

The University of Manchester
Manchester
Business School

MANCHESTER
1824

Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) women's experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England

**Woolnough H.M., Hunt C.M., Davidson M.J.,
Fielden S.L, Dawe A.J. and Hoel H.
(2008)**

**The Centre for Equality and Diversity at Work (CEDW)
Manchester Business School
The University of Manchester
Booth Street West
Manchester
M15 6PB**

Tel: +44(0)161 306 3439

Fax: +44(0)161 306 3420

email: jackie.kan@mbs.ac.uk



EUROPEAN UNION
European Social Fund

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Despite the known importance of sexual harassment in the workplace as a barrier to employment, the experiences of Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) women have so far been overlooked (EHRC, 2006; Robinson, 2005). Most available literature has tended to focus on the experiences of white women and any specific experiences in relation to sexual harassment in the workplace encountered by BAME women is, at present, largely unknown. Furthermore, any available literature that does consider the experiences of BAME women usually derives from the USA. This research examines racialised sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace in the North West of England and provides recommendations for government and organisational Equal Opportunity policies.

This qualitative study, co-funded by the European Social Fund (ESF) and the Centre for Equality and Diversity at Work, University of Manchester, Manchester Business School, is an important step forward for research in relation to the experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace among Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) women. Specifically, this research addresses the knowledge gap concerning sexual harassment in the workplace experienced by BAME women in general and in the North West of England in particular. The study covered all areas of the North West of England and attempted to include women from all BAME groups and communities.

In total, 17 BAME women participated in a confidential and anonymous, in-depth, semi-structured interview with a trained researcher. Participants had either direct experience of sexual harassing behaviours or had witnessed the sexual harassment of another BAME woman in the workplace in the past five years. Interviews were conducted either face-to-face or over the telephone. The varying methods of interview data collation (i.e. face-to-face or over the telephone) were entirely dependent on the particular respondent's personal preference. Interviews were used to elicit in-depth data investigating the experiences of sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace based on an extensive review of relevant literature and the aims and objectives of the study. The qualitative data collated in this study was analysed using the systematic method of content analysis (Weber, 1990). The main findings and recommendations are as follows:

- The vast majority of participants in this study (88.2 per cent, n=15) considered that their experiences of sexual harassment would differ from the experiences of a white woman and/or a woman from a different BAME background/religion. Most participants highlighted cultural differences that would influence the way they experienced sexual harassment compared to white women. Specifically these were in relation to the interpretation of behaviours and the ability to report incidents.
- Only 11.8 per cent of participants (02) were sexually harassed by a white man. This means that the vast majority of participants were sexually harassed by a BAME man.
- Generally, perpetrators of sexual harassment were in more senior positions within the organisation in comparison to the participant.
- Incidents of sexual harassment were only reported by a small minority of BAME participants in this study.
- The decision to report the sexual harassment within the organisation was not an easy decision to make. This was due to the fear among participants of losing their job and the very real threat of negative ramifications from within the organisation, their families and the community outside the workplace.
- Participants clearly outlined that disclosing sexual harassment to others both within the organisation and to family members outside the organisation, may tarnish the family name and possibly result in isolation from the wider community. Also, participants revealed a fear of reprisal from male members of their family, mainly their father, brother (s) and husband.
- Participants who did report the sexual harassment within their organisation encountered obstacles when dealing with the issue including lack of confidentiality among those to whom they reported the harassment.
- Generally participants stated that the organisations in which they were employed during the incident(s) did not have a policy in relation to sexual harassment in place. Similarly, most participants had not received any training in relation to sexual harassment in the workplace.

Participants highlighted numerous recommendations that organisations can implement to influence change and secure a safe, protected environment for BAME women in particular and all employees in general. Key recommendations included:

- The implementation of a clear sexual harassment policy (zero tolerance policy).
- Dissemination of a sexual harassment policy throughout the organisation.
- Implementation of culturally specific training.
- When sexual harassment is reported, take allegations seriously.
- Dissemination of examples of good practice.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Centre for Equality and Diversity at Work, Manchester Business School are most grateful to all contributors to the research who gave generously of their time and made this study possible.

The study team would also like to thank members of the steering committee (in addition to members of the study team) who guided and supported this study. Members of the steering committee were as follows:

Atefa Zaman	Pendle Council
Liz Speed	The Equality and Human Rights Commission
Ekaete Assiak	Race for Opportunity
Rhonda Jones	Consultant
Tracey Pennant	Greater Manchester Police
Grace McCorkle	Trafford Metropolitan Borough Council

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	2
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	4
TABLE OF CONTENTS	5
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES	7
Section 1: INTRODUCTION.....	8
1.1 Background of the Study	8
1.2 Study aims and objectives.....	9
1.3 Organisation of the report.....	9
Section 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	10
2.1 Introduction.....	10
2.2 The effects of sexual harassment (individual and organisational)	11
2.3 Defining sexual harassment	12
2.4 The Relationship between sexual harassment and bullying.....	13
2.5 Forms of sexual harassment	15
2.6 The scale of sexual harassment.....	17
2.7 Individual factors.....	18
2.7.1 <i>The victim</i>	18
2.7.2 <i>Perpetrator</i>	20
2.8 In-group/Out-group.....	21
2.9 Race and sexual harassment in the workplace	22
2.9.1 <i>BAME women in the workplace</i>	22
2.9.2 <i>Gender Roles: Influence of Culture and Traditions</i>	25
2.9.3 <i>The Negative Family Influence</i>	26
2.9.4 <i>The experiences of sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace</i>	26
2.10 Coping strategies used and obstacles faced by victims	30
2.11 Complaints procedure	30
2.12 Summary	31
Section 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	34
3.1 Introduction.....	34
3.2 Study aims and objectives.....	34
3.3 Project Design	35
3.4 The Study Group	37
3.5 Access.....	37
3.6 Participant consent.....	41
3.7 Ethical Considerations.....	41
3.8 The semi-structured interview schedules	42
3.8.1 <i>The design of the semi-structured interview schedules</i>	42
3.8.2 <i>Piloting the semi-structured interviews</i>	43
3.8.3 <i>The semi-structured Interview Procedure</i>	43
3.8.4 <i>Semi-structured interview data analysis</i>	44
3.9 Summary	46

Section 4: IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW RESULTS	48
4.1 Introduction.....	48
4.2 Non Response.....	49
4.3 Demographics	49
4.3.1 <i>Personal demographics</i>	49
4.3.2 <i>Organisational demographics</i>	51
4.4 Defining sexual harassment	53
4.5 The experience of sexual harassment.....	54
4.5.1 <i>Range and scope of sexual harassing behaviours</i>	55
4.5.2 <i>Frequency and duration of sexual harassment</i>	56
4.5.3 <i>Ethnic and cultural influences</i>	58
4.6 The Perpetrator	60
4.7 Reporting.....	62
4.8 Coping Mechanisms	65
4.9 The Organisation	67
4.10 Summary	70
Section 5: CONCLUSIONS: KEY FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	74
5.1 Introduction.....	74
5.2 Differences and similarities in the experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace of BAME women compared to white women/women from different ethnic groups	75
5.3 Key Recommendations	77
5.3.1 <i>Implement a clear sexual harassment policy:</i>	77
5.3.2 <i>Disseminate the sexual harassment policy:</i>	77
5.3.3 <i>Implement culturally specific training:</i>	78
5.3.4 <i>Encourage Reporting:</i>	79
5.3.5 <i>When reported...take allegations seriously:</i>	79
5.3.6 <i>Disseminate examples of good practice:</i>	80
5.4 The way forward	80
REFERENCES	81
APPENDIX 1: RECRUITMENT FLYER	90
APPENDIX 2: Interview Schedule	91
APPENDIX 3: Analysis codes for qualitative content analysis of semi-structured interview materials	96

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 2.1	18
Table 2.2	24
Table 2.3	24
Table 2.4	25
Table 4.1	50
Table 4.2	52
Table 4.3	57
Table 4.4	62
Table 4.5	67
Figure 3.1	36

Section 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Sexual harassment in the workplace is a widespread problem. It can have a significant effect on an employee's job satisfaction, as well as their psychological and physical well-being (Earnshaw & Davidson, 1994; Dan et al., 1995; Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Magley et al., 1999). As such, sexual harassment is increasingly recognised by organisations as a management and leadership problem (Smith, 1999). Yet, academic literature and information relating to sexual harassment reveals that only the tip of the iceberg is currently known. It is likely that much sexual harassment is unreported in the workplace, as studies suggest that only a small minority of people who are sexually harassed make a formal complaint. A survey of complaints to the Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC, 2000) for example, showed that three-quarters of the women in their survey had left their employment as a direct result of the sexual harassment.

It is important, when examining the experiences of victims of sexual harassment that not all individuals are treated the same. Multiculturalists would argue that individuals experience oppression in different ways (Collins, 1998, 2000, Hooks, 1989, 1990, Hurtado, 2003). The combined effect of both male and racial dominance which black women may face may result in completely different experiences of sexual harassment, compared to white women (Buchanan and Ormerod, 2002; Davidson, 1997; DeFour, 1990). Despite the importance of examining diversity and sexual harassment, there appears to be a dearth of research exploring race and sexual harassment and the limited literature available tends to be predominantly North American in origin.

In today's diverse society, an understanding of sexual harassment relating to race, is imperative, to ensure that all vulnerable groups in the workplace are supported and protected. Research to examine the experiences and the prevalence of sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace is urgently required. Ethnic

minority women may experience the combined impact of male dominance from white and ethnic minority men and racial dominance from white women and men.

1.2 Study aims and objectives

This ground breaking study was an important step forward in relation to examining the specific experiences of BAME women who encounter sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England. The study involved a sample of 17 BAME women from across the North West of England who had either experienced sexual harassment directly or had witnessed the sexual harassment of another female BAME colleague in the past five years. Data was collated by means of an in-depth, semi-structured interview conducted either face-to-face or over the telephone with a trained researcher. The findings from the interviews, in conjunction with supporting quotes are reported to clearly highlight the experiences of sexual harassment encountered by BAME participants. It is important to note that confidentiality and anonymity was assured to all participants. Specifically, the main aims and objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To highlight the different sexual harassment experiences in the workplace of BAME women groups compared to their white counterparts.
2. To highlight any differences between ethnic groups.
3. To provide recommendations for initiatives and training to tackle sexual harassment experienced by BAME women in the workplace.

1.3 Organisation of the report

This report contains five sections including this introductory section. The second section reviews relevant academic literature, statistics and information available in relation to sexual harassment in the workplace in general and sexual harassment encountered by BAME women in the workplace in particular. This is followed by outlining the qualitative method employed for this study in section four. Section five of the report documents the main findings from the in-depth, semi-structured interviews and the final section highlights key findings and presents recommendations for initiatives and training to assist organisations in tackling sexual harassment.

Section 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This section presents an in-depth review of the main academic literature and relevant information in relation to sexual harassment in the workplace. Firstly this section outlines the individual and organisational effects of sexual harassment. Following this, the different definitions of sexual harassment are discussed. This literature review also outlines the relationship between sexual harassment and bullying, forms of sexual harassment, the scale of sexual harassment in the workplace and individual factors including the victim and the perpetrator. The role of BAME women in the workplace and their experiences of sexual harassment are then discussed.

Despite the prevalence of sexual harassment in the workplace, it has been somewhat ignored over recent years, with much of the academic literature focusing specifically on bullying (MacIntosh, 2005; Lee, 2002; Cowie et. al., 2002). A survey of complaints to the Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) for example, clearly highlighted the widespread nature of the problem (EHRC, 2000). Respondents who participated in the survey included managers, police officers and bar assistants and three-quarters of the women surveyed claimed that they had left their employment as a direct result of the harassment experienced. Additional studies indicate that only a small minority of people who are sexually harassed make a formal complaint, which suggests that a significant amount of sexual harassment in the workplace is underreported (EHRC, 2000). According to the EHRC, the main reasons people offer for their reluctance to make a formal complaint are: the fear of not being believed; potential damage to their future employment prospects; and/or, the fear of making a claim (EHRC, 2000).

2.2 The effects of sexual harassment (individual and organisational)

Sexual harassment can affect an employee's job satisfaction, as well as their psychological and physical well being (Earnshaw and Davidson, 1994; Dan et. al., 1995; Dansky and Kilpatrick, 1997; Fitzgerald et. al., 1997; Magley et. al., 1999; O'Connell and Korabik, 2000; Schneider et al, 1997; Stedham and Mitchell, 1998). Harassment can lead to: illness, apparent lack of commitment, poor performance, absenteeism, and, in some cases, resignation (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2005). Furthermore, the consequences of sexual harassment can include: humiliation, self-blame, anger, loss of self-confidence, reduction in the ability to perform in the job, demotion, decreased job satisfaction, decreased morale, damage to interpersonal relations at work, and various economic losses (Fitzgerald, 1993; Frazier and Cohen, 1992; Landrine and Klonoff, 1997; Livingston, 1982; Stanko, 1988).

According to the EHRC (2005), sexual harassment can also damage business performance and cost money in terms of compensation for personal injury. Additionally, sexual harassment affects more than the perpetrator and the victim involved. Research has suggested that the negative job-related physical and psychological effects of sexual harassment may extend to other co-workers (Glomb et. al., 1997). Glomb et. al. (1997) believe that sexual harassment in the workplace can create a stressful environment for all employees and this can have a detrimental effect on the culture of the organisation. Employees who witness sexual harassment may conclude that the organisation does not care about the workforce and this may ultimately lead to negative assumptions regarding organisational norms and behaviours, specifically relating to fairness and justice (Lamertz, 2002; Tyler, 1998). This observed incivility can lead to negative consequences, such as decreasing job satisfaction and physical health. It is clear that sexual harassment is an important issue for organisations and further research is vital to improve understanding. In developing an understanding of sexual harassment it is important to address the meaning of sexual harassment.

2.3 Defining sexual harassment

The emergence of the term 'sexual harassment' can be traced back to the mid 1970s in North America although, in the UK, sexual harassment was first argued to be a form of sex discrimination in 1986, under the Employment Protection Act (Hodges Aeberhard, 2001). Sexual harassment can be defined as:

Unwanted conduct of a sexual nature, or other conduct based on sex affecting the dignity of women and men at work which include physical verbal and non verbal conduct. (EHRC, 2005)

Alternatively, Stanko (1988: 91) defines sexual harassment as:

Unwanted sexual attention. Its behavioural forms are many and include: visual (leering); verbal (sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions); unwanted pressure for sexual favours or dates; unwanted touching or pinching; unwanted pressure for sexual favours, with implied threats of job related consequences for non co-operation; physical assault; sexual assault and rape. The behavioural manifestation may be a singular event or continuous series of events.

Precise quantification of sexual harassment in the workplace is problematic. This is largely due to the lack of consensus regarding the definition of sexual harassment, particularly when examining the behaviours and the circumstances in which sexual harassment occurs (Bimrose, 2004; Fitzgerald and Ormerod, 1991; Fitzgerald et. al., 1995; Stockdale and Hope, 1997). Despite the apparent lack of consensus on what constitutes sexual harassment, studies show that sexual harassment can have negative and harmful consequences (Bimrose, 2004).

It is also important to note that an individual's perception of sexual harassment can influence their views of negative behaviours exhibited. Women for example, tend to view sexual harassment as constituting a wider variety of behaviours than men (Gutek, 1995; Kenig and Ryan, 1986). However, a study by Icengole et. al. (2002) found that that male respondents tended to report more accurate perceptions of sexual harassment behaviours by both supervisory and co-workers, than women. This is in contrast to other studies which have shown that women are more inclined to label sexual behaviours in the workplace as an example of sexual harassment (Konrad and Gutek, 1986, Riger, 1991; York et al, 1997).

The status or the power of the perpetrator will also have an influence on perceptions. In general, the increased power differences between the perpetrator and the victim will increase the likelihood of the situation being viewed as harassment (Blumenthal, 1998; Bursik, 1992). In addition, length of service can also impact on perceptions. A study by the Ministry of Defence/EHRC (2006) found that the longer the survey respondents had been in the Service, the higher the perceptions they had that sexual harassment was a problem in their organisation. This figure rose from 29 per cent (those with 2 years service or less) to 40 per cent (in the service for 3-6 years) and up to nearly half (48 per cent) for those with 23 years or more in the service (Rutherford et. al., 2006). Furthermore, cultural issues may impact on perceptions.

2.4 The Relationship between sexual harassment and bullying

Academic literature suggests a relationship between sexual harassment in the workplace and workplace bullying. Much attention has been paid in recent academic work to the concept of 'workplace bullying.' The attention given to 'workplace bullying' has grown substantially since the term was introduced and defined as a workplace problem in the UK in the early 1990s by the journalist Andrea Adams (Adams, 1992). Interest in bullying at work had first developed in Scandinavia nearly a decade earlier and it is now a globally recognised problem reflected in the recent agendas of international organisations such as the International Labour Office (ILO) and the World Health Organization (WHO), (Di Martino et. al., 2003). The pervasiveness of workplace bullying in organisations (Hoel and Cooper, 2000; Quine, 1999; Rayner and Hoel, 1997), the psychological harm which is often suffered by the victims of bullying (Einarsen and Mikkelsen, 2003) and, not least, the impact on organisations in terms of absenteeism, turnover and productivity (Hoel et. al., 2003), have resulted in the recognition of bullying and sexual harassment in workplace as an important management and leadership issue (Smith, 1999).

No single agreed definition of bullying exists, although a convergence of definitions is gradually emerging (Di Martino et. al., 2003, Hoel et. al., 2003). There appears to be agreement that bullying refers to persistent exposure to negative behaviour and negative acts, often over a long time, where the person(s) at the receiving end have

difficulty in defending themselves. This suggests that in most cases, a one-off negative encounter would not be regarded as bullying, although it would still be recognised as an unpleasant experience (Einarsen et. al., 2003).

Although, women and men appear to be at equal risk of becoming a target of bullying (Zapf et. al., 2003), their behavioural experiences may, to some extent, differ (Hoel et. al., 2001). Also, whilst there are certain distinctive features of sexual harassment and bullying, Hearn and Parkin (2001), see both of these behaviours as a form of organisational 'violation'. Moreover, when the organisational status of targets is taken into consideration, female managers appear to be significantly more at risk of bullying than their male counterparts, a fact which may, in part, be explained with reference to the 'glass ceiling', an invisible but real barrier to career advancement based on gender bias (Davidson and Cooper, 1992; Wilson, 2003). It is however, worth noting that the boundaries between the concepts are somewhat unclear, with unwanted sexual attention, used with the intention of excluding or punishing targets, likely to fit the term bullying. Essentially, sexual harassment is seen as representing an abuse of power (Brewis, 2001). It is argued that harassment is "not about sex, [but] about power... it supports and perpetuates a system in which one class of persons is systematically disempowered" (Bratton, cited in Van Tol, 1991: 160).

