

SEXUAL HARASSMENT OF WOMEN STUDENTS
IN
HIGHER EDUCATION

BY

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In loving memory of
my father, Mr. I. Oshinsky

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	ix
ABSTRACT	xi
CHAPTER	
ONE INTRODUCTION.	1
Purpose of the Study.	2
Rationale	3
Problem Statement	5
Hypotheses.	6
Definition of Terms	7
Outline of the Remainder of the Study	8
TWO REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.	9
Background.	9
Occupational Stereotyping	11
Women in the Professions.	16
Sexual Harassment as a Barrier to Occupational Equality.	23
Definition.	23
Relationship to Sex Roles	24
Relationship to Occupational Segregation.	25
Consequences of Sexual Harassment	28
Prevalence.	30
Review of Title VII Cases	34
Sexual Harassment as Sex Discrimination	34
Employer Responsibility	36
Governmental Response	37
Institutional Sexism.	39
Background.	39
Profile of Undergraduate Women Students	41
First Professional Degree Level	44
A Profile of Professional Women in Academia	45
Attitudes Affecting Women in Academia	47
Professional Women.	47
Professional Women's Aspirations.	49
Women in Administration	49
Attitudes Toward Female Graduate Students	50

	PAGE
Attitudes Toward Women Pursuing Non- Traditional Fields of Study	53
Sexual Harassment of Female Students.	55
Prevalence of Sexual Harassment of Women Students.	59
Consequences of Sexual Harassment	61
Reporting Incidents of Sexual Harassment.	67
Recent Developments	71
Summary	72
THREE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.	74
Description of Sample and Selection	74
Procedures.	76
Instrumentation	78
Development	78
Phase I	79
Phase II.	80
Phase III	80
Phase IV.	81
Phase V	82
Final Revisions	82
Analysis of Data.	82
Limitations	85
FOUR RESULTS	86
Demographic Data.	86
Analysis of Data.	92
Items Concerning Attitudes and Beliefs.	96
Items Concerning Experiences.	111
The Relationship Between Items.	118
FIVE CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS	129
Conclusions	131
Discussion.	132
Implications.	135
APPENDICES	
A Notation.	137
B Sample Cover Letter and Questionnaire	138
C Revision of Sexual Harassment Questionnaire	144

	PAGE
C.1 Pilot Study: Questionnaire	164
C.2 Pilot Study: Instructions.	167
REFERENCES.	168
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH	176

LIST OF TABLES

	PAGE
CHAPTER THREE	
Table 1. Population and Sample Sizes.	75
CHAPTER FOUR	
Table 2. Composition of Sample of Female Students, by Professional School and Level, Responding to Sexual Harassment Questionnaire	88
Table 3. Number and Percentage of Male and Female Faculty in Selected Professional Schools in the State University System of Florida.	90
Table 4. Multivariate Tests of Significance Using Wilks Lambda Criterion for 12 Attitude Items.	94
Table 5. One-Way Analysis of Variance, <u>A Posteriori</u> Tests of 12 Attitude Items Between Groups. .	97
Table 6. Differences in Attitudes and Beliefs Con- cerning Sexual Harassment Between Female Students in Traditional (T) and Non- Traditional (NT) Professional Fields of Study Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages.	99
Table 7. Differences in Attitudes and Beliefs Con- cerning Sexual Harassment of Female Students in Non-Traditional Fields of Study Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages.	103
Table 8. Differences in Attitudes and Beliefs Con- cerning Sexual Harassment Between Graduate (G) and Undergraduate (UG) Female Students Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages.	108

	PAGE
Table 9. Differences of Experiences of Sexual Harassment Between Female Students Enrolled Traditional (T) and Non-Traditional (NT) Fields of Study Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages	112
Table 10. Differences of Experiences of Sexual Harassment of Female Students Among Non-Traditional Professional Areas of Study Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages	120
Table 11. Differences of Experiences of Sexual Harassment Between Graduate (G) and Undergraduate Level (UG) Female Students Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages	124
Table 12. Two Canonical Factors That Relate to Attitude and Experience Items Expressed by Correlation Coefficients	127
 APPENDIX C	
Table 13. Pre- and Post-Test Data	150
Table 14. Factor Analysis of Attitude and Experience Items	151
Table 15. Pre- and Post-Test Scores of Attitudes of Undergraduate and Graduate Students Towards Sexual Harassment on Campus (Percentage Agreeing with Items).	152
Table 16. Pre- and Post-Test Scores of Undergraduate and Graduate Students Experiences of Sexual Harassment (Percentages Agreeing with Items).	155
Table 17. Experiences of and Attitudes Toward Blatant and Subtle Forms of Sexual Harassment, Students Harassing Professors, and Reporting Incidents of Sexual Harassment to University Officials (Percentages Agreeing with Items)	161

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SEXUAL HARASSMENT OF WOMEN STUDENTS
IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by

Judy C. Oshinsky

Chairperson: Dr. Robert Stripling
Major Department: Counselor Education

The purpose of this study was to provide more accurate information pertaining to the number of women students who have experienced some form of sexual harassment on campus. The study also was designed to examine the beliefs that women students have toward sexual harassment in the college environment. Women students in the traditional professional major area of education were compared to women students in selected non-traditional professional major areas of study: dentistry, engineering, law, medicine, and veterinary medicine. In addition, undergraduate women students were compared to graduate women students.

Data were obtained from the responses to the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment of 1,111 women students at the three largest universities in the state university system of Florida. The results indicated

that a greater percentage of women in non-traditional areas of study, when compared to those in traditional areas, experienced subtle forms of sexual harassment. Approximately 80 percent of the female medical students (dentistry, medicine, and veterinary medicine) have experienced "instructor(s) who made negative remarks about females as a group," while 64 percent of the law students, and 38 percent of the engineering students shared this type of subtle harassment. A greater percentage of graduate students, compared to undergraduates, indicated experiences of subtle forms of sexual harassment.

No statistically significant differences were found to exist between the four groups when considering experiences of blatant sexual harassment. Approximately 20 percent of the graduate women, compared to 17 percent of the undergraduate women, experienced "unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s)." About 20 percent of the women in non-traditional fields, compared to 17 percent of the women in the traditional fields of education (both undergraduate and graduate), indicated that they experienced "unwanted sexual attention" from their instructors. A canonical correlation analysis demonstrated that the two highly correlated canonical factors exist. These factors were labeled subtle and blatant forms of harassment. This analysis also indicated that a relationship exists between women students' perceptions and their experiences of sexual harassment.

