marriage at 21 years for both males and females. On the contrary customary law legalizes child marriages, (UNICEF, 2005:139). This culture seem to contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools by the male folks and boys in schools.

In light of the foregoing, one may be tempted to note that the ambiguities relating to who is a child under the current legislation in Zambia and the dual system of customary and statutory law vis-à-vis the age around sexual consent, the reason of lack of knowledge at what age a child can be deemed to have taken a decision to have sex becomes an important root cause of girl sexual harassment especially among teachers who may not be privy to changes in the statutory regulations relating to who is a child (Children in Need Network, 2007: 3-4). The Human resource at Ministry of Education Headquarters attributed weak regulations in public institutions of learning to have influence on sexual harassment of girls in schools. Teachers do not sign any social contracts in government schools compared to their counterpart in private and Grant-aided schools. The same scenario applies to boys and girls in schools. Forms as per re-entry guideline 1997 is supposed to be applied where a boy must be expelled together if found guilty of involving themselves in sexual harassment of girls and worse pregnancies (Entry Policy 1997).
When it came to who to blame for the persistence of sexual harassment in schools during focus group meetings with teachers and pupils, 40 teachers and 58 pupils blamed the school authorities for failing to instill morality and integrity in their teachers by concealing perpetrators. The group of teachers from school B and C came out strongly that head teachers and Provincial Education Officer failed to give convincing evidence to the Permanent Secretary for Ministry of Education when they write recommendations on perpetrators in schools. Records at the Teaching Service Commission indicated over 20 cases of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers and peers reported country wide but the Secretary to the Commission admitted many of these cases being thrown out due to lack of concrete evidence from the schools and the victims (18th May 2011). This finding is similar to Mabula Kankasa and Chondoka (1996) observations that ignorance to what constitutes immoral conduct, especially where a teacher entered into relationship with a school girl with the view to marry that girl in future. This problem has been compounded by the fact that teachers have not been availed with copies of the education act and the civil service general orders which according to Mabula Kankasa and Chondoka (1996) are quite vague on the issue of teachers sexually harassing girls or teacher’s relationships with pupils. In fact the Service Commission booklet (2003) does not make any references to sexual relations between a teacher and a pupil on the section dealing with sexual harassment. Leaving of disciplining of teachers to Teaching Service alone is not enough.

Focus group discussion by school E which was co-education and private suggested that laws should be stiffened on perpetrators so that sexual harassment of girls in schools is prevented. Head teachers who conceal or fail to report sexual harassment in their school should be liable to imprisonment. Daka (2005) also suggested that the same principle be applied where the principal offender makes the commission of the offence easier. Section 21 and 22 of the Penal Code states that, the punishment for the principal offender and the perpetrator is the same. Thus heads of schools and teachers who fail to inculcate discipline in male teacher /boys by making it easier for them to sexually harass girls are liable of the same offence.
5.7 Information from Teaching Service Records

A guided interview was conducted to get information on perception on sexual harassment of girls in schools country wide why the vice has continued and what should be done to stop sexual harassment of girls in schools in Zambia.

The Teaching Service was established under an act of parliament and the Commission is responsible for recruitment, disciplining and dismissal of teachers who are found wanting. Under an ideal situation, it is expected that such a commission would be very active on the ground, attending to each and every case of sexual harassment as it occurs. However to the contrary, the Teaching Service Commission (TSC) is the last institution to act on a case of sexual harassment. When deciding on sexual harassment cases, the Teaching Service Commission (TSC) depends on the evidence they receive from the Permanent Secretary.

At the time of research, it was discovered that Teaching Service Commission had dismissed 1,000 male teachers countrywide though some of the cases were not disposed of. The period covered is from January 2009 to August 2010. There were several other cases that were pending at the Commission due to lack of evidence from schools and victims and therefore did not warrant dismissal of teachers.

The rural male teachers dismissed for sexually harassing girls in schools were more than the urban schools. Lusaka had fewer than any other province.

The Teaching Service Commission through the representative C reported that

“It has nothing to do with thoroughly investigating the cases of sexual harassment in schools but instead depend on investigations and evidence done at Provincial and schools concerned. They base their decisions on the evidence presented. In cases where there is no evidence against a teacher, they do not do anything on the case but merely dispose it off.” The secretary could not hide that “before a case of sexual harassment is disposed of, in the Ministry of Education, a lot happen on the way because of long procedure”.

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A similar Report by Fonseka (2001) based on statistics at the Teaching Service Commission, on teachers punished for sexually abusing pupils, also shows not much has been done by these stakeholders to stop the scourge. The researcher also discovered that not much was done by Teaching Service apart from waiting for overwhelming evidence to discipline a teacher from the Permanent Secretary who also waits for it from Provincial Officer after receiving from schools. In short they are toothless in terms of helping to push and find evidence on time as a result evidence goes missing due to long procedure.