Sexual harassment, bullying and physical violence can all be viewed as violations of the individual (Hearn and Parkin, 2005). Hearn and Parkin (2005) assert that organisational violation includes harassment, bullying and physical violence, which infers that any violation of an individual can be seen as a form of organisational violation. The majority of published literature on harassment, bullying and violence at work tends to place each of these problems into a separate category. Thus, violence at work is associated with actual physical violence, rather than psychological violence. Organisational policies, on the whole, tend to deal with harassment, bullying and violence as separate issues with little attempt at recognising the links and relationships between and among them (Hearn and Parkin, 2005). Bullying is often seen as something to be ashamed of, and harassment is often seen as something which is asked for. However, being a victim of physical violence, unlike bullying and harassment, seems to receive the most sympathy and is also more

closely linked to criminality. Hearn and Parkin (2005) believe that it is essential to examine gender and sexuality when discussing organisational violation. According to Hearn and Parkin (1987, 1995) *“organisations and sexuality simultaneously construct each other”* (p. 94).

Sexual harassment can be viewed as men exercising power over women in the workplace (Sedley and Benn, 1982). Hearn and Parkin (2005) believe that taking a non-gendered approach when examining organisational violation will have many limitations. Firstly, the majority of victims of sexual harassment are women. Secondly, violence by men, towards men, tends to be related to the construction of men and masculinity. Finally, even when an organisation does not appear to be dominated by men and could even have an equal gender ratio of senior management, masculine norms can still be apparent and overriding. This can be illustrated when looking at the professions of midwifery and nursing. These are overwhelmingly female professions but are controlled by the male medical discourse. Common assumptions regarding desirable managerial competencies, i.e. ‘strong’, ‘masculine’, ‘decisive’, also play their part in the pervasiveness of organisational violence (Collinson, 1988; Einarsen and Raknes, 1997). Hearn and Parkin (2005) believe that hierarchical and managerial power is a central theme when analysing organisation violations. As men remain in positions of power and tend to dominate management structures, they have increased opportunities to exercise their power in a negative manner when compared with women.

2.5 Forms of sexual harassment

The most common form of sexual harassment is that which is perpetrated face-to-face (EHRC, 2000). However, with the increasing advancements in technology and the growth of call centres and Internet use across the globe, there is an increased need for researchers and policy makers to pay equal attention to sexual harassment over the telephone and via the Internet. Whilst research examining sexual harassment over the telephone in the workplace is scarce, there have been few studies examining sexual harassment over the telephone in private settings. A study based on a sample of one hundred German students (n=49 females and n=51

males), found that 50 per cent of females compared to only two per cent of males had at some point experienced sexual harassment over the telephone (Sczensy, 1997). The most serious form of sexual harassment over the telephone in a private setting contained 'groaning' (55 per cent), 'sexual advances' (49 per cent), and 'silence' (26 per cent), (Sczensy and Stahlberg, 1999: 158). There appears to be limited research on how such harassment is handled or the effects on victims.

Harassment via electronic means has increased as the level of internet and email usage has grown (Khoo and Senn, 2004) and is quickly becoming a serious problem (Moulton, 1998). In the last decade, the proportion of female Internet users has risen from five per cent to 66 per cent (LeClaire, 2005; Jackson et. al., 2001) and the total number of women online is now slightly greater than the number of men (LeClaire, 2005). With the ever increasing number of individuals using the Internet, it is not surprising that there has also been a general increase in unsolicited email, including emails which can be perceived as inappropriate or harassing (Khoo and Senn, 2004).

A survey conducted by the Society for Human Resource Management found that 20 per cent of employees had received complaints from employees about improper or harassing emails received at work (Armour, 1999), yet there appears to be limited research examining victims' responses to email harassment. Specifically for sexual harassment, there is a need to focus on "immediate responses" (Woodzicka and LaFrance, 2001: 19), to achieve an understanding of sexual harassment as it occurs. One study which has examined the perceptions of victims by Khoo and Senn (2004), found that gender was a critical factor when examining the experiences of men and women receiving sexually harassing emails from a stranger. Women for example, were more likely than men to find the content of emails offensive. It is evident that gender plays a crucial role in understanding sexual harassment and that it is important to investigate individual experiences to ensure the protection of all employees.

Further empirical research examining sexual harassment in the workplace via electronic media, including chat rooms and virtual meetings is required. Such research will help to understand the victims' experiences of this form of sexual

harassment. Without understanding the scale of this problem and the experiences encountered by victims, it is difficult for organisations to ensure that organisational policies are effective in tackling sexual harassment via electronic means.

2.6 The scale of sexual harassment

Estimates regarding the incidence of sexual harassment vary and can largely be attributed to the differing definitions of sexual harassment employed. In 1993 the Industrial Society reported that 54 per cent of women and nine per cent of men had been sexually harassed at work, but only five per cent of individuals facing sexual harassment at work ever made a formal complaint against their harasser. This highlights that the number of registered complaints represent only a fraction of sexual harassment experienced. Further studies have found less reported sexual harassment. In addition, a 1999 survey of Trades Union Congress (TUC) women's conference delegates found that 27 per cent of women had experienced sexual harassment in the workplace (Union Congress, 1999). Interestingly, a survey conducted by the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) in 2005 found that few employees (less than one in every 100, 0.9 per cent) had experienced sexual harassment in the workplace (Grainger and Fitzner, 2006). This low reporting may be a direct result of the definition of sexual harassment employed in the survey.

Furthermore, a study of 9,384 service women conducted by the Ministry of Defence/Equality and Human Rights Commission (2006) examined; the nature and the extent of sexual harassment experienced and observed and the extent to which the women surveyed felt free to complain and their confidence in the complaints procedure. The survey also attempted to identify the most effective preventative measure to sexual harassment. The survey (and accompanying focus groups and discussions to acquire qualitative data) found that sexualised behaviours, defined as jokes and stories, language and material, were found to be widespread in all of the services. Almost all (99 per cent) of the 9,384 servicewoman who responded had been in situations where they experienced such behaviours in the previous twelve months (see table 2.1 for a full breakdown of behaviours and the percentage of respondents offended by such behaviour). Over two thirds (67 per cent) of respondents had encountered sexual behaviours directed at them personally in the

previous 12 months. These behaviours varied from making unwelcome comments, sending sexually explicit material and unwanted touching through to sexual assaults (Rutherford et. al., 2006). This study further highlights the prevalence of sexual harassment in the workplace.

Table 2.1 – Frequency of Sexualized Behaviours

	Per cent (total)		
	Consistently/All the time/Often/Sometimes	Once or twice	Never
Told sexual jokes and stories	87.7%	10.0%	2.0%
	8233	943	186
Used sexually explicit language	79.3%	14.2%	6.2%
	7442	1334	582
Displayed/used or distributed sexually explicit materials	40.8%	25.4%	33.4%
	3829	2388	3142
Made gestures or used body language of a sexual nature	36.1%	26.6%	36.9%
	3383	2500	3467

(Survey question asked: – How often over the past twelve months have you been in situations where male (or female) UK military personnel and/or civil servants around you have... Behaviours ranked by frequency (Base= All survey respondents – 9384).

Source: Rutherford et. al. (2006: 11)

2.7 Individual factors

When investigating sexual harassment in the workplace, it is necessary to examine literature pertaining to the perpetrator and the victim as the characteristics of both parties can influence the incidence and process of violence in the workplace in general and indeed sexual harassment in particular.

2.7.1 The victim

The Ministry of Defence/EHRC (2006) survey discussed in the previous section found that younger women were more likely to have experienced unwelcome sexual behaviours. In total, 77 per cent of women under 23 had experienced behaviours compared to 44 per cent of women in their forties. Those in lower ranks were also

more likely to find themselves a victim of sexual harassment (20%), (Rutherford et al., 2006). Additionally, a variety of studies on sexual harassment in European Union countries have identified the following characteristics of the harassed; female, young (20-40 years), single or divorced, low levels of education, tenure (long or short term) (EC, 1998).

A survey conducted by the Department for Trade and Industry (DTI) in 2005 was Britain's first large scale survey examining unfair treatment, perceived discrimination, bullying and sexual harassment in the workplace (Grainger and Fitzner, 2006). When employees in the survey were read a definition of sexual harassment and were asked '*in the last two years with your current employer have you experienced bullying or harassment at work?*' the results indicated that:

Women had a higher incidence of sexual harassment (1.1%) than men (0.7%). However, two fifths (41%) of British employees who stated that they had been sexually harassed were men.

Employees with a disability, or long-term illness were five times more likely to have experienced sexual harassment than employees without a disability. Men were more likely to report others being sexually harassed than women.

A study by Kohlman (2004) reported that '*women are not reporting sexual harassment based upon any one overriding factor integrally related to their gender*' (p. 148). Kohlman (2004) found that:

- age, education, race and marital status appeared to be more significant than occupational position.
- women in lower level or in typically 'male' occupations were particularly likely to report sexual harassment whereas men in higher status occupations or who were employed in positions which had a high percentage of female staff, were more likely to report sexual harassment.
- occupational position was a particularly important factor for men.
- women who were divorced or separated were 75 per cent more likely to report that they had been targeted for sexual harassment, than married women.
- divorced and separated men also reported more sexual harassment than married men in the study.

Although literature suggests that it is overwhelmingly women who experience sexual harassment, it is not exclusive to women. Men also experience such harassment. The DTI survey (2005) found that two-fifths of British employees who said they had been sexually harassed were men (Grainger and Fitzner, 2006). Furthermore, a report compiled for the European Commission (1998) found that over half (51%) of male healthcare workers reported being subject to sexual harassment. Although this finding was based on small numbers, it further highlights that sexual harassment is not exclusively experienced by women.

2.7.2 Perpetrator

Many researchers express reservations concerning reporting the common characteristics of the perpetrators of workplace violence and sexual harassment (Di Martino et. al., 2003) but most models of violence acknowledge that there are individual factors which may be of influence. Individuals who are competitive, hard-driving, or have low self monitoring for example, are more likely to exhibit negative behaviours (Anderson et. al., 1996). Attempts to establish a profile of individuals who are likely to commit a violent act (Mantel, 1994) suggest that they are more likely to be young, male, with a history of violent behaviour and a troubled childhood. A study exploring the telling of sexually offensive jokes found that people who had low self-monitoring awareness i.e. did not take into account the effect of their behaviour on others, told more sexually offensive jokes than those who were moderate self-monitors (Mitchell et. al., 2004). Men who have low levels of self-control are more likely to sexually harass than men with high levels of self-control (Done, 2005).

Typically, the perpetrator of sexual harassment will be in a position of power and the victim will be comparatively powerless (Wilson and Thompson, 2001; Gruber and Morgan, 2005). The Ministry of Defence/EHRC survey (2006) found that men's position within the organisation influenced propensity to sexually harass. Perpetrators of sexual harassment were most likely to be Senior Ranks (38 per cent), followed by other ranks (33 per cent) and the Leading Hands/Corporals (31 per cent). The findings suggest that those in direct line of command are normally responsible for the harassment. Line managers, as the perpetrators of sexual harassment, were cited by 21 per cent of survey respondents. This is particularly

worrying as victims are normally required to raise a complaint through the organisational hierarchy, starting with their line manager.

2.8 In-group/Out-group

Individuals who belong to socially advantaged groups typically exhibit more implicit preference for their 'in-group' and more bias against members of any socially disadvantaged 'out-group' (Dasgupta, 2004). The degree of difference and distinctness between the groups is based on social and organisational norms and affects the way in which the groups are seen (Rosenthal & Crisp, 2006). It also provides the prerequisite for inter-group discrimination (Crandall & Stangor, 2005). What this means in terms of sexual harassment is that the greater the distinction between men and women in an organisation, the greater the propensity for harassment to occur.

Although prejudice, stereotypes and discrimination are expressed by individuals, they are generally inter group phenomena (Carlson et. al., 2000). Individuals tend to be prejudiced because they belong to groups that have developed certain relations with each other that are based on unequal status, advantage, conflict and hatred. Therefore, prejudice can be associated with ethnocentrism, which is the notion that one's own cultural, material, racial or religious group is superior to another (Carlson et. al., 2000)

The path from implicit bias to discrimination is not inevitable. People's awareness of potential bias, recognition of their consciously held beliefs and of their ability to control the situation can determine whether or not the bias is translated into action (Dasgupta, 2004). One of the most effective means of reducing bias is to reduce the perceived differences between the groups by increasing perceptions of overlap in terms of inter-group characteristics. In some cases, measures of prejudice have been found to decrease over time as organisational and societal awareness of the issues becomes greater. It is however, unclear if this reflects any genuine reduction in prejudicial beliefs or a move to become more socially acceptable (Sassenberg & Weiber, 2005). Sometimes, members of a socially disadvantaged group may have a

negative reaction towards their own group members and produce unintended consequences, which may be harmful to their own group and to themselves (Dasgupta, 2004). This can be seen in the Amnesty International survey where women were more critical than men of women who were sexually assaulted (Amnesty International, 2005).

2.9 Race and sexual harassment in the workplace

It is important when examining the experiences of victims of sexual harassment that not all individuals are treated the same. Theorists have suggested that ethnic minority women may be at a greater risk of experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace than white women (Shelton and Chavous, 1999; Gruber and Bjorn, 1986; MacKinnon, 1979; Murrell, 1996) and there is some, albeit limited, research which supports this (Landrine and Klonoff, 1997; Mansfield et. al., 1991). This research highlights the disadvantage faced by BAME women in the workplace compared to their white counterparts. Specifically, BAME women have been shown to encounter the double effects of sexism and racism. This section will firstly address the role of BAME women in the workplace to further develop an understanding of why BAME women may be more at risk of encountering negative behaviours in the workplace than their white counterparts.

2.9.1 BAME women in the workplace

Ethnic minority women and indeed men, face significant disadvantage in the workforce. Ethnic minority women and men experience higher unemployment rates than their white counterparts and ethnic minority women, along with white women, are particularly likely to be concentrated in low-paid jobs. A care assistant for example, is one of the most common jobs for Pakistani, Black Caribbean, Black African and white women (EHRC, 2006). Indeed health care and the National Health Service is one of the largest employers of BAME workers (EHRC, 2006). Interestingly, part-time work is less common for ethnic minority women than white women but proportionately more ethnic minority men than white men work part-time. Bangladeshi men have the highest part-time rates compared with other men, 39 per cent of those in employment work part-time (EHRC, 2006).

Although there is a general lack of data on ethnicity and employment, black and ethnic minority women are under-represented at senior and professional levels in the labour market (EHRC, 2006; Davidson, 1997). In the U.K. in 2004, 17 per cent of ethnic minority men were managers or senior officials compared to 10 per cent of ethnic minority women. The highest percentages of women and men in these positions were Indian and Chinese (EHRC, 2006). Studies have shown that professional Black women are more likely to experience gender and racial inequality within their organisation than white women (Higginbotham and Weber, 1999). Research on BAME women managers by Davidson (1997) for example, revealed that these women faced a greater challenge than their white female counterparts because of their gender and ethnicity. Davidson (1997), who interviewed 30 BAME female managers in the UK, found that BAME women lived in a bicultural world and faced role conflict. Specifically, the study revealed that these women;

- Faced the double negative effects of sexism and racism.
- Had fewer, if any, role models and were more likely to feel isolated.
- Contended with stereotypical images based on gender and ethnic origin.
- Had greater home/social/work conflicts, particularly in terms of their role conflict with regards to the family and the bame community.

The Fawcett Society in 2005 further supported these findings, indicating that Pakistani and Bangladeshi women with the same level of qualifications as White women found it harder to get a job. The Society noted that some 78 per cent of Bangladeshi women and 65 per cent of Pakistani women were outside of the labour market and suggested that these women may encounter difficulties acquiring jobs as the intersection of *'racism and sexism operates as a specific barrier to employment'* (p.21).

Recent figures from the TUC (2008) provide further support for this trend. Table 2.2 clearly highlights the gap between the employment rates of white and BAME men and women. It shows for example, that in 2007, there was a gap of 11.2 points in the employment rates of white and BAME workers and a gap of 19.2 points in 2007 in the employment rates of white and BAME female workers.

Table: 2.2 Employment rates for different ethnic groups (per cent), working age, 1997-2007

Men and Women			
	1997	2001	2007
White	73.7	75.7	75.8
BME	55.8	56.5	60.1
Gap	<i>17.9 points</i>	<i>19.2 points</i>	<i>15.7 points</i>
Men			
White	78.4	80.0	79.6
BME	63.7	64.8	68.4
Gap	<i>14.7 points</i>	<i>15.2 points</i>	<i>11.2 points</i>
Women			
White	68.6	71.2	71.8
BME	48.5	48.9	52.0
Gap	<i>20.1 points</i>	<i>22.3 points</i>	<i>19.2 points</i>

Source: TUC (2008:10)

Additionally, tables 2.3 and 2.4 outline the occupations in which BAME and white people work (table 2.3 and 2.4 respectively). These tables show that there has been a more pronounced move to professional occupations for BAME workers but the growth in the numbers of managers and administrators has been less noticeable (TUC, 2008).

Table: 2.3 Occupations in which BAME people work 1997-2007

per cent

	1997	2001	2007
Managers and administrators	10.45	9.87	9.91
Professional Occupations	11.08	14.62	16.13
Associate professional and technical occupations	11.32	13.04	15.70
Clerical secretarial occupations	16.21	15.79	11.44
Craft and related occupations	8.09	6.71	5.68
Personal protective occupations	13.89	7.28	8.46
Sales occupations	9.97	10.20	10.84
Plant and machine operatives	9.74	8.13	6.65
Other occupations	9.26	14.36	15.19
Total	100	100	100

Source (TUC, 2008:14)

Table: 2.4 Occupations in which white people work 1997-2007

per cent

	1997	2001	2007
Managers and administrators	14.88	13.20	15.32
Professional Occupations	9.94	11.45	12.69
Associate professional and technical occupations	9.97	13.28	14.05
Clerical secretarial occupations	16.87	14.89	13.31
Craft and related occupations	10.18	9.54	8.56
Personal protective occupations	11.46	7.46	8.31
Sales occupations	8.58	8.54	8.24
Plant and machine operatives	9.73	8.56	7.43
Other occupations	8.39	13.19	12.09
Total	100	100	100

Source (TUC, 2008:14)

2.9.2 Gender Roles: Influence of Culture and Traditions

The literature on working women also reveals that women often face the difficulty of participating in two activity systems that are incompatible (Northcraft and Gutek, 1993; Davidson, 1997; Omar and Davidson, 2001). When women opt for careers, they add new sets of roles to their lives and role demands without commensurate decrease in their traditional roles as wives and mothers. In some societies, such as those in the Middle-East and in most Asian countries, sex role traditionalism presents even greater challenges for working women (Omar and Davidson, 2001). According to Ram et, al. (2001), adherence to the traditional gender roles appeared more obvious within the Pakistani society. The researchers found for example, that while Indians were more liberal in their views about women working (Metcalf et. al., 1996), most Pakistani respondents in their study objected to married women performing any paid work.

According to Rana et. al. (1998), the traditional roles many Asian women are expected to assume do not diminish with economic responsibility. Many Asian women are expected to accept their submissive positions within authoritarian and patriarchal family structures, which are legitimised by the concept that it is an integral part of their culture. In some cases, women themselves may help to sustain their traditional gender roles and their 'submissive positions'.

2.9.3 *The Negative Family Influence*

In connection with the above, the family may act as a hindrance or a controlling factor for some BAME women. For example, within certain sectors of the Asian community, as the discussion above revealed, women are viewed as subservient and in general, women were expected to fall into the role of 'housewives'. The family in such a community is so significant that there is an expectation within the community in general and the family specifically, for the wife not to work (Ram et. al., 2001).