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

Various forms of sexual harassment occur on college campuses across the nation. Incidents of sexual harassment may range from sexist comments and unwanted physical contact, such as pinching and patting, to subtle pressure for sexual activity. The unwanted sexual attention that a student experiences from a professor or staff member carries an implicit message that lack of cooperation will bring negative consequences. The consequences may include continued harassment, unfair grading practices, poor evaluations or letters of recommendation, sarcasm and negative or embarrassing remarks aimed at the student (Alliance Against Sexual Coercion 1979; Farley 1978). There is a paucity of concrete evidence as to the existence, prevalence, or the consequences of sexual harassment in the higher education community. Campus newspapers may tend to provide emotionally charged facts; however, they do provide much needed information. The following is an example of one such account:

A faculty member told a student, 'if you want to get an 'A', you have to go to bed with me.' The student's husband reported it to the department chairman. The department chairman had a 'heart to heart' with the faculty member instead of bouncing him out on his ear. He shipped him off to another college with a glowing letter of recommendation. (Julin 1979, p. 10).

Just how prevalent are situations of sexual harassment on college and university campuses?

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to provide more accurate information pertaining to the number of women students who have experienced some form of sexual harassment on the campus. This study examined the attitudes and beliefs of women students toward the occurrence of sexual harassment in the college environment. An additional purpose of this study was to further refine the definition of sexual harassment.

For the purpose of this study, women students in the traditional professional major area of education were compared to women students in selected non-traditional professional major areas of study: dentistry, engineering, law, medicine, and veterinary medicine. In addition, undergraduate women students were compared to graduate women students.

The results of research pertaining to the extent of sexual harassment on campuses may be used for program planning and policy statements by the State and Federal government and universities-at-large (Guidepost 1979; Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978). In addition, it is hoped that this research will build a foundation for and generate further research in the area of sexual harassment of women students on the campus. Universities may also become sensitive to the need for training programs for administrative personnel, faculty, and students, relating to the issue of sexual harassment.

Rationale

Sexual harassment of students by instructors does exist; however, very little basic data were available to substantiate its existence. The prevalence of occurrence of such incidents needed to be determined. Until university officials are faced with facts, in the form of data, they will remain unaware of the extent of the problem. Until adequate complaint procedures are established to report incidents of harassment, there will be a void in the means by which the extent of sexual harassment can be measured. Governmental agencies and professional organizations have stated the need for research in the area of sexual harassment of students (Guidepost 1979; Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978; Women in Action 1980). In Lin Farley's recent book (1978), Sexual Shakedown, she stated that:

Sexual harassment is pervasive in American colleges and universities. This pervasiveness, combined with a lack of adequate procedures for complaining, virtually assures that a certain percentage of female graduate students will be victimized by this abuse. (1978, p. 74)

Presently, there are six universities in the United States that have publicly acknowledged sexual harassment as a problem on their campuses. These schools have taken the initiative to implement administrative policy in the form of reporting procedures designated to handle incidents of sexual harassment. For the most part, women in universities throughout the nation are rendered impotent in dealing with this problem:

Because most women fail to publicize their complaints, either formally or informally, university officials may believe that the absence of complaints indicates the absence of a problem. (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 3)

Presently, only 12 percent of the tenured faculty in the state university system of Florida are female. The number of male faculty has increased 25 percent in the last five years while the number of female faculty has increased less than 2 percent. Female students are rapidly approaching 50 percent of the student population (Wares 1980). Female staff members report more incidents of sexual harassment being brought to their attention than do male administrators (Raulerson 1979; Julin 1979). At the University of Florida, 88 percent of the faculty are males; there is an excellent chance that a female student may never experience a relationship of trust with a female staff member (Klein 1979). Determining whether sexual harassment is a problem on the university campus, by calculating the number of "reported incidents," is analogous to determining the size of the iceberg by looking at its tip.

An anonymous questionnaire was used to sample populations of female students and survey their personal experiences, attitudes, and beliefs concerning sexual harassment of females on campus. A questionnaire offers "greater impersonality, elicits more candid and more objective replies," than an interview or incident reports (Mouly 1963, p. 240). The questionnaire appeared to be the most effective method of measurement in aiding university officials in determining whether sexual harassment was a problem of such magnitude that it required administrative policy.

Problem Statement

Occupational stereotyping as an outgrowth of sex-role stereotyping exists as a perpetrator of inequality. Occupational stereotyping, its component occupational segregation, and sexual harassment function in a mutualistic relationship. Occupational and institutional sexism result in sexual harassment of women, and sexual harassment perpetuates both forms of sexism. This symbiotic relationship provokes pernicious results for women who defy and transgress the boundaries of their stereotype. For example:

Women are often blocked by sexual harassment from obtaining the academic degrees without which there can be no entry into the majority of professional occupations. (Farley 1978, p. 69).

In Juanita Kreps book, Sex in the Marketplace, she stated that women graduate students, more often than men, do not complete their studies for several reasons. Kreps maintained that the failure of women to complete their graduate studies was due to their lack of interest, marriage, childbearing, inadequate fellowship support to women, and admissions policies that favor men (1971). In response, Lin Farley strongly asserted that:

It is time we recognize that what has been judged female disinterest or lack of dedication is often the effect of sexual harassment. Sexual abuse is, in fact, so widespread in higher education that school administrators should have made this connection sometime ago. (1978, p. 70)

This study measured the extent of this problem in the State of Florida's three largest universities. The questions that were answered by this research were:

1. To what extent, if any, does sexual harassment of women students occur on college campuses?
2. Is there a difference in the frequency of sexual harassment of women students in the traditional field of education, as compared to women students in those fields considered non-traditional professions (e.g., dentistry, engineering, law, medicine, veterinary medicine)?
3. Is there a difference in attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment of women students between women in the traditional professional major area of education and the non-traditional professional areas of study?
4. Is there a difference in the frequency of sexual harassment of women students among those fields considered non-traditional professional areas of study?
5. Is there a difference in attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment of women students among those fields considered non-traditional professional areas of study?
6. Is there a difference in the frequency of sexual harassment of undergraduate women as compared to graduate women students?
7. Is there a difference in the attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment of undergraduate women as compared to graduate women students?

Hypotheses

1. There is no difference in attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment between women in the traditional professional major area of education and those in selected non-traditional professional major areas of study.
2. There is no difference in the frequency of sexual harassment of women students among selected non-traditional major areas of study.
3. There is no difference in attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment between graduate and undergraduate women students.
4. There is no difference between women students in selected non-traditional professional areas of study and the traditional professional major area of education, in the frequency of sexual harassment.