However the teaching Service dismisses any teacher found wanting of sexual harassment if there is overwhelming evidence of him being involved

5.8 Ministry of Education Headquarters

A guided interview was conducted to explore programmes and policies the ministry has put in place to try and fight sexual harassment of girls in schools. Human Resource at Ministry of Education Headquarters was interviewed and the following issues rose;

Ministry of Education Headquarters spoke on behalf of Permanent Secretaries lamented that they had no powers to dismiss or blacklist teachers who sexually harasses female pupils but have powers to suspend these teachers pending investigations. He emphasised on the point of being allowed to prosecute sexual harassment cases for quick justice because ‘justice delayed is justice denied’.

When asked on programmes policy and code of ethics that the Ministry has put up to try and fight sexual harassment in schools the officer had this to say:

“There are no immediate programmes to direct fight sexual harassment of girls in schools nor any clear policies or procedures for dealing with reports of sexual harassment but the Ministry of Education is currently drafting a National Child Protection Policy for Schools, which will establish guidelines for preventing and responding to sexual violence in schools” (Human Resource Headquarters :2010).
He proceeded by revealing that the Zambian Government was in the process of enacting an Education Act 2010 which will state that “once a teacher sexually abuses a pupil, he/she will be suspended pending the abuse case and once they are convicted, they will be fired and blacklisted.”

5.9 MOE Headquarters Awareness of Service Commission Disciplinary code and procedures for handling offences in the public Service on sexual harassment of girls in schools.

The representatives at Teaching Service, the Lusaka Provincial and Headquarters were aware of the procedures for handling offences in the public Service on sexual harassment of girls in schools and the process of dealing with a sexual harassment case was explained as follows in all the three offices: “A child should write in her own hand writing concerning how that sexual harassment occurred, explaining exactly what happened or what the perpetrator did or said to the child. Then the Headmaster writes a covering letter to the Provincial Education Officer and attaches the letter from the victim to that covering letter. The provincial Education Office (PEO) will then forward the documentation from the headmasters to the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry then presents that documentation accompanied by a covering letter to the Teaching Service Commission. It should be noted that apart from the written testimony from the victim, the witnesses are also expected to present their evident including the accused or perpetrator”.

However the Provincial representative for Lusaka was quick to acknowledge that “The procedure of reporting the cases of sexual harassment in schools is too long and the process itself is long and cumbersome. The process is subject to manipulation and abuse. Sometimes the cases reach some offices without the original letters written by a pupil who was abused”

When it came to reasons why sexual harassment of girls has persisted. The representative at provincial office gave the following answers on the extent of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers and boys in schools. He revealed that:

“Sexual harassment of girls in Lusaka Province is there but a lot of secrecy surrounds most cases. He was quick to point out that schools in Lusaka have only reported few
cases from January 2009-2010. The cases of sexual harassment of girls in schools as they appear in print media”. He also revealed that most of these cases that have been reported lack overwhelming evidence to suffice a suspension by the Minister of Education or dismissal by the Teaching Service Commission. He also blamed head teachers for not reporting cases in time and not probing the victim to reveal evidence in writing.

5.10 Provincial Education office’ knowledge on the existence of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers and boys in Lusaka Schools?

Knowledge and attitudes are important factors in solving any given issues because when an individual is aware about a problem, the individual is likely to be determined to solve the problem, unlike an individual who is not aware about a problem. To a certain extent the knowledge that a person has about a problem shapes the attitudes that an individual have towards a given problem.

The Provincial office representative revealed that, there was no policy on sexual harassment in schools as per say apart from what has been stated in the gender policy on education (Educating Our Future 2006).
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction
This study has shown that ending sexual harassment of girls in schools requires a holistic approach. It points to reasons for pervasiveness of sexual harassment in school caused by factors that stem from a constellation of other factors related to longstanding traditional practices such as child marriages; taboos or beliefs which is more or less being afraid or feel shy to discuss such matters because of society’s view on discussions of sexual matters in public; concealing of harassers; girls’ role in the household economy; patriarchal values; economic factors like poverty and general vulnerability including costs of educations and uniform; non-availability of boarding spaces; school or environmental factors; lack of clear laws; policies and procedures and uneven power.

6.1 Summary
The study has shown that cultural norms and traditions have adversely contributed to sexual harassment of girls in schools. Parents who should be custodians of the children have taken side with the vice because of the need or lust for money. They marry off their children early and do not allow children to discuss matters related to sexual harassment as they consider it to be a taboo. Beliefs that when an elderly person has sex with a minor, he might be cured of the deadly disease, of HIV & AIDS, including those businessmen have all contributed to the vice. Although poverty was linked to persistence of sexual abuse of girls in schools by teachers and boys, there was recognition among stakeholders like respondent A who argued that “as much as these girls may accept love proposals from a teacher because of their vulnerability and lack of money to buy essential items, the blame has to be shared and greater authority like male teachers should be blamed more than peer boys”.

As regards economic factors, the study has shown that these factors which include money, poverty, general vulnerability, relation of direct costs of schooling (such as user fees and uniforms) and academic favour have impacted negatively on sexual harassment of girls in schools. In pursuit of these economic ventures, most girls are made vulnerable to sexual abuse
among teachers and peer boys in schools. Girls who are desperate to continue their education and whose parents cannot provide the necessary support are forced into sexual relationships with older partners, who will give them money for fees in exchange for sexual favours.