Rana et. al. (1998) further revealed that while Asian women tend to benefit from the extended family network, such networks also result in a higher level of stress amongst BAME working women. This prevailing culture may have a negative affect on women who decide to work, as they may feel pressurised by the family or made to feel guilty by family members who consider that they are putting work before their domestic and family duties. Furthermore, the burden of the extended family may often add to the levels of stress encountered by working Asian women and impact on the time they have available to devote to work. The nature of the extended family for example, often involves spending a great deal of time at weekends socialising and preparing for guests, thus ultimately leaving these women with little time to perform other domestic responsibilities or to rest (Rana et. al., 1998; Dawe and Fielden, 2005).

2.9.4 *The experiences of sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace*

The previous sections (2.9.1 to 2.9.3) have shown that BAME women encounter disadvantage in the workplace, particularly in comparison to their white female counterparts. When examining the profile of victims of sexual harassment, it is important to understand that women (and indeed men) may experience oppression in different ways (Collins, 1998; Hooks, 1989; Hurtado, 2003). A review of the literature has shown that there is a dearth of research exploring race and sexual harassment, with the majority of studies being conducted in the USA and concentrating on women. Such studies are essential to develop an increased understanding of the combined effect of both sexual and racial dominance, which ethnic minority women may face (Buchanan and Ormerod, 2002; DeFour, 1990).

It has been argued that sexual harassment should be defined differently for ethnic minority women. Murrell (1996: 57) states that:

Sexual harassment should be defined as a form of both sex discrimination and race discrimination because they are historically and experientially tied to one another.

In the USA, authors have emphasised slavery as having shaped, in some respects, black women's experiences of sexual harassment (Adams, 1997). Buchanan and Ormerod (2002) believe that the harassment experienced by African American women is unique both in its perception and its form and suggest that it should be termed racialised sexual harassment (Buchanan and Ormerod, 2002; Martin 1994). Mecca and Rubin (1999) found that *"for many African American women, the issue of sexual harassment seems inextricably intertwined with racism"* (1999; 877). Using the theory of men exerting their power over women may be too simplistic when examining racialised sexual harassment. Many different experiences may be encountered. The type, form, duration, effects and outcomes of sexual harassment may differ if, for example, a white woman sexually harasses a BAME woman, or a BAME man sexually harasses a BAME woman.

There may be many power issues at play in racialised sexual harassment which simply may not fit the traditional picture of men exerting their sexual power over women. For example, sexual harassment of black women by black men is often trivialized, particularly by the victims (Shelton and Chavous, 1999). Furthermore, Wen-Chu Chen (1997: 59), based on her research regarding the sexual harassment experiences of Asian-American women, states that:

racial inequality is as much a dimension of the sexual harassment experiences of Asian-American women as is gender inequality. White and non-Asian men, holding stereotyped notions of Asian-American women, may subject Asian-American women to more extreme sexist attitudes and behaviors, which the men would not expect from their white or non-Asian counterparts.

Robinson's (2005) study investigated whether sexual harassment was an effective tool through which oppressive power relations across gender, race, ethnicity, class and sexuality could be reinforced and maintained in society. The author found that women in the study believed that the motivations for the sexual attacks were, in

some form linked not only to their gender, but also to the fact that they were 'Australian' women. The interplay between gender and race described here raises key questions regarding sexual harassment and the complex way that it can "intersect with racist discourses" (Robinson, 2005: 21). Therefore, one must consider the unique motivations and experiences of this group in order to understand how and why sexual harassment is experienced. It is also important to note that limited literature has addressed the experiences of sexual harassment among gay men and women, both as victims and perpetrators (Morgan and Davidson, 2008). Similarly, this type of sexual harassment does not fit the typical pattern of a man exerting his power over a woman. Further research is required to investigate this in more detail.

Interestingly, one of the first cases which established sexual harassment as a form of discrimination in Britain was from a complaint filed by a black woman. The complaint covered both racial and sexual forms (Vinson v. Taylor, 1986), illustrating that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish and disentangle sexual harassment from racial harassment (Shelton and Chavous, 1999; Collins, 1990; Essed, 1992; Hooks, 1984). A small study (n=35) by Segura (1992) found that women did not report race and gender harassment as separate incidents. Sexual harassment policies do not appear to cover this combined form of harassment. Therefore the harassment experienced by ethnic minority women may in fact be overlooked in many organisations, either emphasising the racial or the sexual element.

Research has shown that there is a connection between racial and sexual dominance experienced (Buchanan, 2005). The top of organisations are usually dominated by white men, who receive benefits due to the masculine and racial privileges inherent within the organisation. In addition, status within each level of the hierarchy may be maintained by the harassment of those who are at lower levels and it is often perceived that women who are sexually harassed may be relatively powerless within an organisation. Furthermore, ethnic minority women tend to be in positions which have low status.

Black, Asian and ethnic minority women may experience male dominance from white and ethnic minority men and racial dominance from white women and white men. In

a study of ethnic minority female managers in the UK, Davidson (1997) found that half of the women had been sexually harassed by ethnic minority males and the other half by white males. An American study by Kohlman (2004) found that Hispanic women were 26 per cent more likely to report sexual harassment when compared with white women. Furthermore, Kohlman (2004) found that black men were significantly more likely to report sexual harassment than white men. This emphasises the importance of conducting empirical research with both men and women from black and ethnic minorities. Thus, it is important to ascertain women's experiences of racialised sexual harassment, so that it is recognised within organisations. It is also necessary to understand the different experiences encountered by women from different black and ethnic minority groups.

Theorists have suggested that ethnic minority women may be at a greater risk of experiencing sexual harassment than white women (Shelton and Chavous, 1999; Gruber and Bjorn, 1986; MacKinnon, 1979; Murrell, 1996) and there is some, albeit limited, research which supports this (Landrine and Klonoff, 1997; Mansfield et al., 1991). Professional Black women are more likely to experience gender and racial inequality within their organisation than white women (Higginbotham and Weber, 1999). In a study with 37 African American women, Buchanan (2005) found that women believed their experiences were different to those of Caucasian women, particularly with regard to the fact they were often seen as the "Jezebel" (Buchanan, 2005: 306). In contrast, Wyatt and Rierdale (1995) concluded that more than half of the white women in their study reported sexual harassment, compared with just over one third of African American women.

Women and indeed men experience oppression and discrimination in different ways. It is therefore essential to understand how BAME women and men perceive and experience sexual harassment. Studies examining an individual's experiences of sexual harassment are perhaps more useful than simply examining the extent of the problem. Developing an insight into the experiences of vulnerable groups will help to ensure that effective policies and training are implemented and delivered. Furthermore, providing insight into racialised sexual harassment will help to highlight the different sexual harassment experiences of black and ethnic minority women and

men and draw attention to the differences between ethnic groups. This can be achieved through systematic, empirical research.

2.10 Coping strategies used and obstacles faced by victims

There are a variety of obstacles which a victim of sexual harassment may face when attempting to make a complaint. A study by Sigal et. al. (2003) investigated the effects of type of victims' coping responses and the type of setting on students' reactions to a sexual harassment scenario and found that active coping strategies are effective methods of dealing with sexual harassment. Furthermore, negative assumptions of the victim were not held when they used active coping response. An understanding of these issues may help to encourage victims to seek advice and file complaints.

In contrast, Mann and Guadagno's (1999) found that when a victim reported harassing behaviour in an academic setting, they were more likely to be perceived as 'less feminine and likeable' and 'less trustworthy', than a victim who did not report the sexual harassment. This is also supported by Stockdale (1998), who found that women who used confrontational strategies when coping with sexual harassment were more likely than women who used passive coping strategies, to experience negative perceptions of their working environment and have poorer employment outcomes, for example, changing jobs. It is evident that the decision of whether or not to report sexual harassment is a complex one. This is further intensified when considering that sexual harassment is often a continuous set of events, rather than one isolated incident. In this respect, the victim may experience a range of different emotions throughout these events (Ware Balogh et al, 2003).

2.11 Complaints procedure

An additional problem for victims of sexual harassment may be their lack of awareness of the policy and procedures for filing a complaint within their organisation. When examining the complaints procedure in the Ministry of Defence, Rutherford et. al. (2006) found that:

- Only five per cent of survey respondents who had suffered a 'particularly upsetting' experience actually made a formal written complaint. These respondents were three times more likely to make a formal complaint if the behaviour involved sexual assault than for other forms of sexual harassment.
- Only eight per cent of the respondents who had a 'particularly upsetting' experience did not know how to make a complaint.
- Reasons for not filing a complaint were similar to why respondents were not willing to tell anyone about their experience, i.e. wanting to handle the situation themselves (67%), fear of being labelled a troublemaker (39%), fear of the complaint having a negative impact on their career (35%), feeling they would not be believed (19%), and thirty-nine per cent felt that nothing would be done about it.
- Nearly half of the respondents who had made a formal complaint were dissatisfied with the length of time it took to resolve the issue.
- 46 per cent were dissatisfied with the way they were kept informed about the procedure and 42 per cent were dissatisfied with the way the outcome was explained.
- Over half of the respondents who had made a formal complaint stated that there had been negative consequences as a result of filing a complaint, with 64 per cent considering leaving the Services.

A study by Earnshaw and Davidson (1994) aimed to explore the motives of those who had brought legal proceedings via an Industrial Tribunal under the Sex Discrimination Act and their experiences before, during and subsequent to the tribunal hearing. The study found that there was a disturbing lack of knowledge as to where to turn for advice and assistance following sexual harassment. Furthermore, only one third of victims in the study stated that there was an individual in the organisation to which they felt able to report the sexual harassment, and one in ten victims confided in no one at all. Not surprisingly, victims also found the proceeding itself to be distressing. Over half the claimants in this study found having to confront their sexual harasser at such close proximity extremely stressful. Victims also had anxiety relating to the press. Press harassment and the inaccurate reporting of the incident by the press caused a number of claimants extreme personal distress (Earnshaw and Davidson, 1994).

2.12 Summary

This section has reviewed relevant literature and information in relation to sexual harassment in the workplace in general and for Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) women in particular. The review highlighted that precise quantification of

sexual harassment in the workplace is problematic. This is largely due to the lack of consensus regarding the definition of sexual harassment, particularly when examining the behaviours and the circumstances in which sexual harassment occurs (Bimrose, 2004; Fitzgerald and Ormerod, 1991; Fitzgerald et. al., 1995; Stockdale and Hope, 1997). It is also important to note that an individual's perception of sexual harassment can influence their views of negative behaviours exhibited. Women for example, tend to view sexual harassment as constituting a wider variety of behaviours than men and it is likely that cultural differences will also affect perception of sexual harassment (Gutek, 1995; Kenig and Ryan, 1986).

Despite the apparent lack of consensus on what constitutes sexual harassment, studies show that sexual harassment can have negative and harmful consequences (Bimrose, 2004). Sexual harassment can be apparent in a variety of forms in organisations (e.g. face to face, over the telephone, email) and have devastating effects on individuals (EHRC, 2005). Additionally, sexual harassment affects more than the perpetrator and the victim involved. Research has suggested that the negative job-related physical and psychological effects of sexual harassment may extend to other co-workers (Glomb et. al., 1997). Witnessing sexual harassment for example, can be stressful and may lead employees to conclude that their organisation does not care about its workforce. This observed incivility can have a detrimental effect on the culture of the organisation.

Despite the prevalence of sexual harassment in the workplace, it has been somewhat ignored over recent years, with much of the academic literature focusing specifically on bullying (MacIntosh, 2005; Lee, 2002; Cowie et. al., 2002). Yet studies indicate that only a small minority of people who are sexually harassed make a formal complaint. This suggests that a significant amount of sexual harassment in the workplace is underreported (EHRC, 2000). According to the EHRC, the main reasons people offer for their reluctance to make a formal complaint are: the fear of not being believed; potential damage to their future employment prospects; and/or, the fear of making a claim (EHRC, 2000).

Limited literature has addressed the role of race in sexual harassment although theorists have suggested that ethnic minority women may be at greater risk of experiencing sexual harassment than white women (Shelton and Chavous).

It is important, when examining the experiences of victims of sexual harassment that not all individuals are treated the same. Multiculturalists would argue that individuals experience oppression in different ways (Collins, 1998, 2000, Hooks, 1989, 1990, Hurtado, 2003). The combined effect of both male and racial dominance which black women may face may result in completely different experiences of sexual harassment, compared to white women (Buchanan and Ormerod, 2002; Davidson, 1997; DeFour, 1990). Despite the importance of examining diversity and sexual harassment, there appears to be a dearth of research exploring race and sexual harassment and the limited literature available tends to be predominantly North American in origin.

In today's diverse society, an understanding of sexual harassment relating to race, is imperative, to ensure that all vulnerable groups in the workplace are supported and protected. Research to examine the experiences and the prevalence of sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace is urgently required. Ethnic minority women may experience the combined impact of male dominance from white and ethnic minority men and racial dominance from white women and men. The following section addresses the research methodology employed to address the experiences of sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace in the North West of England.

Section 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section addresses the qualitative method used to investigate Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) women's experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England. The design of the study was determined by its objectives as well as its investigative nature. In-depth, semi-structured, telephone or face-to-face interviews were utilised as the main inquiry tool to examine the experiences of BAME women who had encountered sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England in the past five years, either by direct experience of sexual harassing behaviours or witnessing the sexual harassment of another BAME woman in the workplace. The study was extended to include participants who had witnessed sexual harassment as this has been shown in the literature to be detrimental to employees (Glomb et.al., 1997).

3.2 Study aims and objectives

The main aim of this study was to investigate BAME women who had direct experience of sexual harassment, or had witnessed the sexual harassment of another BAME woman in the workplace in the North West of England in the last five years. The study also aimed to provide recommendations to help overcome organisational barriers and shape sexual harassment policies in the workplace at both national and organisational level.

Respondents in this study were required to live and/or work in the North West of England. This was because the study was co-funded by the European Social Fund's (ESF) initiative to improve the role of women in the workplace in the North West (Policy field 5, measure 1). Specifically this measure aimed to 'improve access to learning and remove barriers to employment and to research issues related to gender discrimination in employment such as recruitment, pay segregation and progressions and to support follow up activities arising from the research' (Regional

Development Plan, p.46). In this respect, this study met the aims and objectives of measure 5.1 by conducting empirical research into racialised sexual harassment in the workplace faced by BAME women living or working in the North West of England (RDP, p.29). Specifically, the overall objectives of the study were as follows:

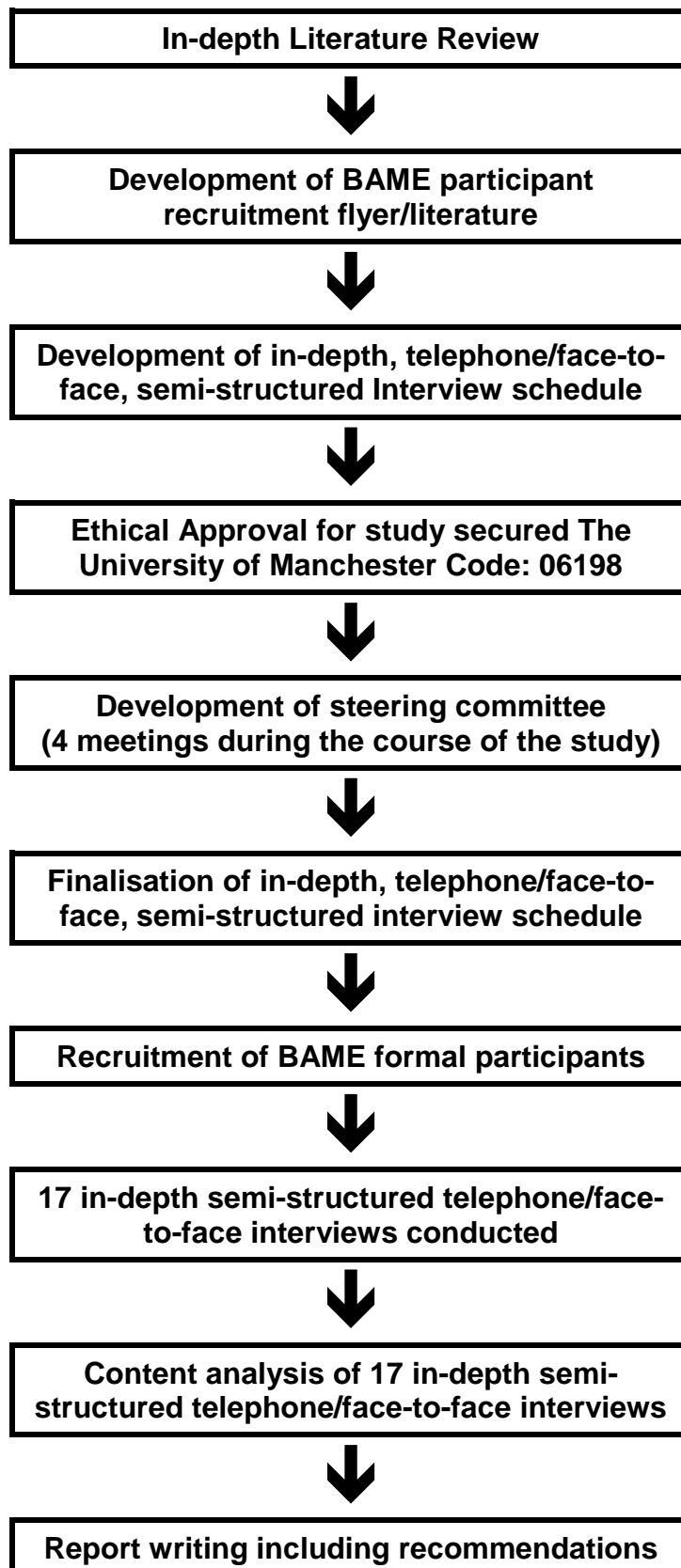
1. To highlight the different sexual harassment experiences in the workplace of BAME women groups compared to their white counterparts.
2. To highlight any differences between ethnic groups.
3. To provide recommendations for initiatives and training to tackle sexual harassment experienced by BAME women in the workplace.

3.3 Project Design

The methodological design for this study was determined by the specific aims and objectives of the study and the absence of empirical research addressing the experiences of BAME women as isolated from the in-depth literature review (outlined chapter 2). The study was therefore investigative and exploratory in nature. Essentially, the project was divided into the following stages as illustrated by figure 3.1. Firstly an in-depth review of relevant literature was conducted. This was followed by the development of the qualitative, in-depth, semi-structured face-to-face/telephone interview schedule. The research team employed a qualitative method to the generation of data due to the exploratory nature of the research and the sensitivity of the subject matter (May, 1997). This is further discussed in section 3.8.

Ethical approval was acquired and a steering group developed. Potential BAME female participants were recruited and 17 in-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with BAME women who had experienced or witnessed the sexual harassment of another BAME woman in the workplace in the North West of England in the past five years. The interview materials were analysed using content analysis (Creswell, 2003) and this report was formulated including the development of key recommendations. Figure 3.1 illustrates a more detailed breakdown of the methodological process adopted for this study.

Figure 3.1 Project Methodology



3.4 The Study Group

The study involved 17 BAME female participants who had either personally encountered sexual harassment, or had witnessed the sexual harassment of another BAME woman in the workplace in the last five years in the North West of England. Potential respondents were located in a diverse range of areas across the North West of England. No restrictions were placed on the area in which they worked and the type of work in which respondents were employed. Potential respondents were invited to participate in the research whether they worked full or part time, in the public, private or voluntary sector. Similarly, no restrictions were placed on type of employment. Potential respondents were invited to take part in the study whether they were employed on a permanent, fixed term or temporary basis.