5. There is no difference in the frequency of sexual harassment of women students among selected non-traditional major areas of study.
6. There is no difference between the two groups (undergraduate women students and graduate women students) in the frequency of occurrence of sexual harassment.
7. There is no relationship between attitudes and beliefs of women students towards sexual harassment and their experiences of sexual harassment.

Definition of Terms

Sexual harassment - for the purpose of this study, sexual harassment was defined as the manifestations of sex bias and sex-role stereotyping in the behaviors and attitudes of an individual in a position of power or control. More specific behaviors included: sexist remarks and jokes, inappropriate physical contact, unwanted sexual attention, and negotiations for grades/letters of recommendation based upon a student's willingness to cooperate in sexual activity.

The Project on the Status and Education of Women defined male sexual harassment at its extreme occurring when:

. . . a male in a position to control, influence, or affect a woman's job, career, or grades uses his authority and power to coerce the woman into sexual relations or to punish her refusal. (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 2)

Stereotype --

. . . a standardized mental picture held in common by members of a group and representing an oversimplified opinion, affective attitude, or uncritical judgement (as of a person, a race, an issue, or an event). (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1976, p. 2238)

Professional -- a person involved in:

. . . a vocation or occupation requiring advanced training in some liberal art or science, and usually involving mental rather than manual work, as teaching, engineering, writing, etc.; especially medicine, law, or theology. (Webster's New World Dictionary 1957, p. 1163)

Tradition(al) -- "conforming to tradition; conventional; customary." For the purpose of this study, the traditional professional major area of study was education (Webster's New World Dictionary 1957, p. 1544).

Non-traditional -- the major areas of study that were not customary pursuits for women, to be considered by this study were: dentistry, engineering, law, medicine, and veterinary medicine.

Frequency -- the number of women who responded "yes" to the personal experience items on the questionnaire.

Outline of the Remainder of the Study

The remainder of the study is presented in four chapters:

Chapter II presents a review of related pertinent research and literature in order to provide a theoretical foundation in support of the study.

Chapter III provides an outline of the methodology that was utilized to complete the study.

Chapter IV adduces the results of the study.

Chapter V presents a discussion of the results of the study and introduces implications generated by the study.

CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Background

A review of the literature demonstrates that men and masculine stereotypic traits are more highly valued in our society than are women and stereotypically female traits. Male attributes, such as independence, assertiveness, confidence, ambition, activeness, strength, and logic, cluster to form the behaviors that may be interpreted as competence. The stereotypic perceptions of women are characterized by a relative absence of these qualities. Women are assigned traits that cluster to form behaviors that may be interpreted as nurturing and emotional (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz 1972; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; Shinar 1975).

Occupational stereotypes exist as a limiting factor for women who seek the opportunity for total utilization of their talents. Sex-role stereotypes are societal creations, so pervasive that they may be the major determinant of an individual's behavior, learning experiences, and career options (Appley 1977; Shinar 1975).

The world of work. Sex roles and sex-appropriate behavior extend to the occupational world and define this world by sexual dimensions. Literature on occupational stereotypes indicates that the phenomenon is as pervasive and cohering as sex-role stereotypes (Harris 1974; Schlossberg and Goodman 1972; Shinar 1975). Sex-role and occupational stereotyping produce and perpetuate an environment conducive to acts of sexual harassment of women. Sexual harassment of women in the world

of work is pervasive and pertinacious and will remain so until stereotypes are dispelled and equity is achieved (Farley 1978; MacKinnon 1979). The stereotypically feminine characteristics of submissiveness, compliance, and dependency leave women vulnerable to the dominance of males in every aspect of our society (Maccoby and Jacklin 1974).

Higher education. The world of education, especially higher education, is not immune from the effects of sex-role and occupational stereotyping (Clark 1977; Feldman 1974; Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry 1975; Rossi 1973). The academic environment echoes societal attitudes:

The college or university frequently, if not always, mirrors the attitudes of the general society toward women and, despite stated goals to the contrary, at times inadvertently reinforces many of these attitudes. (Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry 1975, p. 35)

The literature demonstrates the overwhelming dominance of males in administration and position of rank over their female colleagues in academia (Clark 1977; Farley 1978; National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES] 1979). Sexual discrimination of women permeates the academic community:

Perhaps no form of discrimination remains more pervasive or invidious among educators than that existing towards women. Although improvements have occurred, the spirit of new legislation will exert little effect without attitude changes among the faculty who can encourage women to utilize their new opportunities. Although discrimination may have become implicit rather than explicit, it still results in differential treatment according to sex in academia. As agents in higher education, we must seriously re-examine our own attitudes and behaviors towards sex roles, particularly the roles of academic women. (Clark 1977, p. 103)

Female students are exposed primarily to male professors. The power inherent in the student-teacher relationship provides the opportunity for sexual harassment, primarily of female students (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978). Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments prohibits sex discrimination in education. It has been decided by the lower courts that sexual harassment of students constitutes sexual discrimination in education.

Sexual harassment is considered to be sexual discrimination under Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. This law now provides recourse for victims of sexual harassment in employment (Michigan Law Review 1978). Unlike sexual harassment of women in the working world, the existence and the extent of the problem have not been investigated in academia.

Occupational Stereotyping

Sex-stereotyping of occupations is evident in individuals as early as five years of age. Research indicates that children from kindergarten through sixth grade perceive occupations as "feminine" or "masculine" (Schlossberg and Goodman 1972; Harris 1974). This was demonstrated by Schlossberg and Goodman's (1972) study in which the children were asked to indicate which jobs men and/or women could fill. The subjects clearly indicated that women could not fix automobiles or television sets nor could they design buildings. They could, however, be nurses, librarians, and waitresses. Approximately 83 percent of the girls and 97 percents of the boys chose an occupation for themselves that was traditional for their sex.

Sex stereotyping of occupations was also found to be evident among college students. The results of Shinar's (1975) study imply that both college men and women clearly define sexual stereotypes of occupations. Students rated 129 occupations in terms of masculinity, neutrality, or femininity on a seven-point bipolar scale. Sixty-eight occupations, including engineer, dentist, surgeon, district attorney, and veterinarian, were rated as masculine. With the same range of three points on the scale, only 16 occupations were ranked as feminine. Just two of the "feminine" occupations require college degrees, elementary school teacher and registered nurse. Stereotypic attitudes relegate females to occupations that are less desirable than those of males:

It seems reasonable to assume that those occupations stereotypically associated with high levels of competence, rationality, and assertion are viewed as masculine occupations, whereas those occupations stereotypically associated with dependence, passivity, nurturance, and interpersonal warmth are perceived as feminine occupations. (Shinar 1975, p. 108)

The findings of this study of college students' subjective ratings significantly parallel the objective reality of the proportions of men and women in various occupations (Shinar 1975). The National Commission on Working Women reports that out of 441 occupations listed in the Census Classification System, the majority of women were found in only 20 (Network News and Notes 1978).