As regards to school factors in relation to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls, the study has shown that school norms and rules which are in most cases rigid contribute to the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools as pupils have fear of reporting such cases. The ways in which complaints are handled leave much to be desired. The study has also shown that schools lacked handling procedures for protecting pupils who reported sexual abuse and those that have not been victims yet. The reason most frequently offered by the interviewed boys and girls was failure to report sexual harassment because of fear of retaliation, particularly where the perpetrator was a teacher preferring to resolve cases of sexual abuse quietly and internally or, at the most, to transfer abusive teachers to another school. Schools rarely engage formal Ministry of Education processes for the discipline and possible dismissal of teachers.

In as far as the laws and regulations on the persistence of sexual harassment in schools are concerned, the study has shown that there was a lot of collusion by parents in the cases before the courts of law by their girl –children by opting to settle cases of sexual harassment outside courts on perpetrators of sexual harassment who included male teachers and peer boys. The study has also shown that the court system also lacks facilities for youths and that reporting a sexual crime; a girl must face a police department that is not child friendly or gender sensitive and a health service provider that may scold the victim for being promiscuous. This hinders pupils from reporting on the vice thus promoting the persistence of sexual harassment of girls in schools.

The study also found that according to the law obtaining currently; it has a dual legal system propagated by statutory and customary laws currently in operation in the Constitution. The duo poses serious challenges in offering effective protection to children from sexual harassment and commercial sexual exploitation. Under statutory law, the legal age for marriage is 21 years for both male and females while under customary law, the family controls and consents to sex on behalf of the girl child provided the girl has attained puberty, she may be married off and she is considered old enough to engage in sex. Therefore, amendments made to the Penal Code in 2005
addressing matters relating to child pornography and child marriages is made difficult to protect children against commercial sexual exploitation and sexual harassment.

This study has shown that the Zambian government has undertaken several promising legislative and policy measures to try and address sexual harassment in schools. However in spite of these important initiatives, sexual harassment in schools are still, in most cases, swept under the rug, remaining unreported by the victims and overlooked by school authorities. In the few cases where girls did report sexual harassments that are inflicted on them they confront powerful obstacles in achieving redress. Policies are also not very clear to both pupils and teachers. The obstacles observed faced by girls to report sexual harassment in their schools was not addressed by relevant authorities. The law on sexual harassment of a minor has not been strengthened enough up to date.

However, we must acknowledge that in trying to overcome sexual harassment of girls in schools, action need to be taken as a collective effort as opposed to being handled by a few individuals who may not be even interested parties. A range of stakeholders such as ministers, the Teaching Service Commission, Ministry of Education, agencies of civil societies who include Non-Governmental Organizations such as YWCA and WLSA including, head teachers, teachers, pupils and parents should team up and help in fighting the scourge in schools. Without this, there is the risk of one off interventions, without support systems to protect girls or cases of abuse being uncovered. The weak protective environment is further complicated by the ineffective enforcement of laws and implementation of policies and programmes designed for child protection as a country.

6.2 Recommendations
Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

6.2.1 The Ministry of Education should:
1. Design and implement guidelines for schools on responding effectively and expeditiously to reports of sexual abuse or harassment and for disciplining teachers or students found to have engaged in such conduct.
2. Enforce punishments for sexual abuse and harassment that is commensurate with the offense, including the mandatory dismissal of teachers who are found to have sexually abused pupils.

3. Offering advocacy and support services to abusers and government officials.

4. Set out guidelines for schools providing details of appropriate action in cases of abuse and create easily accessible procedures by which girls can make confidential complaints.

5. Create an independent Fast track courts at both regional and district levels to monitor cases of abuse in schools and oversee adequate response to reported cases.

6. Drafting and implementing procedures that allow schools to respond to sexual harassment when it occurs including anonymous reporting and terminating male teachers’ jobs.

7. Relinquish some authorities from Teaching Service Commission to P.S or P.E.O on disciplining erring teacher/boys sexually harassing girls in schools.

6.2.2 Provincial Education Office should:
1. Initiate more workshops with heads of schools and teachers on issues related to sexual harassment and professional development.

6.2.3 School administrators should:
1. Respond effectively and expeditiously to reports of sexual harassment, including instituting anonymous mechanisms for reporting cases of sexual harassment.
2. Report sexual harassment cases to P.E.O and to the police in appropriate times.
3. Create and publicize a sexual harassment policy/ clear guidelines and give a photocopy to parents.
4. Provide systems and how staff should handle sexual harassment cases when reported to them.

6.3 Recommendation for future research
Without doubt further research is needed to scale up the research in all the nine provinces of Zambia in order to come up with a conclusive picture of the problem and thus ascertain reasons for persistence of sexual harassment of girls by male teachers and peer boys in schools in the
entire country as finding from this research and others done locally and regionally clearly indicate that it was a major barrier to gender-safe, gender-equitable education for all.
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APPENDIX V : Interview guide for Teaching Service Commission Secretary,
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APPENDIX VI : Letter of consent for an interview

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