3.5 Access

Essentially, the sampling strategy of snowballing was employed for this study. Snowballing is often used to obtain a sample when there is no adequate list which can be used as a sampling frame (Gilbert, 1993). The approach involves contacting a member of the population of interest and/or organisations in relation to the subject area with known contacts and asking whether they know anyone with the required characteristics. These individuals are interviewed and are asked to refer the study team to other potential interviewees. Again these individuals are interviewed and the same question is asked.

This form of non probability sampling is not without limitations (May, 1997). Snowball sampling, for example, may lead researchers to collect data that reflects a particular perspective, thereby omitting the voices of others who are not part of a network of contacts (May, 1997). This approach to sampling was, however, regarded as the most appropriate in light of the exploratory nature of this study, the sensitive nature of the subject matter and the absence of a known existing sample frame (Creswell, 2003; Gilbert, 1993; May, 1997).

Initially, the study team attempted to access BAME women through various BAME networks already known to the study team and the steering group (which included representatives from the Equality and Human Rights Commission and Opportunity Now). This was achieved by distributing a carefully designed recruitment flyer (see appendix 1). The recruitment flyer clearly outlined the aims and objectives of the study and invited BAME women living or working in the North West of England, who had either experienced sexual harassment, or witnessed the sexual harassment of another BAME woman in the workplace in the past five years, to participate in a confidential and anonymous, face-to-face or telephone interview with a trained researcher.

Through the process of snowballing, recruitment flyers were distributed to numerous individuals and organisations across the North West of England. Members of the study team also visited a variety of BAME organisations to talk directly to potential respondents and the research was publicised on local radio. Every attempt was made by the study team to access women from different BAME groups and ethnic communities. Furthermore, at the close of each interview, BAME women were asked to pass on details of the study to other potential female BAME participants known to them.

Although the study team had anticipated difficulties accessing potential participants due to the sensitive nature of the subject matter, recruiting participants was a frustrating process. Despite the study team's best endeavours, it proved extremely difficult to encourage individuals to participate in the study. That is not to say that sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace is not as widespread as initially anticipated by the study team. Rather, BAME women were reluctant to speak anonymously to an independent researcher due to fear of reprisals from their communities and feelings of shame associated with the experience. This significant finding is discussed further in chapter 4 (In-depth Interview Findings).

In total, it is anticipated that the study team accessed thousands of potential BAME female participants through the distribution of recruitment flyers and the development of personal contacts with various individuals and organisations across the North West of England. Information expressing the aims and objectives of the study to

encourage BAME women to participate in the study was distributed to the following organisations/individuals across the North West of England:

- Asian Elders Resource Centre, Bolton
- Awaaz Asian Women's Group, Accrington
- Bangladesh Association and Community Project
- Black Health Agency
- Blackburn African Community
- Blackburn Local Government
- Bolton Equality unit
- Bolton Hindu Forum
- Bolton Surti Sunni Voura Muslim Association
- Bolton Volunteer Bureau
- Bolton Women's Aid
- British Asian Community Foundation, Burnley
- British Red Cross
- Burnley Local Government
- Burnley Women's Refuge Association
- Bury City Council
- Bury Equality Unit
- Bury Law Centre
- Care Services Improvement Partnership, North West
- Cheetham Hill Advice Centre
- Council for Voluntary Services, Blackburn with Darwen
- Council for Voluntary Services, Bolton
- Council for Voluntary Services, Manchester
- Council for Voluntary Services, Liverpool
- Council for Voluntary Services, Preston
- Darul Uloom Qadiria Jilania
- Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC)
- Extended Schools Development, Pendle
- First Asian Support Trust (FAST), Cheetham Hill
- Greater Manchester Bangladesh Association (GMBA)
- Greater Manchester Employer Coalition
- Halton City Council
- Health and Care Together (HCT), Bolton
- Heywood, Middleton and Rochdale Primary Care Trust
- Improvement and Development Team, Rochdale
- Iraqi Community Group
- Kutchi Women's Group, Blackburn
- Lancashire Council of Mosques
- Lancashire Wide Network for Minority Ethnic Women
- League of Jewish Women, Manchester
- Liverpool Muslim Society
- Manchester Bangladeshi Women's Organisation
- Manchester Black Health Forum
- Manchester City Council
- Manchester Equality Unit
- Manchester Indian Senior Citizens Centre

- Manchester Mental health and Social Care Trust
- Manchester Women from Abroad Group
- Millan Women's Support Group, Accrington
- Moss Side and Hulme Community Development Trust
- Nigerian Community Centre, Rusholme
- North Manchester Law Centre
- North West Asian Arts
- Oldham Law Centre
- Oldham Primary Care Trust
- Opportunity Now
- Osagyefo
- Pakistani Resource Centre
- Preston Women's Refuge
- Prestwich Local Government
- Professional Black Women's Network
- PSS Gateway Project, Liverpool
- Rochdale Centre of Diversity
- Rochdale Law Centre
- Rochdale Women's Welfare Centre
- Roshni Group, Bolton
- RV Mission, Bolton
- Sahara in Preston
- Saheli (Friends), Bolton
- Salford City Council
- Salford Equality Unit
- Salford Link Project
- Sefton Equalities Partnership
- Somali Women's Group of Liverpool
- Somali Women's Group of Manchester
- South Manchester Law Centre
- Stockport Equality Unit
- Students (undergraduate and postgraduate) at Manchester University
- The New Bolton Somali Community Organisation
- Train 2000, Liverpool
- Trafford Council for Voluntary Services and Volunteer Centre
- Wai Yin Chinese Women's Society
- Wigan Equality Unit
- Wirral Citizens Advice Bureau
- Women's Centre, Blackburn and District
- Women's Electric Village Hall.

Members of the project team also:

- Broadcast the study on Rochdale's Crescent Community Asian Radio.
- Attended Women's Day at Rochdale Town Hall (flyers distributed).
- Attended Middleton international Women's Day (flyers distributed).
- Attended the 'Realising our potential: Asian women' conference by the Northwest Regional Assembly (flyers distributed).
- Attended the 'Crossing Continents' launch and presentation event, Cheetham Hill.

- Publicised the study on the Centre for Equality and Diversity at Work website.
- Placed an advert in the Asian Times Newspaper (circulated to thousands of individuals across the North West of England).
- Distributed recruitment flyers to all contacts on the Manchester City Council Equality Service and Inclusion Team for the Women from Abroad Group database (over 90 individuals/organisations contacted).

3.6 Participant consent

The recruitment flyer distributed to individuals and organisations clearly explained the aims and objectives of the research, the research process, who would be undertaking the research, how it would be disseminated, ethical considerations and provided an assurance of confidentiality, to ensure that participants were able to give their informed consent (Gilbert, 1993). This was reiterated at the beginning and the close of each interview by the researcher conducting the interview. All participants willingly gave their permission to be included in the study although they were notified that they could withdraw from the study without notice at any time.

It is important to note that BAME women who agreed to participate in an interview were offered the option of speaking to a female BAME trained researcher. In all cases, respondents declined, preferring to speak to someone outside their culture who they felt were considerably less likely to interpret their experiences in a negative manner and be familiar with any individuals within the community to whom the respondent may have referred during the course of the interview.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Due to the sensitive nature of the research, the study team were required to complete rigorous ethical measures by the University of Manchester. The study team submitted a proposal to the University of Manchester's research ethics committee which provided the committee with written documentation clearly outlining the aims, objectives and ethical concerns of the study, including measures the study team would take to address ethical considerations arising from the research. This was fully reviewed by the University of Manchester's ethical committee and members of the study team attended a committee meeting to further discuss ethical concerns. After

satisfying the ethics committee that the study team had fully considered ethical issues and had developed measures to deal with ethical matters arising from the research, the study was granted ethical approval (University of Manchester ethics committee number 06198).

The study team also stressed a commitment to adhering to the British Psychological Society's (BPS) ethical guidelines to ensure good practice was maintained including voluntary participation, informed consent and confidentiality and anonymity guaranteed to all participants. Furthermore, all participants were provided with the names of other support groups/help lines (e.g. Samaritans, UNISON, Equality and Human Rights Commission) in the eventuality that completing research measures raised issues for participants the study team could not pursue, as it was not within the remit of the research process.

3.8 The semi-structured interview schedules

3.8.1 The design of the semi-structured interview schedules

In-depth, semi-structured interviews were utilised to access data. Essentially, interviews are 'guided conversations' (Gilbert, 1993) designed to elicit rich, detailed information and are particularly useful when attempting to access information regarding sensitive areas of study (Creswell, 2003). Therefore, interviews were regarded as the most appropriate method of data collation due to the sensitive subject matter and the exploratory nature of the research.

In-depth interviews conducted with the 17 participants followed a semi-structured format (see appendix 2). Semi-structured interview schedules follow a predetermined schedule but allow researchers to probe for further information and alter the sequence of questions depending on the individual's responses (May, 1997). The semi-structured interview schedules were carefully designed based on the in-depth review of the literature presented in chapter two and the aims and objectives of the study. The interviews were designed to elicit in-depth information of direct relevance to the aims and objectives of the study and to provide qualitative data relating to the experiences of sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace in the North West of England. The semi-structured interview schedules were based on

seven themes, which derived from the extensive review of the literature and the aims and objectives of the study. These were as follows:

1. Demographics – personal and organisational data relating to BAME female respondents.
2. Defining sexual harassment – examining BAME participant's perceptions of the meaning of sexual harassment in the workplace.
3. The experience – investigating the experience(s) of sexual harassment encountered by BAME participants.
4. The perpetrator – examining characteristics of the perpetrators of sexual harassment in the workplace.
5. Reporting – accessing information on the extent to which BAME women report sexual harassment and their experiences of the reporting process.
6. Coping mechanisms – investigating the physical and/or psychological side effects of sexual harassment and the coping strategies employed by BAME women.
7. The organisation – addressing organisational policies/procedures in relation to sexual harassment and key recommendations or organisations to deal with sexual harassment in the workplace.

3.8.2 Piloting the semi-structured interviews

The in-depth, semi-structured interview schedule was piloted on two participants. Few amendments were required but piloting the interview schedule proved extremely useful in determining the sequence of questions and the length of time required to conduct the interview.

3.8.3 The semi-structured Interview Procedure

The study team conducted telephone or face-to-face interviews with participants at a time determined by the participant. All participants were asked whether they would prefer to conduct the interview on a face-to-face basis or over the telephone. Whilst some respondents preferred to speak to a researcher face-to-face, others preferred to speak over the telephone to further enhance their anonymity.

A member of the study team contacted the participant prior to the interview to request their participation and to arrange a convenient time to contact them to conduct the interview. At this time, participants were informed of the interview format and the expected length of time of the interview. This was to ensure that participants scheduled an appropriate amount of time into their day to devote to the interview. Some participants preferred to conduct the interview during their working day, while others preferred the researcher to contact them at home in their free time.

Participants were asked for their permission for the interviewer to record the interview to prevent the loss of relevant and valuable data and enable the researcher to focus on the conversation (Gilbert, 1993). Participants were reassured that their responses would be treated in strict confidence. Most respondents agreed to the use of the tape recorder although some declined.

The interviews followed a semi-structured format in that predetermined questions were developed but where necessary, the member of the study team conducting the interview probed for fuller responses with regards to events, opinions and feelings. All interviewers made a conscious effort to be as neutral as possible and refrain from inclining participants towards a particular response (May, 1997). The interview questions were phrased in everyday language in order to avoid misinterpretation. Questions were ordered so that the interviews flowed logically and conversationally. The order of questions and sections also depended on the degree of personal disclosure required. It was, however, possible to change the order of questions if this was appropriate during the course of the interview (Ritchie and Lewis, 2006).

The interviews tended to last approximately the same amount of time (30-40 minutes). At the close of each interview, the interviewer thanked participants for taking time out of their day to participate in the study. Participants were invited to ask any further questions regarding the study and were again reassured about the confidentiality of the interviews. Furthermore, all participants were provided with the details of support organisations they could contact to further discuss issues raised during the interview process that were beyond the remit and scope of the study team. Where interviews had been recorded, the interviewer immediately checked that the interview had indeed recorded. Where note taking was employed, the researcher immediately reviewed the interview in an attempt to recall as much information as possible.

3.8.4 *Semi-structured interview data analysis*

Fundamentally, analysis of the transcribed interview materials was guided by the strategies developed by Miles and Huberman (1994) who present qualitative data analysis as having three stages; data reduction or taking raw data and simplifying and transforming them using codes; data display which is displaying the data in an

organised assembly of information and conclusion drawing and verification or deciding what everything means. The semi-structured interviews were analysed using content analysis. According to researchers there are various techniques that form part of this methodology and as such, Weber (1990:13) states that there is 'no right way to do content analysis.'

The central concept of content analysis, however, is that systematic and objective procedures are utilized to reduce data and make much smaller, more manageable indicators, relevant to the concerns of the researcher (Weber 1990; Neurendorf, 2002; Krippendorff, 1980). Typically, the method employs a human based coding system whereby codes are attached to words or phrases depending on the responses of the participants and clustered into themes or categories and sub themes. This process of coding interview material is critical as it is considered to be the heart and soul of the analysis process (Ryan and Bernard, 2000).

According to Neuendorf (2002), content analysis requires a 'p priori' ('before the fact') design; that is, a coding frame/scheme should be developed before data is collated and the messages contained in the data are observed. Decisions on coding frames should be based on in-depth reviews of past research, theories and bodies of evidence within the area of investigation under review. Researchers however, have criticized this deductive approach as it can stifle creativity and innovation (Kuhn, 1970). Furthermore, Atkinson points out, that one of the disadvantages of content analysis is that pre determined categories, can furnish a 'powerful conceptual grid' (1992:459) from which it is difficult to escape. Whilst this 'grid' is very helpful in organizing the data analysis, it can deflect attention away from uncategorized activities. In addition, when existing theory or research literature cannot give a complete picture of the content to be examined, designing coding schemes before data is collated and analysed becomes an unhelpful and largely futile task. Neurendorf (2002) argues that in these instances, the researcher needs to adopt a more practical approach. In these instances, it is appropriate to conduct exploratory work before data is collated and adopt an emergent process of coding. Therefore this process involves a combination of induction and deduction. This captures the spirit of qualitative research, which is 'emergent rather than tightly prefigured' (Creswell, 2003:181).

The study team adopted this approach. A coding scheme was developed based on the in-depth review of the literature and was used to help the study team organise data. Coding was achieved by utilising a human-based coding system. Although computer software to assist the analysis was considered (e.g. QSR NUDIST), the study team found that adopting a human based coding system was more useful to prevent the possibility that the richness, detail and meaning in the in-depth interview texts from being minimized.

Pre-analysis of the interview materials began with the process of familiarisation. This involved immersion in the data (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994) where the main objective was to generate an over sense of the data and reflect on the overall meaning. Transcripts were then read through again and general themes were noted as they began to emerge from the data. As data analysis progressed, themes were divided into main themes or sub themes and headings were developed to represent the data. Further codes were attached to words and/or phrases and grouped into these themes and sub themes. Although it is likely that the analysis of subsequent interviews was informed by the themes that had emerged from previous transcripts, every attempt was made to view each transcript in isolation so as not to omit and disregard any useful and relevant data.

3.9 Summary

This section has addressed the qualitative method used to investigate Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) women's experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England. The design of the study was determined by its objectives as well as its investigative nature. In-depth, semi-structured, telephone or face-to-face interviews were utilised as the main inquiry tool to examine the experiences of BAME women who had encountered sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England in the past five years, either by direct experience of sexual harassing behaviours or witnessing the sexual harassment of another BAME woman in the workplace.

The sampling strategy of snowballing was employed for this study and although thousands of potential participants were targeted, only 17 female BAME participants agreed to take part in a confidential and anonymous interview with a trained researcher. This was due to the very real fear of reprisal from certain communities and feelings of shame associated with the experience(s). Interview materials from the 17 BAME participants were analysed using content analysis (Weber, 1990) and a human based coding system was adopted. The following section presents the main findings from the interview materials.

Section 4

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This section addresses the qualitative data collated from the semi-structured in-depth interviews conducted with the 17 BAME women who had either directly experienced sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England, or witnessed the sexual harassment of another BAME woman in the workplace in the North West in the past five years. The interview materials were analysed using content analysis and the structure of the analysis was closely linked to the aims and objectives of the study and the seven themes highlighted in the main sections of the semi-structured, in-depth interview schedule. These were (1) demographics, (2) defining sexual harassment, (3) the experience(s), (4) the perpetrator, (5) reporting, (6) coping mechanisms and (7) the organisation (including the development of key recommendations).

The results of the analysis, in conjunction with supporting quotes from the 17 female BAME participants were used to establish an overall view of the experiences of BAME women. The vast majority of participants (88.2 per cent, n=15) reflected upon their own experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace. The remaining two women (11.8 per cent) referred to their experiences of witnessing the sexual harassment of a female BAME colleague.

The BAME women who participated in the study were assured that their responses would be treated in strict confidence and that data would be reported anonymously. Participants were keen for reassurance that the location of their workplace, the names of any individuals disclosed during the interview process and their ethnicity would not be identified. Therefore, this information is omitted from the following supporting quotes. It is firstly important to address the problems recruiting potential female BAME participants encountered by the study team. This is discussed in the following section before presenting the main results of the study.

4.2 Non Response

Despite contacting thousands of potential participants, only 17 BAME women were willing to discuss their experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace with the study team. Whilst this may initially imply that sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace is not as widespread as first thought, content analysis of the interview materials and discussions with representatives on the steering committee, community groups other relevant individuals during the course of the study revealed the intense reluctance of many BAME women to disclose information relating to their experiences of sexual harassment. This was despite assurance that speaking to a member of the study team would be in a confidential and anonymous capacity. This was due to the very real fear of reprisal from the communities in which BAME women lived and feelings of shame associated with the experience. This significant finding is reflected in the comments of one of the 17 female participants who agreed to be interviewed:

I think you'll have a problem recruiting people. Asians are not likely to speak out. They're very conservative. It would have a massive impact on the community.

Considering the reluctance of many BAME women to speak about their experiences to the study team, it is highly likely that much sexual harassment encountered by BAME women in the workplace is not reported and consequently, not discussed. Sexual harassment among BAME women in the workplace may be far more commonplace than originally thought. Disturbingly, it is perhaps less likely to be reported than sexual harassment among white women due to cultural constraints and implications for the wider community. The study team therefore consider it vital that the 17 BAME women, who did come forward, are given a voice through the findings documented in this report.

4.3 Demographics

4.3.1 Personal demographics

Table 4.1 illustrates the personal demographics of the 17 female BAME participants interviewed as part of the study. The demographic information collated included ethnicity, religion, age and marital status.