Sex-stereotypical views of occupations may be perpetuated by those who influence young women and men in their career decisions. Research indicates that career and vocational counselors as well as other "helping professionals" do hold sex-stereotypic perceptions of occupations (Bingham and House 1975; Schlossberg and Peitrofesa 1973; Thomas and Stewart 1971).

A 1973 study of secondary school counselors demonstrates the sex-stereotypic attitudes of counselors towards women. Male counselors tended to agree that a woman's most important function was 'motherhood.' The researchers concluded that ". . . girls who do feel uncertain about their careers might anticipate greater support on some important dimensions of vocational behavior from female rather than male counselors" (Bingham and House, p. 22). In congruence with these findings, Thomas and Stewart's (1971) study previously suggested that high school counselors perceived girls with non-traditional career aspirations as more in need of counseling than girls with conforming career goals. Research conducted five years later implied that counselors' attitudes toward women did not change. In Ahrons (1976) study of approximately 300 school counselors, she determined that counselors perceived women as deviant if they chose occupations that were incompatible with their sex-role. Medvene and Collins (1976) indicated similar findings in their study of school counselors, psychotherapists, and graduate students. School counselors were most likely to rate certain occupations as inappropriate for women. Similarly, Donahue and Costar (1977) concluded that school counselors discriminated in their occupational choices for women. Approximately 300 counselors were given case studies of six students and were asked to select an appropriate occupation for each student. The case studies were identical with the exception of the sex of the student. Females were more frequently assigned to lower-paying occupations which required less education and more supervision.

The implication of this and similar research are clear. ". . . counselor bias exists against women entering a masculine occupation" (Schlossberg and Peitrofesa 1973, p. 48). This is reinforced by findings in a study of women with medical school aspirations. Professionals who conduct psychovocational evaluations and counseling as part of their daily routine perceived females with medical school aspirations as less psychologically adjusted than males with the same aspirations. In essence the study suggests ". . . the existence of more prejudice against the unconventional woman by more experienced traditional counselors" (Abramowitz, Weitz, Schwartz, Amira, and Gomez, 1975, p. 130). In summary, the research demonstrates that young women may be discouraged or not encouraged to pursue occupations that are deemed "inappropriate" for their stereotype.

Occupational segregation as a component and result of occupational stereotyping further defines and confines career options for both sexes:

Occupational segregation refers to the situation in which minorities and women have different occupations or types of jobs regardless of where or for whom they work. In a hospital setting, for example, a majority male typically is a doctor, a woman is a nurse, and a minority male is an orderly. This type of extreme separation of employees may be found in a variety of industries and appears to have been even more common in the past. (United States Commission on Civil Rights 1978, p. 39)

In 1970, a minimum of 65.8 percent of the majority of females would have needed to change occupations in order to have an occupational distribution identical to majority males. By 1976, an additional

.5 percent of majority females would have to make job changes to obtain occupational equality. A greater discrepancy exists in the distribution of occupations between minority group females and majority males (United States Commission on Civil Rights 1978).

Several consequences emanate from sex-typing and segregating of occupations. One such consequence is exemplified in the lack of career options for women. "In 1970, teaching and nursing accounted for 63 percent of the professional women in the U.S." (In Wolleat, Parker, and Rodenstein 1978, p. 106). An additional consequence of occupational segregation is that although women have been changing jobs and attaining higher levels of education, they have not achieved equity of income:

Women workers are concentrated in low paying, dead-end jobs. As a result, the average women worker earns only about three-fifths of what a man does, even when both work full-time year round. The median wage or salary income of year round, full-time workers in 1977 was lowest for minority race women — \$8,383. For white women it was \$8,787; minority men, \$11,053; and white men, \$15,230. (U.S. Department of Labor 1979)

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1978) reports that in 1975, college educated men earned \$7,000 more than women. No college educated female group in 1975 earned as much as 70 percent of the college educated male group. The Commission report states:

Majority female college graduates have averaged earnings less than majority males with a high school education. Although educational attainment seems to be linked to earnings, people in different groups with the same educational attainment certainly do not earn the same income. This indicator, in conjunction with the data on college attainment, reflects a bleak picture for black young men and women and for majority women. Those who do overcome the obstacles

to a college education find financial rewards significantly lower than those for majority males. (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights 1978, p. 22).

Vertical stratification. Women are generally in positions that are subordinate to men. Even in fields that are female-dominated such as education, men are in the overwhelming majority in supervisory and administrative positions (MacKinnon 1979). In 1970, 85 percent of the elementary school teachers were women. However, in 1973, only 20 percent of the elementary school principals were women (Giele 1978). Women represent less than six percent of the chief executives of institutions of higher learning (Comment 1979). In general, women remain in inferior jobs congruent with their stereotype or they remain within inferior status positions in the same type of work as men (MacKinnon 1979).

Women in the Professions

Professional women as a group are transcending the stereotypic parameters that society has dictated. The cost for this transgression into the male bastion of the professions is incurred by both the female transgressor and the profession as a whole. Women in professions that are traditionally male-dominated experience inequities in salaries, promotions, and access to the "old boy network" (Kaplan and Pao 1977; Wolleat et al. 1978). In professions that have traditionally had a higher percentage of women, such as education, women continue to experience inequities (Admac and Graham 1978; Appley 1973).

As women enter the professions, the professions experience a decrease in status or prestige (Appley 1973, Gross 1967; Rossi and Calderwood 1973; Toughey 1974). More specifically:

. . . even when women can enter "masculine" occupations, they choose to specialize in the less prestigious areas of a profession and hardly ever reach the top levels. It is a vicious cycle: women have a lower level of aspiration, there is a poor support system, their level of aspiration is lowered further, and so on. And even if they escape this first set of socialization barriers, they are given the boring jobs or the most tedious tasks in the professions. If women do gain entry to a man's profession in large numbers, it loses status and becomes a woman's occupation, and thus provides lowered salaries. If men enter a woman's occupation, they are given the higher level, higher paying jobs. (Appley 1973, p. 309)

In a recent study where college students were led to believe that a high status occupation would increase its proportion of female professionals, both the desirability and prestige of the occupation declined. The high status occupations included in the study were architect, college professor, lawyer, physician, and scientist (Touhey 1974). These findings paralleled the findings of a study investigating proportions of women in the higher and lower status specialities within the professions (Gross 1967). The author discovered that women in medicine were found primarily in the areas of pediatrics, psychiatry, and dermatology. Women were seldom employed among the ranks of neurologists and surgeons. A similar pattern occurred for women in the law profession. Female lawyers tended to be involved in practices focusing on divorce, juveniles, and welfare cases, rather than higher status specialities such as corporate law (Gross 1967).