Table 4.1: Personal Demographic data of the 17 female BAME participants

		Percentages (n)
Ethnicity	Afro Caribbean	11.8 (02)
	Afro Caribbean/White British	17.6 (03)
	Asian/British Hong Kong Chinese	05.9 (01)
	Bengali/British	05.9 (01)
	Black Caribbean	05.9 (01)
	East African/Indian	05.9 (01)
	Mixed African/White British	17.4 (03)
	Pakistani/White British	05.9 (01)
	Pakistani	23.5 (04)
Religion	Atheist	23.5 (04)
	Catholic	23.5 (04)
	Christian	11.8 (02)
	Islam	11.8 (02)
	Muslim	29.4 (05)
Age	18-25	11.8 (02)
	26-30	23.5 (04)
	31-35	29.4 (05)
	36-40	23.5 (04)
	41-45	05.9 (01)
	Refused to say	05.9 (01)
Marital Status	Married	52.9 (09)
	Single	47.1 (08)
Children	Yes	47.1 (08)
	No	52.9 (09)

Table 4.1 shows the diverse range of ethnic backgrounds of the 17 female BAME participants. The most number of participants from the same ethnic background were those BAME participants who were Pakistani in origin (23.5 per cent, n=4). A further 17.6 per cent (03) stated that they were mixed African/white British and 17.6 per cent (03) participants were Afro Caribbean/white British. Another two participants (11.8 per cent) were Afro Caribbean and other ethnic backgrounds included Bengali/British, Black Caribbean and East African/Indian. In terms of religious affiliation, 29.4 per cent (05) of participants were Muslims. Another 11.8 per cent of

participants (02) were Christian and 23.5 per cent (04) specifically stated that they were Catholics. Two participants (11.8 per cent) followed Islam and 23.5 per cent (04) of participants stated they were atheists.

Participants were aged between 18 to 45 years (and one participant refused to reveal her age). The vast majority of participants were aged between 31 and 40; 29.4 per cent of participants (05) were aged from 31 to 35 and 23.5 per cent were between 36 and 40 years old (see table 4.1). There was a relatively equal split between married and single participants (52.9 per cent and 47.1 per cent respectively). Similarly, 47.1 per cent of respondents (08) had children and the remaining 52.9 per cent (09) did not.

4.3.2 Organisational demographics

Table 4.2 illustrates organisational demographic data captured from the 17 female BAME participants interviewed as part of the study and relates to the organisations they were employed in at the time they were interviewed. The demographic information collated included position in organisation, length in current organisation, type of organisation, salary, ratio of BAME to white employees in the organisation and ratio of men and women employees in their organisation.

Table 4.2: Organisational Demographic data for the 17 BAME female participants

		Percentages (n)
Position in organisation	Middle Manager	35.3 (06)
	Senior Administrator	17.6 (03)
	Senior Development Worker	05.9 (01)
	University Lecturer	05.9 (01)
	Personnel Officer	05.9 (01)
	Training Manager	11.8 (02)
	Guidance Officer	05.9 (01)
	Customer Services	11.8 (02)
Length in Current Organisation	Under 1 year 2	17.6 (03)
	1-2 years	41.2 (07)
	3-4 years	23.5 (04)
	5-6 years	11.8 (02)
	7-8 years	05.9 (01)
Type of Organisation	Public	52.9 (09)
	Private	29.4 (05)
	Voluntary	17.6 (03)
Salary	£15,000- £20,000	29.4 (05)
	£21,000- £25,000	11.8 (02)
	£26,000- £30,000	35.3 (06)
	£31,000- £35,000	11.8 (02)
	£36,000- £40,000	11.8 (02)
Ratio of BAME to White employees in Organisation	More BAME than White employees	41.2 (07)
	More White than BAME employees	58.8 (10)
Ratio of men and women in organisation	More men than women	29.4 (05)
	More women than men	52.9 (09)
	Same	17.6 (03)

Table 4.2 shows that participants were generally professional women working at relatively senior levels within their respective organisations. For example, 35.3 per cent of participants (06) classified themselves as operating at a middle management level in their organisations. A further 17.6 per cent (03) were senior administrators and another 11.8 per cent (02) were training managers. The sample also included a:

senior development officer; university lecturer; personnel officer and a guidance officer. Two participants (11.8 per cent; n=02) were more junior members of staff working in customers services.

Most participants had worked in their organisation for one to two years (41.2 per cent, n=07) and over half (52.9 per cent, n=09) worked for a public organisation. A further 29.4 per cent of participants (05) worked in the private sector and the remaining 17.6 per cent (03) worked for a voluntary organisation. In terms of salary, 29.4 per cent of participants (04) earned between £15,000 and £20,000 a year and 35.3 per cent (06) earned between £26,000 and £30,000 per year. Only two participants (11.8 per cent) earned over £36,000 per year. Interestingly, 41.2 per cent of participants (07) commented that their organisation employed more BAME employees than white employees. Additionally, 52.9 per cent of employees stated that their organisation employed more women than men compared to 29.4 per cent of participants (05) who highlighted that their organisation employed more men. A further three participants (17.6 per cent) considered that their organisation employed equal numbers of men and women.

4.4 Defining sexual harassment

Participants were provided with a detailed definition of sexual harassment by Stanko (1988) identified from the extensive literature review (see appendix 2) and asked to comment on their view of the definition offered. Stanko (1988: 91) defines sexual harassment as:

unwanted sexual attention. Its behavioural forms are many and include: visual (leering); verbal (sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions); unwanted pressure for sexual favours or dates; unwanted touching or pinching; unwanted pressure for sexual favours, with implied threats of job related consequences for non co-operation; physical assault; sexual assault and rape. The behavioural manifestation may be a singular event or continuous series of events.

Providing participants with a definition was to determine participants' views on the range and scope of behaviours in relation to sexual harassment. Generally respondents considered that the definition offered by Stanko (1988) reflected the

wide range and scope of behaviours that constitute sexual harassment. The following participant stated:

It's clearly all consuming and covers all aspects.

A couple of participants however, suggested that the definition provided by Stanko (1988) omitted several behaviours that may be regarded as constituting sexual harassment. This is illustrated in the following comment:

It's fine, I guess it covers all of them really. You don't mention one about being in close proximity. I know of an issue about a lady who made a complaint over her manager. He didn't actually touch her but he was standing really close to her, he was in her space.

Interestingly, several participants commented that they had not considered the actions and behaviours they had encountered in the workplace to constitute sexual harassment until they read the recruitment flyer for this study. This is best expressed by the following participant:

I didn't realise it (sexual harassment) was all those points that you indicated to me. My understanding was that it was physical or maybe some verbal in terms of leering and what have you but I wasn't aware there were long term implications and that it could cause a lot of unnecessary pressure and stress until I read the flyer.

This was also highlighted by one participant who suggested that some women may have encountered sexually harassing behaviours at work but did not define them as such. In her words:

I think it's a very wide definition. I'm unsure if everybody who has been sexually harassed understands what they have experienced.

4.5 The experience of sexual harassment

The study team attempted to generate an overall picture of the experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace among the 17 female BAME participants through the content analysis of the interview materials (Weber, 1990). Information was captured in relation to events, frequency and duration of sexual harassment and culturally specific experiences. Generally participants stated that the experience they outlined to the study team was their first encounter of sexual harassment in the workplace.

According to the following BAME participant who was sexually harassed by her Asian boss whilst working in a factory:

At the time, sexual harassment was new to me and it was not nice. The only close contact that I have with people is through my own relatives. I used to think 'what's he doing?' He (participant's boss) knows that if you go and complain they will say it's her. What if others in the community found out? You are to blame, especially in mainly Asian communities. You think about honour and your honour is at stake. Or what if your father finds out?

4.5.1 Range and scope of sexual harassing behaviours

Participants encountered a wide range of behaviours relating to sexual harassment. Whilst some participants described being physically touched by perpetrators, others referred to verbal and visual encounters that caused discomfort. This finding reflects the diversity of the definition of sexual harassment and the differing perceptions held by participants of behaviours that constitute sexual harassment. The following comments document the experiences of some of the participants involved in the study:

It was touching. He was too close. He'd put his arms around you when you were walking down the stairs.

I witnessed the bullying and harassment of a younger colleague. It was the boss who was making comments to her. He'd say "oh you black women, I know what you're like in bed". It was stereotypical, jesting comments that he made.

The boss would just give me a look. I was bending down picking up some boxes and I'd catch him watching me. He was very subtle about it. I did my best to ignore him as I thought I was paranoid about it. Then he started making comments.

A few participants described some particularly harrowing experiences. In the words of one participant:

We had an away day and stayed in a hotel where he (perpetrator) behaved really badly. He was buying champagne. At the end of the night everyone went to their respective rooms. I was in bed and heard a knock at the door. I opened it and it was him. He came right into my room.

Interestingly, two participants (11.8 per cent) outlined that the perpetrator in their experience had inferred that they had behaved in such a way that invited a sexual response. This is best illustrated by the following participant:

It was personal comments. I'd walk into a room and he'd say to me 'don't look at me like that. Something happens to me when you stare at me like that, you've got something in your eyes.'

Also, 29.4 per cent of participants (05) commented that what had initially appeared to be a friendly relationship eventually turned into something more sinister. It appeared that some perpetrators had built up a trusting relationship with certain participants and subsequently abused the relationship they had developed. The following quote expresses this:

He gave me lots of lifts to work. At first I thought it was genuinely nice of him. Then he started to talk about intimidating things. He was divorced and he was dating other women. Then after about a week he started saying 'I won't be dating other women from now on because I've got you in the company.' I was not comfortable with that at all.

Disturbingly, 17.6 per cent of participants (03) who encountered sexual harassment were employed in organisations designed to promote ethnicity and diversity. Arguably, due to the very nature of the work involved in these organisations, employees should have been particularly knowledgeable and respectful to issues faced by BAME female and indeed male employees in the workplace, including sexual harassment. One participant employed in a race equality organisation sexually harassed by a senior BAME colleague stated:

I was working for a race equality organisation. Initially everything was fine. Then there were comments and there were also situations where he would just come and hug you. I remember one incident where I was making coffee from the vending machine and I lifted the milk off the milk tub and it went all over me. It just splashed on me. He came past and mumbled something. I said 'excuse me, what did you say?' He said 'I was just going to say, I wish I could lick that off you.' I just stopped and put my cup down and walked away. The man was such an influential person in the organisation that I couldn't say anything.

4.5.2 Frequency and duration of sexual harassment

Table 4.3 illustrates that 88.2 per cent of participants (15) discussed experiences of sexual harassment encountered in their previous organisation. Generally,

participants endured sexual harassment for a relatively short period of time. Two participants (11.8 per cent) experienced sexual harassing behaviours for under a week and a further six participants (35.3 per cent) endured sexual harassment for under a month. Only one participant encountered sexual harassment over a period of a year. Interestingly, this participant was reflecting on her experiences of witnessing another BAME colleague. In her words:

She put up with it on a daily basis for over a year.

In addition, table 4.3 highlights that participants encountered sexually harassing behaviours on a regular basis. Over half of participants (52.9 per cent, n=09) for example stated that they were subjected to such behaviours on a daily basis. The remaining participants stated that they encountered sexual harassment on a weekly or fortnightly basis but analysis of the interview materials revealed that this tended to be when the perpetrator came into contact with the victim. In this respect, participants may not have had to deal with sexually harassing behaviours on a daily basis but they were required to endure such behaviours each time they met with the perpetrator. One participant stated:

He worked away and it was whenever he was in the office.

Table 4.3: Frequency and duration of sexual harassment

		Percentages (n)
Organisation	Current	11.8 (02)
	Previous	88.2 (15)
Duration of sexual harassment	Under a week	11.8 (02)
	Under a month	35.3 (06)
	One to six months	23.5 (04)
	Six months to a year	23.5 (04)
	One to two years	05.9 (01)
Frequency	Daily	52.9 (09)
	Weekly	29.4 (05)
	Fortnightly	17.6 (03)

4.5.3 Ethnic and cultural influences

Content analysis of the interview materials revealed a clear sense amongst the vast majority of respondents (82.4 per cent, n=14) that they would not have been sexually harassed if they had been white and/or from a different ethnic background/religious culture. According to the following participants:

I think he would have thought twice about touching a white girl to be honest. He thought that we were Asian and honourable and wouldn't say anything. They (Asian men) do tend to think like that.

People often assume black women are more sexually liberal. People are more tactile with you. I think there are reasons for it because a lot of African communities are tactile and do touch more.

I don't think he would do it if I was white. He thinks he can get away with it with me. He says I'm downtrodden anyway. I think he thinks that I won't say anything because of my religion and the stereotypes around Muslim women so he's surprised when I retaliate.

Interestingly, one participant sexually harassed by a BAME colleague from a different ethnic BAME background suggested that she was targeted because she was a BAME woman who wore traditional dress. She considered that she would not have been sexually harassed if she had been white and/or adopted western dress as the degree of exposure considered acceptable by the white/western community in comparison to her own ethnic culture, was less attractive to this particular perpetrator. In her words:

He'll say things like I'm "fit". The way I dress is to not have that response. He's not happy that I wear traditional dress and cover up. He'll say 'I wonder what's under there...' He's said that he doesn't like people who expose a lot of flesh. He seems to think it's better to be able to undress people with his eyes.'

There were however, three participants (17.6 per cent) who considered that the perpetrator of their discomfort would have acted the same with any woman regardless of colour, culture or religion. One participant remarked:

I think he tried it on with anyone he could.

Similarly, the vast majority of participants (88.2 per cent, n=15) considered that their experiences of sexual harassment would differ from the experiences of a white woman and/or a woman from a different BAME background/religion. Most

participants highlighted cultural differences that would influence the way they experienced sexual harassment compared to white women. Specifically these were in relation to the interpretation of behaviours and the ability to report incidents. Certain participants suggested that some behaviour may not be regarded as sexually harassing for white women for example and indeed for women from different ethnic backgrounds. In this respect, different cultures may have differing connotations attached to certain verbal encounters and differing perceptions of acceptable behaviour. This is best reflected in the words of the following participants:

If you have a black male and they are lowering their eyes at you it would be the way they did it and you'd know whether they were looking at you as a colleague or not. They would go into potwal Jamaican language and if you're not part of that culture you wouldn't understand what they're saying. I think there's a thing in the African community. It's very patriarchal and the woman should be honoured if a man notices you. Here in the UK, if someone asks you out for a drink and you say forget it, it's forgotten about whereas a Jamaican man would start cursing you. It's totally different.

Within Asian culture and religion, the male would stand or sit away. It's not for the men to stand close to women. So when he came so close to me straight away I was thinking 'what is he doing?' He is Asian himself and he knows our religion.

Additionally, most participants stressed that it would be comparatively more appropriate for women from white communities to report incidents of sexual harassment and that the ramifications of disclosing experiences would be less detrimental to the wider community. In particular, this finding was highlighted by participants from Asian communities. In their words:

White women are different. They can go to the police and report it. An Asian woman is thinking 'oh my God, the community will talk.' Honour makes you keep things to yourself and not let anyone know.

It (sexual harassment) would have a major impact on my community. Honour killings are a serious issue for Asian women. Last year, a woman and her children were burnt to death. There are a lot of gender and control issues in the Asian community. Many Asian women might be educated and have powerful jobs but they are treated just the same as any other Asian woman.

4.6 The Perpetrator

Analysis of the data in relation to the perpetrator of sexual harassment revealed some significant findings. The main findings are outlined in table 4.4. All perpetrators described by participants in the study were male. Generally, perpetrators were over the age of 40 and analysis of the interview materials highlighted that perpetrators tended to be older than participants. Significantly, only 11.8 per cent of participants (02) were sexually harassed by a white man. This means that the vast majority of participants were sexually harassed by a BAME man and is illustrated in table 4.4. Of these participants, 60.0 per cent (09) were sexually harassed by someone from the same ethnic background. The remaining 40.0 per cent (06) were sexually harassed by a BAME man from a different ethnic background.

Table 4.4 also shows that most of the perpetrators described by participants in the study were more comparatively more senior in the organisational hierarchy. Nearly half of participants (41.2 per cent, n=07) described being sexually harassed by their immediate manager. Another participant was sexually harassed by her managing director and a further participant claimed she was sexually harassed by her office manager. The feeling among these participants was that the perpetrator had abused their position of power. This is reflected in the following words:

He presents himself as a very respectful person within his networks and what have you and he is a person of considerable influence at a strategic level. He seems to get away with that kind of behaviour by virtue of his position. For me, that's really reinforcing his behaviour. It upsets me every time I think about it because of his double standards.

Disturbingly, 47.1 per cent of participants (08) expressed that the perpetrator had previously engaged in harassing behaviour. According to the following participant:

There was another woman that he had stalked. She left the organisation because he was bullying her. Another member of staff witnessed the bullying and a grievance procedure was put in but the woman lost the appeal even with a union representative and she couldn't be bothered with another one. I think she was made to feel like the perpetrator and him, the victim. None of the management stood up for her. She went off sick and then left. Most people want to keep their jobs so nothing was said.

Interestingly, one participant commented that the perpetrator's ethnicity had worked in his favour. According to this participant, the perpetrator she described had received more lenient treatment because he was a BAME man. In her words:

There were 13 allegations from different women and 15 points that stood from one woman. This guy was taken out and promoted after the sexual harassment case because of the allegations! I think the reason they moved this guy is because he's a senior ethnic minority. So, if they sacked him, then the figures would go down and we've got a target of ethnic minority managers to meet. If he was a white male on the same grade he probably would have got kicked out or demoted. The organisation's got performance targets to think of.

This implies that there may be inconsistencies in organisations with regards to the way they treat BAME perpetrators of sexual harassment, compared to white perpetrators. This suggests that further research is required into the treatment of BAME perpetrators of sexual harassment and subsequent outcomes. It also highlights the need for organisations to maintain consistency in dealing with perpetrators.

Table 4.4: The main characteristics of the perpetrator of sexual harassment

		Percentages (n)
Ethnicity	Afro Caribbean	17.6 (03)
	Afro Caribbean/White British	05.9 (01)
	Asian	17.6 (03)
	Chinese/White British	11.8 (02)
	Mixed African/White British	05.9 (01)
	Pakistani/White British	11.8 (02)
	Pakistani	11.8 (02)
	White British	11.8 (02)
	Indian	05.9 (01)
Gender	Male	100.0 (17)
	Female	0
Age	26-30	05.9 (01)
	31-35	05.9 (01)
	36-40	11.8 (02)
	41-45	29.4 (05)
	46-50	11.8 (02)
	51-55	17.6 (03)
	56-60	05.9 (01)
	60+	11.8 (02)
Position at work in relation to respondent	Respondent's immediate Manager	41.2 (07)
	Managing Director	05.9 (01)
	Office Manager	05.9 (01)
	Co Manager	11.8 (02)
	Store Manager	05.9 (01)
	Colleague	23.5 (04)
	Client	05.9 (01)
Known history of harassing behaviour	Yes	47.1 (08)
	No	17.6 (03)
	Unsure	35.3 (06)

4.7 Reporting

Only 23.5 per cent of participants (04) reported experiencing sexual harassment within their organisations. Perpetrators reported by participants were from various ethnic backgrounds including one man who was Pakistani in origin and a perpetrator

who was Black Afro Caribbean/White. Generally the sexual harassment was reported to their manager. There was a sense amongst these participants that that they found the perpetrator's behaviour unacceptable and disrespectful and empowered to speak out to stop the abuse from continuing. According to one participant:

I reported the sexual harassment because I did not like what was happening to me. He knew I was Asian and that he should respect me and leave space between me and him.

It was apparent however, that the decision to report the sexual harassment within the organisation was not an easy decision to make. This was due to fear of negative ramifications both from within the organisation and the community outside the workplace. One participant stated:

It took me a long time. Like I said it can be dangerous for Asian women.

Rather depressingly, three of the four participants that reported the sexual harassment encountered obstacles when dealing with the issue and that then organisation did not support them. This was mainly because the manager, to whom the harassment was reported, did not keep this information confidential and failed to act appropriately in a professional manner. The following comments reflect this:

The manager told everyone what I had accused that guy of even though I told him in strictest confidence.

I told my line manager about the incident and what happened but she laughed.

This led most of the participants who reported sexual harassment to leave their organisation. In this respect, participants felt that that they, rather than the perpetrator had been punished for the harassment. In the words of one such participant:

I applied for a new job and left within three months. I didn't want to be labelled a trouble maker.

This means that 76.5 per cent (13) did not disclose their experiences of sexual harassment in an official capacity within their organisations. Participants clearly outlined that this was due to fear of recrimination from the wider community which

would tarnish the family name and possibly result in isolation from the wider community. Also, participants revealed a fear of reprisal from male members of their family, mainly their father, brother (s) and husband. Although this theme was reported by all Asian participants, this was also apparent among participants from other BAME communities. The following participants highlight these findings:

An Asian woman is not expected to have experience of sexual harassment. It's a small community. The impact of sexual harassment has much wider implications and I felt that dealing with it would have been questioning my behaviour. I was trying to protect my family. I thought I could control it.

In my culture there's this eye for an eye, tooth for a tooth mentality. I was frightened of what my husband might do if he found out.

Interestingly, participants commented that they would have been more inclined to report the sexual harassment in an official capacity, if they had been white. Participants recognised that reporting sexual harassment may not necessarily be any easier for white women but stated that they were less likely to experience accompanying obstacles from their families and wider community. The following participant concluded that:

White women are different as they can go to the police and report it. An Asian is thinking the community will talk. Honour makes you keep things down and not let anyone know.

Results of the content analysis (Weber, 1990) also revealed that similar to white victims of sexual harassment (EHRC, 2006), many participants feared losing their jobs if they reported the harassment and jeopardising future career prospects. According to the following participants:

It wouldn't have got anywhere. I need to know I'm going to win. If you report it and lose then it affects your career development prospects. Because it was my immediate manager that sexually harassed me, I would have had to complain to his line manager and he would automatically know I had made a complaint against him. That would then lead to an investigation and he would probably be on his side because he's male. Then when it came to me applying for other jobs he may not have supported my application.

I didn't want to make a mark against my name. This is my career and I want to progress.

Linked to the above, 23.5 per cent of participants (04) stated that male members of their family may have prevented them from working elsewhere if they had been made aware of the sexual harassment. One participant expressed:

If I had told my dad he would have stopped me working anywhere else.

A further participant referred to witnessing difficulties encountered by a colleague who reported experiencing sexual harassment. Although this particular woman was successful in bringing the perpetrator to account, she faced considerable obstacles within the organisation, which this participant stated made her think twice about reporting the sexual harassment she endured. In her words:

I know one woman who was successful but she faced obstacles. Her line manager was not helpful at all and all the management closed ranks on her. So did HR. So, she joined the Union and they took the case on board for her.

4.8 Coping Mechanisms

Interestingly, the vast majority of participants (88.2 per cent, n=15) did not consider that they experienced any physical or psychological side effects following the harassment. This was despite some participants leaving their job as a result of the harassment. This suggests that many participants may not have acknowledged the severity of their experiences. Only two participants highlighted side effects. In their words:

I was pretty depressed to be honest with you. I sometimes think about it and think it was a very bad experience. Emotionally, I was drained but it's about pulling yourself back emotionally. It's not significant enough for therapy. It just left me cautious.

I was on medication. It got to a point where I was upset and not sleeping. I never went to the gym and it affected my work. It was an issue all the time and it hampered my work for about 6 to 7 months I thought about nothing else.

During encounters of sexual harassment, two participants disclosed that they used humour to cope with their experiences. Essentially, these participants laughed and joked with the perpetrator in an attempt to conceal the detrimental effect it was

having on them. One participant recognised that impact of this behaviour. In her words:

My coping mechanism is retaliation and humour which I know is wrong. It's like I'm colluding in it.

A further coping mechanism revealed from the analysis of the interview materials with three Asian participants, was the adoption of traditional dress. Interestingly, these participants were sexually harassed by an Asian male. Although not specifically identified by participants, the adoption of traditional dress may have been an attempt to highlight the inappropriateness of sexual harassment by an Asian male within their culture to their perpetrators. One participant stated:

At the time I was wearing jeans and knee length tops. I even changed my dress code to wear traditional clothing. My dad was thinking 'what's she doing? She wouldn't be seen dead in those clothes and now she's wearing them.'

Only four participants (23.5 per cent) disclosed the sexual harassment to members of their family. Two Asian participants disclosed the harassment to their sister(s). According to one such participant:

I told my sisters and they told me to leave (the organisation).

The other two participants told their partners. One participant was from Asian descent and another was from black afro Caribbean descent. This participant commented:

My partner helped me look for another job. He wanted to go round and kick his ass. I asked him not to though as I thought I was handling it very well.

This means that the vast majority of participants did not disclose the sexual harassment to any family members or members of the community. This was due to the detrimental effect this behaviour would have on the individual and the wider family. This is best expressed by the following participant:

I couldn't tell them. It would affect my father and my sisters. I would be embarrassed to go out. He was so well known in the community.

4.9 The Organisation

Interview materials included specific questions in relation to the organisation to determine the existence and application of sexual harassment policies (see appendix 2). Participants were also invited to suggest key recommendations organisations could implement to deal with sexual harassment in the workplace more effectively. Table 4.5 outlines the main findings.

Table 4.5: The Organisation (Policies, training and key recommendations)

		Percentages n = 17
Did the organisation where the incident(s) take place have sexual harassment policies in place?	Yes	58.8(10)
	No	41.2 (07)
Were you aware of your organisation's sexual harassment policy at the time of the incident?	Yes	29.4 (05)
	No	70.6 (12)
Did your organisation provide training related to sexual harassment?	Yes	05.9 (01)
	No	94.1 (16)
Have you ever received any training in relation to sexual harassment?	Yes	29.4 (05)
	No	70.6 (12)
Do you think your organisation could make improvements to the way it deals with sexual harassment?	Yes	100.0 (17)
	No	-
How could organisations improve the way they deal with sexual harassment?	Sexual harassment training (including culturally specific issues)	70.6 (12)
	Implementation of sexual harassment policies	29.4 (05)
	Employee awareness of sexual harassment policies	29.4 (05)
	BAME women support groups	23.5 (04)

Content analysis of the in-depth interviews revealed that 41.2 per cent of respondents (07) claimed that their organisation did not have a sexual harassment policy in place during their encounters (see table 4.5). Further examination of the interview materials highlighted that organisations without sexual harassment policies tended to be smaller organisations. Although 58.8 per cent of respondents considered that the organisations in which they experienced sexual harassment did have policies in place, the findings represented in table 4.5 show that a high number of respondents (70.6 per cent, n=12) were not aware of their organisation's sexual harassment policy during the time of the incident. In the words of the following respondent:

I did find out subsequently that the organisation did have a policy in relation to sexual harassment but I never knew about it. No-one had shown it to me.

Analysis of the interview materials also demonstrated that only one participant was aware of a training programme in relation to sexual harassment in the organisation in which she experienced sexual harassment (represented in table 4.5). Additionally, 70.6 per cent of respondents (12) had never received any training in the workplace in relation to sexual harassment. These findings indicate that organisations do not tend to provide any form of training in relation to sexual harassment. It suggests that organisations do not consider this training to be important. Indeed, one participant who had been sexually harassed by a senior member of staff whilst employed in a race equality organisation explained how she had requested training in relation to sexual harassment but was sharply informed that this would not be a possibility. She stated that:

I did request training and I was told 'are you stupid? You are working in an organisation that leads on those sorts of things. So, you shouldn't be requesting it, you should be delivering it!

Crucially, all participants (100 per cent) stated that they felt the organisation's in which they were employed during the incident (s) could improve the way it deals/dealt with sexual harassment. Specifically, 70.6 per cent of participants (12) commented that sexual harassment training should be mandatory for all employees in all organisations and that this should be introduced as part of an employee's induction programme. Follow up training should then be implemented throughout an

employee's time with the organisation. One participant commented that training would clearly demonstrate the behaviours that constitute sexual harassment to men and indeed women, to eradicate ambiguity. In her words:

People need to be aware of it. Men don't realise some of the things they do and things they say is sexual harassment.

Participants raising the issue of training also highlighted that training should be culturally specific. In the words of the following participants:

There needs to be mandatory training which should include how some groups may be more prone to sexual harassment. In an ideal world there should be training for everyone. It should be part of people's induction. At the moment any sort of training is tick box stuff but it should include follow up training. I think that BAME stereotyping should be included in the training. It's important to state and acknowledge that people have these stereotypes.

Training should consider ethnic differences and the different consequences of this. How honour may affect Pakistani women for example...

I think there needs to be training on culture and cultural differences. There may be policies in place but they don't address culture.

One participant working in a customer services role suggested that videos and role play she had experienced during her customer service training could be incorporated into sexual harassment training programmes to enhance their effectiveness. She expressed that:

We've been shown employee training videos of customer services and how they expect us to behave. They could extend this to show how to report cases and how to deal with sexual harassment.

In addition, 29.4 per cent of respondents (05) stated that organisations should implement sexual harassment policies to clearly outline to employees: the behaviours that constitute sexual harassment; advice with regards to reporting sexual harassment; support for the victim and details of how the organisation deals with perpetrators found to be sexually harassing members of staff. Also, 29.4 per cent of respondents (05) stated that it was not enough for organisations simply to have policies and procedures in place. These respondents stressed the importance

of making all employees aware of the existence of sexual harassment policies and procedures. This is best expressed by the following participant:

People need to know that these policies exist. They need to know where to go if and when this (sexual harassment) happens and they need to feel that the organisation has an appropriate structure in place to deal with the perpetrator. Perhaps employees could be sent regular updates to remind them. It may also deter people from sexually harassing others if they're aware the organisation has a well planned procedure in place that everyone's aware of.

Furthermore, 23.5 per cent of participants (04) commented that support groups specifically for BAME women to discuss issues around race and gender would be useful. One participant suggested:

I've found that there are cross BAME groups for men and women but interestingly no women's groups. That says a lot about the political agenda to me. There's a lot around race but none around gender and race. The race groups are dominated by men.

4.10 Summary

This section has outlined the main findings from the content analysis of the 17 in-depth, semi-structured interviews conducted with BAME women who had experienced sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England. Most respondents (88.2 per cent, n=15) discussed their own experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace. The remaining two participants reflected upon witnessing the sexual harassment of another BAME colleague. Content analysis of the interview materials (Creswell, 2003; Weber, 1990) revealed illuminating, pertinent and at some times shocking findings.

Despite contacting thousands of potential participants, only 17 BAME women were willing to discuss their experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace with the study team. Content analysis of the interview materials and discussions with representatives on the steering committee, community groups other relevant individuals during the course of the study revealed the intense reluctance of many BAME women to disclose information relating to their experiences of sexual harassment. This was despite assurance that speaking to a member of the study

team would be in a confidential and anonymous capacity. This was due to the very real fear of reprisal from the communities in which BAME women lived and feelings of shame associated with the experience.

Demographic information revealed the diverse range of ethnic backgrounds of the 17 female BAME participants. The most number of participants from the same ethnic background were those BAME participants who were Pakistani in origin (23.5 per cent, n=4). A further 17.6 per cent (03) stated that they were mixed African/white British and 17.6 per cent (03) participants were Afro Caribbean/white British. Another two participants (11.8 per cent) were Afro Caribbean and other ethnic backgrounds included Bengali/British, Black Caribbean and East African/Indian. In terms of religious affiliation, 29.4 per cent (05) of participants were Muslims. Another 11.8 per cent of participants (02) were Christian and 23.5 per cent (04) specifically stated that they were Catholics. Two participants (11.8 per cent) followed Islam and 23.5 per cent (04) of participants stated they were atheists.

Generally, participants were professional women working at relatively senior levels within their respective organisations. For example, 35.3 per cent of participants (06) classified themselves as operating at a middle management level in their organisations. A further 17.6 per cent (03) were senior administrators and another 11.8 per cent (02) were training managers. The sample also included a: senior development officer; university lecturer; personnel officer and a guidance officer. Two participants (11.8 per cent; n=02) were more junior members of staff working in customers services.

Participants encountered a wide range of behaviours relating to sexual harassment. Whilst some participants described being physically touched by perpetrators, others referred to verbal and visual encounters that caused discomfort. This finding reflects the diversity of the definition of sexual harassment and the differing perceptions held by participants of behaviours that constitute sexual harassment. It was shocking during the content of the analysis of the in depth interview materials, to discover that 17.6 per cent of participants (03) interviewed had experienced sexual harassment whilst working for organisations designed to influence racial equality, which by the very nature of such organisations, should, arguably, have been comparatively more

sensitive to cultural issues affecting BAME women in the workplace, including sexual harassment.

Content analysis of the interview materials revealed a clear sense amongst the vast majority of participants, that they would not have been sexually harassed if they had been white and/or from a different ethnic background/religious culture. Similarly, the vast majority of participants considered that their experiences of sexual harassment would differ from the experiences of a white woman and/or a woman from a different BAME background/religion. Most participants highlighted cultural differences that would influence the way they experienced sexual harassment compared to white women and indeed BAME women from differing ethnic backgrounds. Specifically these were in relation to the interpretation of behaviours and the ability to report incidents. Certain participants suggested that some behaviours may not be regarded as sexually harassing for white women and/or women from different ethnic backgrounds. In this respect, different cultures may have differing connotations attached to certain behaviours and differing perceptions of acceptable behaviour.

Additionally, most participants stressed that it would be comparatively more appropriate for women from white communities to report incidents of sexual harassment and that the ramifications of disclosing experiences would be less detrimental to the wider community. Fear of reprisals and feelings of shame prevented the vast majority of participants from speaking out. Interestingly, only 11.8 per cent of participants (02) were sexually harassed by a white man. This means that the vast majority of participants were sexually harassed by a BAME man and is illustrated in table 4.4. Of these participants, 60.0 per cent (09) were sexually harassed by someone from the same ethnic background. The remaining 40.0 per cent (06) were sexually harassed by a BAME man from a different ethnic background.

Interview materials included specific questions in relation to the organisation to determine the existence and application of sexual harassment policies. Participants were also invited to suggest key recommendations organisations could implement to deal with sexual harassment in the workplace more effectively. Content analysis of the in-depth interviews revealed that 41.2 per cent of respondents (07) claimed that

their organisation did not have a sexual harassment policy in place during their encounters. Further examination of the interview materials highlighted that organisations without sexual harassment policies tended to be smaller organisations. Although 58.8 per cent of respondents considered that the organisations in which they experienced sexual harassment did have policies in place, the findings showed that a high number of respondents (70.6 per cent, n=12) were not aware of their organisation's sexual harassment policy during the time of the incident.

Crucially, all participants (100 per cent) stated that they felt the organisation's in which they were employed during the incident (s) could improve the way it deals/dealt with sexual harassment. Specifically, 70.6 per cent of participants (12) commented that sexual harassment training should be mandatory for all employees in all organisations and that this should be introduced as part of an employee's induction programme. Follow up training should then be implemented throughout an employee's time with the organisation. The following section outlines key recommendations for organisations in more detail.

Section 5

CONCLUSIONS: KEY FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This ground breaking study was an important step forward in relation to examining the specific experiences of BAME women who encounter sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England. The study involved a sample of 17 BAME women from across the North West of England who had either experienced sexual harassment directly or had witnessed the sexual harassment of another female BAME colleague in the past five years. Data was collated by means of an in-depth, semi-structured interview conducted either face-to-face or over the telephone with a trained researcher. The findings from the interviews, in conjunction with supporting quotes were reported to clearly highlight the experiences of sexual harassment encountered by BAME participants. It is important to note that confidentiality and anonymity was assured to all participants. Specifically, the main aims and objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To highlight the different sexual harassment experiences in the workplace of BAME women groups compared to their white counterparts.
2. To highlight any differences between ethnic groups.
3. To provide recommendations for initiatives and training to tackle sexual harassment experienced by BAME women in the workplace.

This section highlights the different sexual harassment experiences in the workplace of BAME women groups compared to their white counterparts as identified from the analysis of the interviews. Relevant differences between ethnic groups are also identified. This section then outlines key recommendations based on the findings from the semi-structured, in-depth interviews. The recommendations presented in this section are not exhaustive. Rather, they reflect the main issues emanating from the content analysis of the interviews. It is also important to state that these recommendations are offered as a catalyst for further discussion. It is vital to encourage future research on a wider sample of BAME women across the North West of England and the UK to provide a more detailed picture of the experiences of BAME women and add weight to the recommendations offered in this section.

5.2 Differences and similarities in the experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace of BAME women compared to white women/women from different ethnic groups

This study has shown that experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace can cause BAME female employees anxiety and distress. In this way, they are similar to their white counterparts and it is important to stress that sexual harassment within organisations directed at BAME or white women and indeed men, should not be tolerated (EHRC, 2006). Certain relevant differences and similarities were identified from the content analysis of the interview materials and these are discussed in more detail.

Interestingly, the majority of participants in this study (88.2 per cent, n=15) considered that their experiences of sexual harassment would differ from the experiences of a white woman and/or a woman from a different BAME background/religion. Most participants highlighted cultural differences that would influence the way they experienced sexual harassment compared to white women. Specifically these were in relation to the interpretation of behaviours and the ability to report incidents. Certain participants suggested that some behaviour may not be regarded as sexually harassing for white women for example, compared to women from different ethnic backgrounds. In this respect, different cultures may have differing connotations attached to certain verbal and non verbal encounters and differing perceptions of acceptable behaviour e.g. invasion of personal space for Asian women. This suggests that BAME women may define sexual harassment in a different way to their white counterparts and indicates that organisational policies in relation to sexual harassment should take account of this.

Significantly, only 11.8 per cent of participants (02) were sexually harassed by a white man. This means that the vast majority of participants were sexually harassed by a BAME man. Of these participants, 60.0 per cent (09) were sexually harassed by someone from the same ethnic background. Generally, perpetrators were in more senior positions within the organisation in comparison to the participant. The remaining 40.0 per cent (06) were sexually harassed by a BAME man from a different ethnic background. Arguably, this may be similar to the experiences of white

women, in that white women are likely to be harassed by white men who again, are likely to be in a more powerful position within the organisation (Wilson and Thompson, 2001; Gruber and Morgan, 2005). Interestingly, however, incidents of sexual harassment do not necessarily record the ethnicity of the perpetrator and consequently, further research is required to investigate this particular issue and other factors relating to the perpetrator in general.

In line with the majority of studies on sexual harassment among white women in the workplace, incidents were only reported by a small minority of BAME participants in this study (23.5 per cent, n=04), (Grainger and Fitzner, 2006; Rutherford et. al., 2006). It was apparent however, that the decision to report the sexual harassment within the organisation was not an easy decision to make. This was due to the fear of losing their job and the very real threat of negative ramifications from within the organisation, their families and the community outside the workplace. Participants clearly outlined that disclosing sexual harassment would tarnish the family name and possibly result in isolation from the wider community. Also, participants revealed a fear of reprisal from male members of their family, mainly their father, brother (s) and husband.