Traditionally, women in the professions have experienced disapproval by significant others. Female professionals cross the boundaries of their stereotype into traditionally male-dominated fields. Similar to

any minority overstepping their bounds, women experience disapproval and doubt. American psychologist Gerhart Saenger writes:

. . . the existence of a sound self-esteem, which in large measure depends upon successful identification with one's group, is fundamental for the development of well-adjusted personality. The feeling of being accepted and accepting one's group is basic for the individual's security. Where the group is considered inferior by the larger society, and membership in it related to deprivations, a positive identification with the group and the development of strong ties of belonging become difficult. (In *Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry [GAP] 1975*, p. 120)

Stereotypic attitudes are often represented by myths. Women professionals, as a minority with an imposed inferior role, must cope with the impact of discrimination that is perpetuated by these myths. In a study concerning women physicians, researchers were confronted with the following responses:

"Women doctors do not practice enough to warrant training them"—a general practitioner.

"I have never met a woman doctor who worked as hard as I do"—surgeon and dean.

"I read in a journal somewhere that only 10% of women who take the boards in internal medicine ever practice"—woman faculty member of an internal medicine department. (Heins, Snock, and Martindale 1979, p. 297)

The preceding statements were made in 1977 in the presence of one of the authors. They represent myths about women in medicine. The data obtained from this research refuted these myths. The study indicated that 84 percent of the female compared to 96 percent of the male respondents were employed full-time and the same percentage worked as much as did male physicians. Women were engaged in dual roles as 87 percent of the women had the responsibility for households (Heins et al. 1978).

Women who enter the professions experience doubt from others as to their commitment to a professional career. As shown earlier, some male counselors believed that motherhood was a woman's primary function. Truly, many professional women have a dual role, that of housewife or mother, and as a professional:

Men believe, and women accept their belief, that woman's role should be selfless, dedicated to being man's helpmate, and any work or career on the part of women should fill in the gaps of time and energy left over from their primary obligations as wives and mothers. This adaptive role is compatible with a job as a laboratory assistant, engineering aide, or medical technician, but not with responsible careers as scientist, engineer, or doctor, except for those rare Amazons among us who can live two lifetimes in one. (Rossi 1965, p. 53)

Salaries. Women in all occupations experience salary inequities. Women professionals are not excluded from the unequal pay for equal work phenomenon:

Even with experience and job occupation held constant, women earn less than men. A 1971 study of chemists' salaries showed that with seniority held constant, women who held Ph.D.'s earned less than men with B.A.'s. Another study (1971) indicated that female lawyers with 10 years experience earned 200% less than their male colleagues with the same experience. (Wollett et al. 1978, p. 106)

Women scientists, except for new engineering and chemistry graduates, receive lower salaries in every work setting, in every field, with every employee, and at every degree level. The discrepancy in salary grows with the age of the woman. For example, female microbiologists employed by the federal government earn an average salary of \$4,500 less than male microbiologists (Women in Action 1979). Females in the professional and technical occupations earn 70 percent of what males earn in the same occupations (Working Woman 1980). Over

1,100 females in science and engineering were surveyed as to their experiences as professionals in their fields. The respondents indicated that women in their fields commonly experienced sex-related job discrimination in promotions, preparation for top level careers, and salary and fringe benefits (Connolly and Burks 1977). Women account for 11 percent of all physicians and 28 percent of all psychiatrists. Psychiatry is one of the lowest paying specialities a physician can pursue (Working Woman 1980).

Professionally trained women have unemployment rates two to five times higher than males with the same level of training in the same fields. For example:

. . . among all doctorates in history in 1977, 2.9% of the men were unemployed and seeking employment, compared with 10.4% of the women. In the social sciences, the unemployment rate for men doctorates was 1.0% and for women, 4.0%. ("Progress In Professional Labor Force Is Mixed Bag," Winter 1978-79, p. 31).

Overcoming the barriers. Affirmative action and anti-discrimination legislation is assisting women in breaking down the barriers to equality in education and employment. Nearly 1/4 of all women entering college now are planning careers that have traditionally been dominated by men. A recent study determined that these women are planning careers in engineering, business, medicine, and law (Comment 1979). As a result:

Women have approximately doubled their proportion of earned degrees in the sciences since 1970 and quadrupled their share of engineering bachelor's degrees. In medicine, their share of new M.D. awards has jumped from 5% in the mid-1950's to 19% in 1977; in dentistry from less than 1% to 7%; in law from 5% to 19%; in veterinary medicine from

5% to 18%; and in engineering, from less than 1% to 4.5%. ("Progress In Professional Labor Force Is Mixed Bag," Winter 1978-79, p. 31).

Education is a traditional career for women. However, education at the post-secondary level is considered a non-traditional career for women. Women are customarily teachers in elementary and secondary schools. Rarely do women become full professors, as they usually remain in the lower salaried positions at lower levels of prestige for longer periods of time than do their male counterparts (Giele 1978). A study conducted by Robinson (1973) reveals that:

. . . about half of all male faculty are in the top two ranks of professor and associate professor, while less than a quarter of all female faculty are in senior positions. (Giele 1978, p. 272)

Several barriers for women in the professions have been identified. Tangible factors such as promotions, salaries, fringe benefits, and preparation for advancement are being addressed by legislation. Subtle barriers, such as sex-stereotypic attitudes and perceptions of the woman's role in society, cannot be legislated out of existence.

A recent study comparing attitudes of college and high school students in the United States and Israel suggests that "occupational sex stereotypes need not produce sex bias in the judgement of competence in a particular field" (Mischel 1974, p. 166). This study demonstrates that in a culture where professional opportunities for women are plentiful and where women are treated as equal to men in their abilities in a variety of fields, sex bias is not as apparent as in the United States.

Perhaps the most pervasive and consistent barrier to women's quality and fair treatment is the sex-role stereotype. The perception that women are passive, dependent, illogical, emotional, incompetent, and serve society best as housewives, mothers, and sexual objects, perpetuates a myth and promotes an underutilization of human talent. These same stereotypes are what research has shown the 'mentally healthy female' to be, according to college students, mental health practitioners, and society as a whole (Brownerman et al. 1972).