Although this theme was apparent among participants from various ethnic backgrounds, this was reported by all Asian participants, and was a particular concern among the Asian community. In this respect, the BAME participants in this study differ from many white victims of sexual harassment and victims of sexual harassment from other BAME backgrounds who may not encounter such severe reactions from their families and the community in which they live. Participants in this study for example, recognised that reporting sexual harassment may not necessarily be any easier for white women but stated that they were less likely to experience accompanying obstacles from their families and the wider community.

Rather depressingly, three of the four participants whom reported the sexual harassment encountered obstacles when dealing with the issue. This is also common among studies involving white women who report sexual harassment (EHRC, 2000; Rutherford et. al., 2006). Studies have shown that many white female

victims of sexual harassment leave their organisation as a result of the harassment and this study revealed a similar trend among the BAME participants.

It is clear that many organisations are failing to protect employees from sexual harassment and to fully understand specific cultural issues in relation to the experiences of different groups of vulnerable employees. These results have shed some initial light on the differing experiences and indeed similarities, of BAME women compared to their white counterparts other BAME groups. The following section identifies key recommendations that organisations can implement to influence change and secure a safe, protected environment for BAME women in particular and all employees in general.

5.3 Key Recommendations

5.3.1 Implement a clear sexual harassment policy:

Content analysis of the in-depth interviews revealed that 41.2 per cent of participants (07) claimed that the organisation where they were employed during the harassment did not have a sexual harassment policy in place. Further examination of the interview materials highlighted that organisations without sexual harassment policies tended to be smaller organisations. Consequently, many organisations do not have a structure in place to follow should sexual harassment occur. Organisations should have a specific sexual harassment policy which includes cultural issues, as a means of communicating clearly to the workforce that inappropriate behaviour of a sexual nature, towards colleagues will not be tolerated. The policy should also clearly outline the behaviours that constitute sexual harassment (including how different BAME groups may identify different behaviours and verbal encounters as sexual harassment) and identify how the organisation will deal with perpetrators of sexual harassment. Essentially, this should be a zero tolerance policy.

5.3.2 Disseminate the sexual harassment policy:

It is vital that organisations disseminate their policy on sexual harassment to all staff. Essentially, there is no point in having a policy if employees are unaware that it exists. Although 58.8 per cent of participants stated that the organisations in which they experienced sexual harassment did have policies in relation to sexual

harassment in place, 70.6 per cent, (12) were not aware of their organisation's sexual harassment policy during the time of the incident. Dissemination of a sexual harassment policy will outline to all employees that sexual harassment is not tolerated. Dissemination may also prove to be a preventative measure by highlighting the damaging ramifications of sexual harassment for the victim and the perpetrator, to potential perpetrators.

5.3.3 Implement culturally specific training:

Information about sexual harassment should be communicated to employees. One way in which this could be achieved is to implement training for all employees, preferably during an employee's induction programme. This way, the organisation's sexual harassment policy can be clearly outlined to all employees. Follow up training should also be employed to ensure the message that sexual harassment is unacceptable is reiterated to employees. This study showed that 70.6 per cent of participants (12) had never received any training in the workplace in relation to sexual harassment. Training should provide employees with a definition of sexual harassment and look at types of sexual harassment. Training activities could include providing employees with examples of sexual harassment incidents in the workplace and consider what action they would take. They could also examine the needs of the victim and what action and organisation should implement. One participant in this study suggested that introducing role play scenarios into training materials would be an effective way to convey the organisation's message regarding sexual harassment.

Crucially, these training materials should include culturally specific information. Training should for example, include information on BAME stereotypes, how different groups may be more prone to sexual harassment and the different consequences of sexual harassment for different ethnic groups. As this study has shown, it is particularly difficult for BAME women who have been sexually harassed to disclose such information both within and outside the organisation and training should recognise this. This would raise awareness amongst all employees and ensure that employers are sensitive to the needs and particular concerns of BAME women.

5.3.4 Encourage Reporting:

Organisations should encourage employees to report sexual harassment. This may appear controversial to many organisations as they may not particularly relish the idea of having to deal with such incidents and regard this to impact negatively on the reputation of the organisation. However, actively encouraging employees to report incidents, may help to prevent sexual harassment as potential perpetrators will be fully aware that the victim has the organisation's full support to report the harassment and help to deal with incidents quickly and effectively. It is necessary to communicate to all employees and BAME employees in particular, that disclosing sexual harassment will be treated confidentially and that support will be provided. The potentially serious and damaging ramifications for the family and community of reporting sexual harassment has been shown in this study to prevent BAME women from reporting incidents. It is therefore vital that BAME women, who do speak out, do so in a supportive and protected environment with follow up support provided by organisations.

5.3.5 When reported...take allegations seriously:

Reporting sexual harassment can be an anxious and upsetting time for any employee and for BAME women in particular. This study has shown that many BAME women are inhibited by their internal barriers including how they will be perceived by their family and the community at large and the effect reporting sexual harassment might have on their long term career within the organisation. Therefore, the organisation's response needs to be sensitive. Unfortunately, three of the four participants in this study who reported the sexual harassment were not treated with respect and sensitivity by their organisation. Their experiences were discussed within the organisation without their consent which caused anxiety and distress. It is vital that organisations do not follow this pattern of behaviour. Instead, they should deal with matters in an appropriate manner, particularly in light of cultural influences and issues.

5.3.6 Disseminate examples of good practice:

It is important for organisations to disseminate examples of good practice in preventing sexual harassment and dealing with sexual harassment in the workplace. Organisations should be encouraged to share their good practice of how to create a safe and respectful environment, both within their own organisation and externally to other organisations. Perhaps this is best expressed by the following study participant:

'There needs to be a shift in mentality. Currently, the lack of openness and honesty and the failure to stand by policies allows sexual harassment to manifest. Organisations need to recognise that by implementing and publicising training, policies and good practice, they would become champions. They would become leaders in their sector. Far from being seen as a failure, the organisation would be seen as a leader. They'd be beacons of good practice and others would look to them and follow.'

5.4 The way forward

The findings from this study have indicated an array of experiences specific to BAME women who encounter sexual harassment in the workplace in the North West of England. It is hoped that this study provides a catalyst for future research. In particular, it would be useful to conduct a larger study to further identify the differing encounters of BAME women who experience sexual harassment in the workplace and further highlight cultural differences between ethnic groups. The small sample size in this study provided much rich and illuminating data but a larger scale study building on the findings from this study, would provide more robust data. It is hoped that organisations will take note of the key recommendations offered in this report to enable them to implement effective strategies to deal with sexual harassment in the workplace to further develop a safe and secure working environment for all employees and for BAME women in particular.

REFERENCES

- Adams, A. (1992) *Bullying at work. How to confront and overcome it*. Virago Press: London.
- Adams, J. H. (1997) 'Sexual harassment and black women: a historical perspective'. In W. O'Donohue (ed.) *Sexual harassment: theory, research and treatment*. Allyn and Bacon: Boston.
- Amnesty International UK (2005) Sexual assault research summary report. <http://www.amnesty.org.uk>
- Anderson, C. A., Anderson K. B. and Deuser, W. E. (1996) 'Examining an affective aggression framework: weapon and temperature effects on aggressive thoughts, affects and attitudes'. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. 22: 366-76.
- Armour (1999) 'Offensive e-mail in office in increase'. *USA Today*. 4 May: 01B.
- Bimrose, J. (2004) 'Sexual harassment in the workplace: an ethical dilemma for career guidance practice?' *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*. 32 (1): 109-121.
- Blumenthal, J. A. (1998) 'The reasonable women standard. A meta-analytic review of gender differences in perceptions of sexual harassment'. *Law and Human Behaviour*. 22 (1): 33-57.
- Brewis, J. (2001) 'Foucault, politics and organizations: (re)-constructing sexual harassment'. *Gender, Work and Organisation*. 8 (1): 37-60.
- Buchanan, N. T. (2005) 'The nexus of race and gender domination: racialized sexual harassment of African American women'. In J. E. Gruber and P. Morgan (eds.) *In the company of men: male dominance and sexual harassment*. Northeastern University Press: Boston.
- Buchanan, N. T. and Ormerod, A. J. (2002) 'Racialized sexual harassment in the lives of African American women'. *Women and Therapy*. 25: 107-124. Co-published simultaneously in C. M. West (ed.) *Violence in the lives of black women: battered black and blue*. Haworth Press: New York.
- Bursik, K. (1992) 'Perceptions of sexual harassment in an academic context'. *Sex Roles*. 27: 401-412.
- Carlson, N.R, Buskist, W. and Martin, G.N. (2000) *Psychology: The science of behaviours* (European Adaptation. Pearson Education Limited: UK
- Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) (2005) *Harassment at work: diversity and equality*. CIPD: UK.

- Collins, P. H. (1998) *Fighting words: black women and the search for justice*. University of Minnesota Press: Minneapolis.
- Collins, P. (1990) *Black feminist thought: knowledge, consciousness, and the politics of empowerment*. Unwin Hyman: Boston.
- Collinson, D. L. (1988) "Engineering humor." Masculinity, joking and conflict in shop floor relationships'. *Organization Studies*. 9: 181-199.
- Cowie, H., Naylor, P., Rivers, I., Smith, P. K. and Pereira, B. (2002) 'Measuring workplace bullying'. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*. 7 (1): 33-51.
- Creswell, J.W. (2003) *Research Design. Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method Approaches, (2nd Edition)*, Thousand Oaks, Sage.
- Crandall, C. S. and Stangor, C. (2005) 'Conformity and prejudices'. In J. F. Dovidio, P. Glick and L. A. Rudman (eds.) *On the nature of prejudice: fifty years after Allport*. Blackwell Publishing: Malden, MA.
- Dan, A. J., Pinsof, D. A. and Riggs, L. L. (1995) 'Sexual harassment as an occupational hazard in nursing'. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*. 17 (4): 563-580.
- Dansky, B. S. and Kilpatrick, D. G. (1997). 'Effects of sexual harassment'. In W. O'Donahue (ed.) *Sexual harassment: theory, research, and treatment*. Allyn and Bacon: Boston.
- Dasgupta, N. (2004) 'Implicit ingroup favouritism, out group favouritism and their behavioural manifestations'. *Social Justice Research*. 17 (2): 143-169.
- Davidson, M. J. (1997) *The black and ethnic minority woman manager: cracking the concrete ceiling*. Paul Chapman Publishing: London.
- Davidson, M.J. and Cooper, C.L. (1992) '*Shattering the Glass Ceiling: The Woman Manager*', Paul Chapman, London.
- Dawe, A.J. and Fielden, S.L. (2005) 'The experiences of Asian women entering business start-up in the UK', in Fielden, S.L., Davidson, M.J. (Eds), *International Handbook of Women and Small Business Entrepreneurship*, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham.
- DeFour, D. D. (1990) 'The interface of racism and sexism on college campuses'. In M. A. Paludi (ed.) *Ivory power: sexual harassment in campuses*. State University of New York Press: Albany.
- Di Martino, V., Hoel, H. and Cooper, C. L. (2003) *Preventing violence and harassment in the workplace*. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Office for official publications of the European Communities: Luxembourg.

Done, R. S. (2005) 'Just men out of control? Criminology and the likelihood to sexually harass'. In J. E. Gruber and P. Morgan (eds.) *In the company of men: male dominance and sexual harassment*. Northeastern University Press: Boston.

Earnshaw, J. and Davidson, M. J. (1994) 'Remedying sexual harassment via industrial tribunal claims: An investigation of the legal and psychosocial process'. *Personnel Review*. 23 (8): 3-16.

Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., Zapf, D. and Cooper, C. L. (eds.) (2003). *Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace. International perspectives in research and practice*. Taylor and Francis: London/New York.

Einarsen, S. and Mikkelsen, E. G. (2003) 'Individual effect of exposure to bullying at work'. In Einarsen et al. (eds.) *Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace. International perspectives in research and practice*. Taylor and Francis: London/New York.

Einarsen, S. and Raknes, B. I. (1997) 'Harassment in the workplace and the victimization of men'. *Violence and Victims*. 12: 247-263.

Equality and Human Rights Commission (2000) *Advice service surveys*.
<http://www.eoc.org.uk/Default.aspx?page=15567&lang=en>

EHRC/Equal Opportunities Commission (2006) *Facts about Women and Men in Great Britain 2006*. EHRC/EOC: UK

Essed, P. (1992) 'Alternative knowledge sources in explanations for racist events'. In M. L. McLaughlin, M. L. Cody, and S. J. Read (eds.) *Explaining one's self to others: reason-giving in a social context*. Lawrence Erlbaum: Hillside, NJ.

European Commission (EC) (1999) *Sexual harassment at the workplace in the European Union*. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities: Luxembourg.

Fawcett (2005) *'Black & Minority Ethnic Women in the UK'*. Fawcett: London

Fitzgerald, L. F. (1993) 'Sexual harassment: violence against women in the workplace'. *American Psychologist*. 48:1070- 1076.

Fitzgerald, L. F., Drasgow, F., Hulin, C. L., Gelfand, M. J. and Magley, V. J. (1997) 'Antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment: test of an integrated model'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 82: 578-589.

Fitzgerald, L. F., Gelfand, M. J. and Drasgor, F. (1995) 'Measuring sexual harassment: theoretical and psychometric advances'. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*. 17: 425-445.

Frazier, P. A. and Cohen, B. B. (1992) 'Research on the sexual victimization of women: implications for counsellor training'. *The Counselling Psychologist*. 20: 141-158.

Glomb, T. M., Richman, W. L., Hulin, C. L., Drasgow, F., Schneider, K. T. and Fitzgerald, L. F. (1997). 'Ambient sexual harassment: an integrated model of antecedents and consequences'. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*. 71: 309–328.

Grainger, H. and Fitzner, G. (2006) *Fair treatment at work survey 2005. Employment Relations Research Series No.63*. Department of Trade and Industry: London.

Gruber, J. E. and Bjorn, L. (1986) 'Women's responses to sexual harassment: an analysis of sociocultural, organizational, and personal resources models'. *Social Science Quarterly*. 67: 814-826.

Gruber, J. E. and Morgan, P. (2005) *In the company of men: male dominance and sexual harassment*. Northeastern University Press: Boston.

Gutek, B. A. (1995) 'How subjective is sexual harassment? An examination of rater effects'. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*. 17: 447-467.

Hearn, J., & Parkin, W. (1987) 'Sex" at "work'. St. Martin's Press: New York.

Hearn, J. and Parkin, W. (2001) *Gender sexuality and violence in* Fitzgerald, L. F. and Ormerod, A. J. (1991). 'Perceptions of sexual harassment: the influence of gender and academic context'. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. 15: 281-294. *organisations*. Sage: London.

Hearn J. and Parkin, W. (2005) 'Recognition processes in sexual harassment, bullying and violence at work: the move to organizational violations'. In J. E. Gruber and P. Morgan (eds.) *In the company of men: male dominance and sexual harassment*. Northeastern University Press: Boston.

Higginbotham, E. and Weber, L. (1999) 'Perceptions of workplace discrimination among black and white professional-managerial women'. In I. Brown (ed.) *Latinas and African American women at work: race, gender and economic inequality*. Russell Sage Foundation: New York.

Hodges Aeberhard, J. (2001) 'Sexual harassment in employment: recent judicial & arbitral trends'. In M. F. Loutfi (ed.) *Women, gender and work*. International Labour Organisation: Geneva.

Hoel, H. and Cooper, C. (2000) *Destructive conflict and bullying at work*. Manchester School of Management, University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology.

Hoel, H., Cooper, C. and Faragher, B. (2001) 'The experience of bullying in Great Britain: The impact of organizational status'. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10 (4): 443-465.

Hoel, H., Einarsen, S. and Cooper, C. L. (2003) 'Organisational effects of bullying'. In S. Einarsen, H. Hoel, D. Zapf and C. L. Cooper (eds.) *Bullying and emotional abuse*

in the workplace. International perspectives in research and practice. Taylor and Francis: London/New York.

Hooks, B. (1984) 'Feminist theory: from margin to center'. Cited in J. N. Shelton and T. M. Chavous (1999) 'Black and white college women's perceptions of sexual harassment'. *Sex Roles*. 40(7-8): 593-595.

Hooks, B. (1989) *Talking back: thinking feminist thinking black*. South End Press: Boston, Mass.

Howard, S. (1991) 'Organizational resources for addressing sexual harassment'. *Journal of Counselling and Development*. 69: 507-511.

Hurtado, A. (2003) *Voicing Chicana feminisms: young women speak out on sexuality and identity*. New York University Press: New York.

Icengole, M. L., Eagle, B. W., Ahmad, S. and Hanks, L. A. (2002) 'Assessing perceptions of sexual harassment behaviours in a manufacturing environment'. *Journal of Business and Psychology*. 16 (4): 601-616.

Industrial Society (1993) '*Greater London Authority, Gender Equality Scheme*', GLA: UK

Jackson, L. A., Ervin, K. S., Gardner, P. D. and Schmitt, N. (2001) 'Gender and the internet: women communicating and men searching'. *Sex Roles*. 44 (5/6): 363-379.

Kenig, S. and Ryan, J. (1986) 'Sex differences in levels of tolerance and attribution of blame for sexual harassment on a university campus'. *Sex Roles*. 15: 535-549.

Khoo, P. N. and Senn, C. Y. (2004) 'Not wanted in the inbox! Evaluations of unsolicited and harassing emails'. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. 28: 204-214.

Kohlman, M. H. (2004) 'Person or position? The demographics of sexual harassment in the workplace'. *Equal Opportunities International*. 23 (3-5): 143-162.

Konrad, A. M. and Gutek, B. A. (1986) 'Impact of work experience on attitudes toward sexual harassment'. *Administrative Science Quarterly*. 31: 422-438.

Lamertz, K. (2002). 'The social construction of fairness: social influence and sense making in organizations'. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. 23: 19-37.

Landrine, H. and Klonoff, E. A. (1997) *Discrimination against women: prevalences, consequences and remedies*. Sage: Thousand Oaks, CA.

LeClaire, J. (2005) *Study: men and women use internet differently*. TechNewsWorld, 29 December. <http://www.technewsworld.com/story/48048.html>

Lee, D. (2002) 'Gendered workplace bullying in the restructured UK Civil Service'. *Personnel Review*. 31 (2): 205-227.