Such perceptions are contradictory to the traits and attributes of those who pursue occupations within the scientific professions. Over a decade ago, Alice Rossi determined four factors that have been found to be characteristic of the scientist:

1. High intellectual ability, with particularly high scores on tests of spatial and mathematical ability.
2. Intense channeling of energy in one direction: strikingly high persistence in the pursuit of work tasks, to the point that most are happiest when working.
3. Extreme independence, showing itself in childhood as a preference for a few close friends rather than extensive or organized group membership, and preference for working on his own; in adulthood as a marked independence of relations with parents and a preference for being free of all supervision, roaming in work where his interests dictate.
4. Apartness from others, with extremely low interest in social activities, showing neither preference for an active social life nor guilt concerning his socially withdrawn tendencies. (Rossi 1965, p. 113)

The United States Government cannot legislate attitudes, but it can provide an environment, through legislation, which encourages women to enter fields of their choice with guarantees of equality. As more women exert their career options and expose their abilities, they may

gain acceptance. These women, pioneer women, transgressing stereotypes and confronting the barriers that exist in non-traditional fields play an integral part in the process of changing societal beliefs.

Sexual Harassment as a Barrier to Occupational Equality

Affirmative action legislation strives toward the major goal of occupational equality. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 addresses the issue of equal employment opportunities. More explicitly:

It shall be unlawful employment practice for an employer . . . to . . . discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment, because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. ("Sexual Harassment and Title VII," 1978, p. 1009)

The Federal Government is beginning to acknowledge sexual harassment as a perpetrator of occupational segregation, vertical stratification, and sexual discrimination in employment (Farley 1978; MacKinnon 1979).

Definition

There is no precise or legal definition of sexual harassment; it is broadly defined by MacKinnon (1979) as ". . . the unwanted imposition of sexual requirements in the context of a relationship of unequal power." Farley has expressed a more specific definition:

Sexual harassment is best described as unsolicited nonreciprocal male behavior that asserts a woman's sex role over her function as a worker. It can be any or all of the following: staring at, commenting upon, or touching a woman's body; requests for acquiescence in sexual behavior; repeated nonreciprocated propositions for dates; demands for sexual intercourse; and rape. These forms of male behavior frequently rely on superior male status in the culture, sheer numbers, or the threat of higher rank at work

to exact compliance or levy penalties for refusal. The variety of penalties include verbal denigration of a woman sexually; noncooperation from male co-workers; negative job evaluations or poor personnel recommendations; refusal of overtime; demotions; injurious transfers and reassignments of shifts, hours, or locations of work, loss of job training; impossible performance standards and outright termination of employment. (1978, pp. 14-15)

There is a dearth of literature concerning sexual harassment. A computer search demonstrated few sources of information. The descriptors that were searched were sexual harassment, occupational stereotypes, and non-traditional careers.

Relationship to Sex Roles

In Lin Farley's recent book, Sexual Shakedown: The Sexual Harassment of Women on the Job, she defines sexual harassment in terms of sex-role stereotypes (1978). MacKinnon, in her book, Sexual Harassment of Working Women, reinforces the theory that sexual harassment is an expression of sex-stereotyping:

Sexual harassment is discrimination "based on sex" within the social meaning of sex, as the concept is socially incarnated in sex roles. Persuasive and "accepted" as they are, these rigid roles have no place in the allocation of social and economic resources. If they are allowed to persist in these spheres, economic equality for women is impossible. (1979, p. 178)

The socialization of males and females in our society accounts for differential treatment among the sexes:

In our culture the importance of sex-role conditioning cannot be underestimated. In general, boys learn to be independent, to initiate action, to be task-oriented, rational, analytical. In contrast, girls are schooled to empathy, noncompetitiveness, dependency, nurturance, intuitiveness. These standards continue to provide the model for "normal" behavior and exert a powerful demand for conformity throughout adult life. (Connolly and Greenwald in Farley 1978, pp. 16-17)

Men are socialized to be dominant and aggressive in order to be "masculine" in general and in sexual relations. Women's sex roles define femininity in terms of submissiveness, passiveness, and receptiveness to the masculine initiative in general and in sexual relations. Too often, what men learn makes them "a man," is the sexual conquest of women. Women unfortunately are conditioned to be men's subordinates and to meet men's needs (MacKinnon 1979).

Relationship to Occupational Segregation

Sexual harassment of women workers functions to perpetuate occupational segregation (MacKinnon 1979). As long as occupations remain sex-typed, those who seek employment inappropriate to their sex will be considered social deviants subject to social sanctions (Epstein 1970). Until recently, sexual harassment of women has been commonplace and legally allowed, legally undefined, and a blatant expression of women's inequality. The literature demonstrates a change, in that very recently sexual harassment has been considered sexual discrimination and a violation of the law (MacKinnon 1979). Farley (1978) and MacKinnon (1979) both agree that sexual harassment of women is so pervasive in American society that it is nearly invisible. Men's control over women's survival, in the home or on the job, and over women's learning and educational advancement, has institutionalized the phenomenon. This abuse has been acceptable for men to do and unacceptable for women to confront.

Women tend to be employed in "women's" occupations. They tend to have male superiors and are paid less than males, on the average, for the same work. Occupational segregation means women perform certain

jobs because of their gender. Their sexuality is implicit, as is their appropriate sex-role. Women employed in "male" jobs are exceptions and are often seen as "tokens." Women tend to remain in low ranking positions, dependent upon men for hiring, salary, promotion, and retention. A male superior's sexual demands are backed by economic power. About 75 percent of working women were employed in women's jobs in 1970. In 1973, more than 40 percent of all women were employed in ten occupations. Women are restricted to the bottom of the socio-economic ladder in dead-end, low-skilled jobs because of their sex. Women's work is considered inferior work, work that is of low interest, repetitive, predominantly service-oriented, high contact with customers, involvement with children, and keeping things clean (Epstein 1970; Women's Bureau 1976). Sexual harassment of women can occur precisely because of women's occupational positions and job roles. Sexual harassment keeps women in such positions:

Sexual harassment at work critically undercuts women's potential for work equality as a means of social equality. Beyond survival, employment outside the home may offer women some promise of developing a range of capacities for which the nurturing, cleaning, and servant role of housework and child care provide little outlet. A job, no matter how menial, offers the potential for independence from the nuclear family, which makes women dependent upon men for life necessities. The marketplace promises limits with its impersonality. A woman may even be hired to be a man's individual servant, but he is supposed to own only her services, not herself. Even if the substance of the work is identical to that performed in the home, she is paid in a medium that she can control in exchange.
(MacKinnon 1979, p. 216)