- Livingston, J. (1982) 'Responses to sexual harassment on the job: legal, organizational and individual actions'. *Journal of Social Issues*. 38: 5-22.
- MacIntosh, J. (2005) 'Experiences of workplace bullying in a rural area'. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*. 26 (9): 893-910.
- MacKinnon, C. (1979) *The sexual harassment of working women*. Yale University Press: New Haven, CT.
- Magley, V. J., Waldo, C. R., Drasgow, F. and Fitzgerald, L. F. (1999) 'The impact of sexual harassment on military personnel: is it the same for men and women?' *Military Psychology*. 11: 283-302.
- Mann, A. I. and Guadagno, R. E. (1999) 'Perceptions of sexual harassment victims as a function of labeling and reporting'. *Sex Roles*. 41: 921-940.
- Mansfield, P. K., Koch, P. B., Henderson, J., Vicary, J. R., Cohn, M. and Young, E. W. (1991) 'The job climate for women in traditionally male blue-collar occupations'. *Sex Roles*. 25: 63-79.
- Mantel, M. (1994) *Ticking bombs: defusing violence in the workplace*. Irwin: New York.
- Martin, S. E. (1994) "Outside within" the station house: the impact of race and gender on black women police'. *Social Problems*. 41: 383-400.
- Mecca, S. J. and Rubin, L. J. (1999) 'Definitional research on African American students and sexual harassment'. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. 23: 813-817.
- Metcalf, H., T. Modood and S. Virdee (1996) *Asian Self-Employment: The Interaction of Culture and Economics in England*, Policy Studies Institute: London.
- Mitchell, D., Hirschman, R., Angelone, D. J. and Lilly, R. S. (2004) 'A laboratory analogue for the study of peer sexual harassment'. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. 28 (3): 194-203.
- Morgan, L. and Davidson, M.J. (2008) *Sexual Dynamics in Mentoring Relationships – A Critical Review*, British Journal of Management, forthcoming.
- Moulton, M. (1998) 'Reducing charges of e-comm harassment', *Computer & Security*, 17, 137– 142.
- Murrell, A. J. (1996). 'Sexual harassment and women of color: issues, challenges, and future directions'. In M. S. Stockdale (ed.) *Sexual harassment in the workplace: perspectives, frontiers, and response strategies*. Sage: Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Neuendorf, K.A. (2002) *The content analysis guidebook*, London, Sage.
- Northcraft, G. B., and Gutek, B. A. (1993). Point-counterpoint: Discrimination against women--Going, going, gone or going but never gone? In E. A. Fagenson (Ed.),

Women in Management: Trends, issues and challenges in managerial diversity (pp. 219-245). Sage: Newbury Park, CA.

O'Connell, C. E. and Korabik, K. (2000) 'Sexual harassment: the relationship of personal vulnerability, work context, perpetrator status, and type of harassment to outcomes'. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 56: 299-329.

Omar, A. and Davidson, M.J. (2001) 'Women in management: a comparative cross-cultural Overview', *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 8 (3/4): 35-67.

Quine, L. (1999) 'Workplace bullying in the NHS community trust: staff questionnaire survey'. *British Medical Journal*. 318: 228-232.

Ram, M., Abbas, T., Sangheera, B., Barlow, G. and Jones, T. (2001) 'Apprentice Entrepreneurs? Ethnic Minority Workers in the Independent Restaurant Sector'. *Work, Employment and Society*. 15, 2.

Rana, B.K., Kagan, C., Lewis, S. and Rout, U. (1998) 'British South Asian women managers and professionals: experiences of work and family'. *Women in Management Review*, 14, 6, pp. 221-232

Rayner, C. and Hoel, H. (1997) 'A summary review of literature relating to workplace bullying'. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*. 7: 181-191.

Robinson, K.H. (2005) 'Reinforcing hegemonic masculinities through sexual harassment: issues of identity, power and popularity in secondary schools'. *Gender and Education*, 17 (1): 19-37

Rosenthal, H. E. S. and Crisp, R. J. (2006) 'Reducing stereotype threat by blurring intergroup boundaries'. *Personality and Social Psychology*. 32 (4) 501-511.

Riger, S. (1991) 'Gender dilemmas in sexual harassment policies and procedures'. *American Psychologist*. 46: 497-505.

Rutherford, S., Schneider, R. and Walmsley, A. (2006) *Agreement on preventing and dealing effectively with sexual harassment: quantitative & qualitative research into sexual harassment in the armed forces*. Ministry of Defence/Equal Opportunities Commission. <http://www.mod.uk/defenceinternet/home>

Sassenberg, K. and Weiber, F. (2005) 'Don't ignore the other half: the impact of ingroup identification on implicit measures of prejudice'. *European Journal of Social Psychology*. 35: 621-632.

Schneider, K. T., Swan, S. and Fitzgerald, L. F. (1997) 'Job-related and psychological effects of sexual harassment in the workplace: empirical evidence from two organizations'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 82: 401-415.

Sczesny, S. (1997) 'Sexuelle Belaestigung am Telefon'. *Eine sozialpsychologie*.

Sczesny, S. and Stahlberg, D. (1999). Sexuelle Belaestigung am Telefon: Definition, Praevalenz, Formen und Verarbeitung. *Zeitschrift fur Sozialpsychologie*. 30: 151-164.

Sedley, A. and Benn, M. (1982) *Sexual harassment at work*. NCLL Rights for Women Unit: London.

Segura, D. A. (1992). 'Chicanas in white-collar jobs: "You have to prove yourself more"'. *Sociological Perspectives*. 35: 163-182.

Shelton, J. N. and Chavous, T. M. (1999) 'Black and white college women's perceptions of sexual harassment'. *Sex Roles*. 40 (7-8): 593-595.

Sigal, J., Braden-Maguire, J., Patt, I., Goodrich, C. and Perrino, C. S. (2003) 'Effects of type of coping responses, setting, and social context on reactions to sexual harassment'. *Sex Roles*. February: 157- 167.

Smith, W. (1999) 'Stressed out'. *Courier Mail*, 1 May. Cited in R. Kiesecker and T. Marchant (1999) 'Workplace bullying in Australia: a review of current conceptualisations and existing research'. *Australian Journal of Management and Organisational Behaviour*. 2: 5.

Stanko, E. A. (1988) 'Keeping women in and out of line: sexual harassment and occupational segregation'. In S. Walby (ed.) *Gender segregation at work*. Open University Press: Milton Keynes.

Stedham, Y. and Mitchell, M. C. (1998). 'Sexual harassment in casinos: effects on employee attitudes and behaviors'. *Journal of Gambling Studies*. 14: 381-400.

Stockdale, M. S. (1998) 'The direct and moderating influences of sexual-harassment pervasiveness, coping strategies, and gender on work-related outcomes'. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. 22: 521-535.

Stockdale, M. S. and Hope, K. G. (1997) 'Confirmatory factor analysis of US merit systems protection board's survey of sexual harassment: the fit of a three-factor model'. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 51: 38-357.

Trades Union Congress (TUC) (1999) *No excuse - no harassment at work*. TUC Women's Conference survey report. TUC: London.

Trade Unions Congress (2008) Ten years after – Black workers in employment – 1997 – 2007. TUC: UK

Tyler, T. R. (1998) 'The psychology of authority relations'. In R. M. Kramer and M. A. Neale (eds.) *Power and influence in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Cited in Miner-Rubino K. and Cortina L. (2004) 'Working in a context of hostility toward women: implications for employees' well-being'. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*. 9 (2): 107-122.

Van Tol, J. E. (1991) 'Eros gone awry: liability under Title VII for workplace sexual favoritism'. *International Relations Law Journal*, 3 (1): 153-82. Cited in Brewis, J.

(2001) 'Foucault, politics and organizations: (re)-constructing sexual harassment'. *Gender, Work and Organization*. 8 (1): 37-60.

Vinson v. Taylor 1986 D.C. Cir. 753, F. 2d, 141, 36 FEP Cases.

Ware Bolagh, D., Kite, M. E., Pickel, K. L., Canel, D. and Schroeder, J. (2003) 'The effects of delayed report and motive for reporting on perceptions of sexual harassment'. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*: April.

Weber (1990) *Basic Content Analysis* Sage.

Wen-Chu Chen, E. (1997) 'Sexual harassment from the perspective of Asian-American women', in: C. R. Ronai, B. A. Zsembik & J. R. Feagin (Eds) *Everyday sexism in the third millennium*. Routledge: New York.

Wilson, F.M. (2003) '*Organizational Behaviour and Gender*'. Ashgate: UK

Wilson, F. and Thompson, P. (2001) 'Sexual harassment as an exercise of power'. *Gender Work and Organization*. 8,(1): 61-83.

Woodzicka, J.A. and LaFrance, M. (2001) 'Real versus imagined gender harassment'. *Journal of Social Issues*. 57: 15-30.

Wyatt, G. E. and Riederle, M. (1995) 'The prevalence and context of sexual harassment among African American and White American women'. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. 10 (3): 309-321.

York, K. M., Barclay, L. A. and Zajack, A. B. (1997) 'Preventing sexual harassment: the effect of multiple training methods'. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*. 10 (4): 277-289.

Zapf, D., Einarsen, S., Hoel, H. and Vartia, M. (2003) 'Empirical findings on bullying'. In S. Einarsen, H. Hoel, D. Zapf and C. L. Cooper (eds.) *Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace. International perspectives in research and practice*. Taylor and Francis: London/New York.

APPENDIX 1 RECRUITMENT FLYER

The University of Manchester
Manchester
Business School

MANCHESTER
1824



Black, Asian or Minority Ethnic (BME) women's experiences in the workplace in the North West

Aim of the study:

The Centre for Equality and Diversity at Work, Manchester Business School in collaboration with the European Social Fund are conducting a research study, specifically aimed at examining the experiences of Black, Asian or Minority Ethnic (BAME) women who have either experienced or witnessed (of another BAME woman), the following sexual harassment behaviours at work in the past five years:

- *visual (leering);*
- *verbal (sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions);*
- *unwanted touching or pinching;*
- *unwanted pressure for sexual favours or dates, with implied threats of job*
- *related consequences for non co-operation;*
- *physical assault;*
- *sexual assault.*

Sexual harassment can take many forms including face-to-face, over the telephone, (verbally or text based), and via email (Stanko, 1988)

Despite the importance of sexual harassment as a barrier to employment, very little is known about the experiences of Black, Asian or Minority Ethnic (BAME) women. In today's diverse society, an understanding of these issues is imperative, to ensure that all vulnerable groups in the workplace are protected. It is essential to understand BAME women's experiences of sexual harassment as developing this insight will help to ensure that effective workplace policies and training are implemented and delivered, and that the largely ignored issues of sexual harassment and BAME women in UK organisations are addressed.

Who are we looking for and what does it involve?

We are looking for **Black, Asian or Minority Ethnic (BAME) women who live or have worked in the North West who have experienced or witnessed (i.e. of another BAME female) any of the behaviours at work listed above in the past five years** to take part in a face to face interview or telephone with a trained, experienced researcher, to discuss their experiences. We appreciate this is a sensitive area and we are keen to assure participants that **all information will be confidential and anonymous**. If you would like to participate in this important, groundbreaking study, one of the project team will contact you to arrange a convenient date, time and place to conduct the interview. We very much value your participation and as an appreciation of this, we will make the final report and recommendations available to you upon request.

If you are interested in participating in this rewarding study please contact the research team on:

Tel: 0161 30(6) 3482/5883
cdwp@mbs.ac.uk

Reviewed and approved by the University of Manchester Research Ethics Committee (reference 06198)

APPENDIX 2

Interview Schedule

1. Introductions

Important to note:

- Confidentiality
- Purpose of research – i.e. recommendations provided and report produced
- Will provide access to report to respondent if requested.
- Acknowledge the ethnicity of interviewer if not BAME and comments of respondent on this.

2. Provide definition:

We consider that the following behaviours constitute sexual harassment:

- *visual (leering);*
- *verbal (sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions);*
- *unwanted pressure for sexual favours or dates;*
- *unwanted touching or pinching;*
- *unwanted pressure for sexual favours, with implied threats of job related consequences for non co-operation;*
- *physical assault;*
- *sexual assault.*

Sexual harassment can take many forms including face-to-face, over the telephone, (verbally or text based), and via email (Stanko, 1988)

- What is your view in general of this definition?

.....
.....
.....

3. The experience

- Are you here to discuss your experience or experiences? (If more than one experience, will need to repeat questions and complete another interview schedule)

.....
.....
.....

- How would you describe your experience? (links between sexual and racial harassment/colour of skin).

.....
.....
.....

- What form of sexual harassment? severity? – link back to the definition – use examples, i.e. inappropriate remarks, touching etc.

.....
.....
.....

- Was this in your current organisation or a previous organisation?

.....
.....
.....

- Over what period?

.....
.....

- Frequency?
.....
.....
.....

- If you were white/different ethnicity/religion do you think this would have happened to you?
.....
.....
.....

- Do you think a white woman/woman from different BME background/religion would have experienced sexual harassment in the same way?
.....
.....
.....

- Was this the first time you had experienced sexual harassment?
.....
.....
.....

4. The perpetrator

- Gender
- Age.....
- Ethnicity

- Position (and in relation to you)
- Educational background (if known)
- Do you know if he/she has a history of harassing behaviour? If so, please explain

.....
.....
.....

5. Reporting

- Have you reported the sexual harassment?

Yes/No

If answer no, why didn't you report it and do you intend to report the sexual harassment?

.....
.....
.....

If yes, why did you report the sexual harassment?

.....
.....
.....

- Do you know what is the process of filing a complaint in your organisation?

Yes/No

If yes, what is it?

.....
.....
.....

- Did you face any obstacles when dealing with sexual harassment i.e. filing a complaint?

Yes/No

If yes, what obstacles, did you face when dealing with sexual harassment i.e. filing a complaint?

.....
.....
.....
.....

- Did your organisation provide you with any support?

Yes/No

If so, what was this? was it helpful – any improvements needed?

.....
.....
.....

- How were you/perpetrator treated as a result?

.....
.....
.....

- Reaction of manager/supervisor/colleagues

.....
.....
.....

- Action (s) of manager/supervisor/colleagues

.....
.....
.....

- Reaction or perceived reaction of partner/family/friends/ethnic community?

.....
.....
.....

- Did you approach any external agencies outside of your organisation?

Yes/No

If so, were they helpful – any improvements needed?

.....
.....
.....

- Do you think your organisation would have handled the situation differently if you had been a white woman filing a complaint/woman from different ethnicity/religion?

Yes/No

If so, how?

.....

6. Coping mechanisms

- Have you experienced any physical and/or psychological side effects following the harassment? (psychosocial/home/social life)?

Yes/No

- What do you consider your coping mechanism(s) was/are/to be? (e.g. medication, professional help)

.....

- Have you/did you disclosed the sexual harassment to anyone else – friend/family member/colleagues?

Yes/No

If so who and why? Reaction?

.....

- Have you/did you receive any support outside the workplace following the sexual harassment?

Yes/No

If so, what was this/how long did it last?

.....

- Would you change your actions in any way?

Yes/No

If yes, what would you do differently and why?

.....

7. The organisation (Note – refer to where the sexual harassment took place and the respondent's organisation if different)

- Are there many BAME women/men working the organisation where the sexual harassment took place/in your organisation?

Yes/No

- Did the organisation have sexual harassment policies in place?

Yes/No

If yes, what sexual harassment policies, did the organisation have in place?

.....

- Were you aware of your organisation's sexual harassment policy at the time of the incident?

Yes/No

- Does your organisation provide training related to sexual harassment?

Yes/No

If so, what is this? Is it sensitive to ethnic/racial/religious issues?

.....

- Had you received any training relating to sexual harassment?

Yes/No

If so, what was this? Is it sensitive to ethnic/racial/religious issues?

.....

- Do you think your organisation could make improvements to the way it deals with sexual harassment?

Yes/No

If so, What could your organisation improve? What could organisations in general improve? (e.g. ethnicity/racial/religious issues)

.....

- Is there anything we haven't asked that you think we should be asking?

.....

- Is there anyone else you think might be interested in talking to us about these issues? If so who? Pass on flyer

.....

8. Demographics

Ethnicity: Religion: Age:

Marital Status: Children:

Position in Organization (management level):

Length in organization:

Type of organization:

Ratio of white employees to BME employees:

Ratio of women to men:

Salary range:

PASS ON DETAILS OF SUPPORT ORGANISATIONS

APPENDIX 3

Analysis codes for qualitative content analysis of semi-structured interview materials

1. Main theme: Demographic (DE)

Sub Theme	Category	Code	Description
Personal demographics (DEP)	Age	DEPA	Age of participants
	Ethnicity	DEPE	Ethnicity of participants
	Religion	DEPR	Religion of participants.
	Marital Status	DEPM	Marital status of participants.
	Children	DEPC	Investigation of whether participants had children.
Occupational (DEO)	Position in organisation	DEOP	Identification of the level of seniority of participants.
	Length in organisation	DEOR	Investigation of the length of time participants had been in their role at work.
	Size of organisation	DEOS	Investigation of the size of organisation
	Type of organisation	DEOT	Public/private/voluntary
	Income	DEOI	Income of mentees and the control group.
	Gender ratio	DEOG	Ratio of male to female workers in respondent's organisation.
	Ethnicity ratio	DEOE	Ratio of white to BAME workers in respondent's organisation.

2. Main theme: Definition (D)

Sub Theme	Category	Code	Description
The meaning of sexual harassment (DM)	Behaviours	DMB	Examination of the participants' views on the various behaviours that constitute sexual harassment (e.g. visual, verbal, unwanted pressure, unwanted touching)
	Forms	DMF	Examination of the participants' views on the various forms of sexual harassment (e.g. face-to-face, email).

3. Main theme: The Experience (E)

Sub Theme	Category	Code	Description
The experience of sexual harassment (ES)	Number of experiences	ESN	Identification of the number of times participants considered they had uncounted sexual harassment.
	Description	ESD	Examine of the experience under review.
	Form	ESF	Identification of the form of sexual harassment (e.g. face-to-face, over the telephone)
	Place	ESP	Identification of the workplace in which the sexual harassment occurred (e.g. in participant's current or previous organisation)
	Period	ESPP	Examination of the period over which the sexual harassment took place.
	Frequency	ESFF	Examination of the frequency of sexual harassment experienced.
	Ethnicity	ESE	Identification of the ethnicity of the perpetrator.

4. Main theme: The Perpetrator (P)

Sub Theme	Category	Code	Description
Characteristics (PC)	Demographics	PCD	Investigation gender, age and organisational position of the perpetrator.
Prior Experiences (PP)	History	PPH	Examination of known prior history of harassing behaviour

5. Main theme: Reporting (R)

Sub Theme	Category	Code	Description
Organisation (RO)	Extent	ROE	Examination of the number of participants who reported the sexual harassment
	Person	ROP	Examination of who participants reported the sexual harassment to within the organisation
	Experience	ROE	Investigation of the experience of reporting sexual harassment within the organisation
	Outcomes	ROO	Investigation of the outcomes of reporting sexual harassment within the organisation.
External	Extent	EEE	Examination of the number of participants who reported the sexual harassment outside the organisation.
	Person	REP	Examination of the who participants reported the sexual harassment to (e.g. family/friends/community)
	Experience	REE	Investigation of the experience of reporting sexual harassment to others (e.g. family/friends/community)
	Outcomes	REO	Investigation of the outcomes of reporting sexual harassment to others.

6. Main theme: Coping Mechanisms (C)

Sub Theme	Category	Code	Description
Side effects	Physical/Psychological	CSP	Investigation of the impact of sexual harassment on physical/psychological well being.
	Methods of coping	CSM	Examination of the methods of coping utilised by participants.

7. Main theme: The Organisation (O)

Sub Theme	Category	Code	Description
Policies/training/ recommendations (OP)	Existence	OPE	Identification of sexual harassment policies and training.
	Awareness	OPA	Extent of awareness of sexual harassment policies/training.
	Improvements/ recommendations	OPI	Suggestions of recommendations for organisations to implement to ensure improvements for BAME female employees.