Farley states that "the function of sexual harassment in non-traditional jobs is to keep women out; its function in the traditional

female sector is to keep women down" (1978, p. 90). Working women throughout occupations are often subject to persistent male sexual aggression. The abuses women suffer influence employment prospects and opportunities and reinforce female powerlessness and submission. Rejecting sexual advances usually ends in firing or quitting. The oversupply of female labor creates an even more insecure employment picture. Quitting or being fired from much-needed jobs holds serious consequences for women (Farley 1978). "Nearly two-thirds of all women in the labor force in 1978 were single, widowed, divorced, or separated, or had husbands whose earnings were less than \$10,000" (Women's Bureau 1979, p. 1). MacKinnon (1979) theorizes that sexual harassment may be a contributor to unemployment, absenteeism, turnover, and overall job dissatisfaction in the woman's world of work. She does not ascertain whether these rates differ by sex, but suggests careful scrutiny of these factors.

Sexual harassment is effective primarily because women hold low employment status. Unfortunately, it is probably that men perceive the potential encroachment of females into the job market, and particularly into their traditionally male-dominated occupations, as a threat. Lin Farley states four reasons men oppose females entering the labor market:

. . . that women lower their wages, that women will take their jobs, that women belong in the home, and that women have no business trying to compete with men. (1978, p. 53)

In summary, sexual harassment perpetuates lower wages, lower status jobs, and "the interlocked structure by which women have been kept sexually in thrall to men. . . ." (MacKinnon 1979, p. 174)

Consequences of Sexual Harassment

The literature suggests that women who are sexually harassed suffer consequences whether they choose to complain about the abuse or tolerate it. Victims of sexual harassment appear to react similarly to rape victims. Feelings of guilt, humiliation, anger, and degradation are common denominators (Farley 1978; MacKinnon 1979). Physiological responses are not uncommon, such as in the case of Carmita Wood:

Carmita Wood, a 44 year-old mother of five, was an administrative assistant in a laboratory at Cornell University. As her attorneys tell the story, one of her bosses made constant sexual gestures -- placing his hands on her buttocks, leaning against her while she sat at the desk, insisting that she dance with him at an office party and shoving his hands up under her sweater so far that her back was exposed. She began to develop severe pains in her arms and neck that would not respond to treatment. When she complained to higher-ups, she was told that a mature woman ought to be able to handle the situation.

Her symptoms became so severe that she left the job; the pain disappeared. She was denied unemployment because her reasons for leaving the job were "personal." Wood has since been active with Working Women United, the group helping her appeal the decision. (Rivers 1978, p. 22)

In the Working Women United Institute's (WWUI) survey of women who had been sexually harassed, 78 percent of the sample reported an emotional or physical effect. Of those surveyed, 78 percent reported feeling "angry," 23 percent "frightened," 48 percent "upset," and 7 percent "indifferent." In addition, 27 percent reported feeling "alienated," "alone," "helpless," or other. Almost 25 percent in one survey reported feeling "guilty" (MacKinnon 1979). A compilation of responses further demonstrates the consequences of sexual harassment:

As I remember all the sexual abuse and negative work experience I am left feeling sick and helpless and upset instead of angry. . . . Reinforced feelings of no control -- sense of doom. . . . I have difficulty dropping the emotion barrier I work behind when I come home from work. My husband turns into just another man. . . . Kept me in a constant state of emotional agitation and frustration; I drank a lot. . . . Soured the essential delight in the work. . . . Stomachache, migraines, cried every night, no appetite. (MacKinnon 1979, p. 47)

For those women who wish to end the discomfort of sexual harassment, their options are few and many times more severe than the harassment. A review of the literature shows some obnoxious consequences both for those who attempt to ignore the situation and for those who complain (Farley 1978). In one survey, approximately 76 percent of those who ignored the harassment found that the advances intensified (MacKinnon 1979). Women are often justified in being reluctant to report the incidents to their superiors:

Most male superiors treat it as a joke, at best it's not serious. . . . Even more frightening, the woman who speaks out against her tormentors runs the risk of suddenly being seen as crazy, a weirdo, or even worse, a loose woman. Company officials often laugh it off or consider the women now available to themselves as well. One factory worker reports: "I went to the personnel manager with a complaint that two men were propositioning me. He promised to take immediate action. When I got up to leave, he grabbed my breast and said, 'Be nice to me and I'll take care of you.' " (In MacKinnon 1979, p. 49)

Ms. Farley's (1978) book is an anthology of interviews with a common thread of devastating consequences for most of the women involved. The consequences for women reporting abuses to superiors include transfer, demotions, salary cuts, and job losses, to mention but a few. All other literature reviewed exposes the same results; that

until recently, most women had little recourse but to quit their jobs. Leaving a job because of sexual harassment usually promises a poor letter of recommendation for future employment. As mentioned previously, some states are providing unemployment compensation for people who leave jobs because of sexual harassment. For those women who have chosen to file complaints under Title VII legislation, the results have generally been favorable.

Prevalence

Sexual harassment is a problem that is broad in scope. Until 1976, when Working Women United coined the term "sexual harassment," there was no expression to describe the phenomenon (MacKinnon 1979). If sexual harassment is both a manifestation of sex-role stereotyping and a promoter of occupational segregation, then it can be expected to be ubiquitous:

Sexual harassment is much too widespread to be viewed as random rather than representative of male mistreatment of working women. It results in a pattern of female job loss. Sexual harassment accordingly has a marked negative influence on women's labor-market behavior. (Farley 1978, p. 45)

Sexual harassment is a common occurrence throughout the world of work. The pervasiveness of this phenomenon is being studied primarily through the use of surveys. To date, several surveys have revealed an approximation of the presence of these abuses. The first survey concerning sexual harassment was distributed by the Women's Section of the Human Affairs Program at Cornell University, in May of 1975. Of the 155 responses, 70 percent had personally experienced some form of sexual harassment. Fifty-six percent of these reported physical harassment.

Harassment was defined as ". . .any repeated and unwanted sexual comments, looks, suggestions or physical contact that you find objectionable or offensive and causes you discomfort on your job" (Farley 1978, p. 20).

Over 9,000 women responded to a 1976 Redbook magazine questionnaire concerning sexual harassment. Approximately 88 percent had experienced some form of sexual harassment, and 48 percent knew of job loss due to harassment (Alliance Against Sexual Coercion [AASC] 1979). The Redbook survey concluded "the problem is not epidemic--it is pandemic--an everyday, everywhere occurrence" (Rivers 1978, p. 22). A naval officer used the Redbook questionnaire on a sample of women on a naval base and in a nearby town, and 81 percent reported experiencing "employment-related sexual harassment in some form" (MacKinnon 1979, p. 27).

An informal survey conducted at the United Nations of 875 women and men demonstrated that 50 percent of the women and 31 percent of the men either experienced or were aware of experiences of sexual harassment. Only 1/3 of those women who experienced the abuse reported it (MacKinnon 1979). The Rape Information and Counseling Service in Springfield, Illinois, has established a task force to survey approximately 8,000 women workers in that area. The dual purpose of the survey is to "provide insight into the manifestations and effects of sexual harassment, and to raise the consciousness of women in this area" (Sexuality Today, 1979, p. 3).

A House of Representatives subcommittee was established to investigate sexual harassment of federally employed women ("Sexual Advances" 1979).

The chairperson of the committee, Representative James Hanley, stated that an investigation has shown that sexual harassment is "everywhere" in the federal government ("Sexual Advances Charged," 1979). A recent airing of the MacNeil/Lehrer Report was devoted to the issue of sexual harassment:

. . . an unofficial questionnaire triggered the official concern here in Washington over sexual harassment. It was a survey done among employees of one federal agency, the Department of Housing and Urban Development. One hundred and sixty-three women claimed pay raises at HUD hinged on sexual favors. Thirty percent of the women said they went along, and a majority of those were in fact rewarded with more pay. From that basic revelation came the Congressional subcommittee hearings. Today was the final day of testimony, and officials of several agencies testified. Among other things, there was a pledge to make a fuller, more scientific survey to determine the extent of the problem in the federal government as a whole, and to set up training for employees and supervisors on how to deal with it. One of the most vexing aspects of the problem to emerge from the hearings has been the problem of defining what sexual harassment actually is. (Bluff 1979)

On that same television program, Eleanor Holmes Norton of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in reference to the size and solution of the problem stated:

. . . it is obviously large, depending your sic definition. I think that the courts have settled the questions of whether it is a problem, short of some kind of assault . . . they've made it clear and defined the conduct; to be sure, you have to prove it, but it's pretty clear that conduct short of the extreme kind of conduct you're talking about has by the courts already been labeled as a violation of the statute. . . . I want to emphasize that we would prefer that this problem not be dealt with in the remedial process through the courts. I have taken the position that I believe that there is only one real cure for this problem, and that is to prevent it . . . we are going to be dealing with this problem through requiring that agencies in their affirmative action plans make it clear that this is a violation of the law and delineate steps to bring it

to people's attention. We believe that if most men realized that this was considered a violation of the law, that the employer will in fact look upon it as such. . . . (Bluff 1979).

The prevalence of sexual harassment has necessitated the formation of an organizational structure to deal with the many aspects of the problem. The Working Women United Institute (WWUI) is a New York city based national research center which focuses on sexual harassment of working women. The WWUI is preparing a national survey on sexual harassment, as well as providing information, referrals, workshops, and legal and professional counseling. The WWUI has counseled over 600 women complaining of sexual harassment (Bluff 1979).

Several state legislatures are beginning the process of enacting laws concerning sexual harassment in employment. In February, 1978, a bill concerning sexual harassment became part of Wisconsin state law. The bill prohibits sexual harassment in employment and provides for unemployment compensation for people who quit their jobs because of sexual harassment (Ms. 1978). Both New York and California have awarded claimants unemployment compensation when they were forced to leave their jobs because of sexual harassment (Farley 1978). In fact, lawsuits have been filed and compensation awarded for back pay and attorney's fees in sexual harassment cases. Several cases have been filed under Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which prohibits sex discrimination in employment.

Review of Title VII Cases

Approximately 37 women have filed state or federal lawsuits asserting that they were sexually harassed in their workplaces (Bluff 1979). In five of the cases filed under Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, the courts did not agree that sexual harassment was sexual discrimination under the law:

In five of the seven cases which have created the substantive law in this area, the district courts initially held that a claim alleging sexual harassment does not state a cause of action under Title VII. Three of the district court decisions were reversed on appeal on three different interpretations of the statute. ("Sexual Harassment and Title VII," 1978, pp. 1010-1011)

Sexual Harassment as Sex Discrimination

In *Williams v. Saxbe*, 1976, Diane Williams alleged that she was terminated from her job with the Department of Justice because she refused her superior's sexual advances. She was fired from her job in 1972 on 25 minutes notice, several days after filing a sex discrimination complaint against her supervisor. The court found sexual harassment to be sexual discrimination under Title VII (Seymour 1979). The rationale for the court's ruling was briefly explained as follows:

The conduct of the plaintiff's supervisor created an artificial barrier to employment which was placed before one gender and not the other, despite the fact that both genders were similarly situated. ("Sexual Harassment and Title VII," 1978, p. 1012)

The Williams' case caused a turning point in the rulings of cases in which women allege sexual harassment at the workplace. The ruling in the Williams' case was followed by reversals in two previous sexual

harassment cases. The reversal of the Tomkins v. Public Service Electric and Gas Company (1976) demonstrated that the company or corporation can be held liable for the actions of its supervisory personnel unless it takes prompt action to remedy the situation. The Tomkins case was that of a single incident of sexual harassment followed by repercussions for Ms. Tomkins. The company took no action on the plaintiff's complaints. The following is a brief account of the situation as it occurred:

Adrienne Tomkins, a secretary, was invited to lunch by her boss, ostensibly to discuss his recommendation for her promotion. When it became apparent that work was not going to be discussed, Tomkins said she wished to return to work. By threats of retaliation against her as an employee, threats of physical force, and finally exercise of physical restraint, her boss kept her at the bar against her will for several hours. He expressed a desire to have sexual relations with her, saying it was necessary to their satisfactory working relationship. When she tried to leave, he physically prevented her. . . . Her boss grabbed her and kissed her on the mouth.

. . . Tomkins requested and was promised a transfer to a comparable position. . . . She temporarily took an inferior position. Over a period of months, her new superior threatened demotions, charged that she was incapable of holding the position, pressured her to take a salary cut, and solicited and gathered unfavorable material about her and had it placed in her personnel file. She was twice put on disciplinary lay-off without just cause and was finally terminated. Her complaints to the company . . . were not investigated. (MacKinnon 1979, pp. 66-70)

The seven cases decided to date hold most of their components in common. In each case, there were explicit demands by the woman's immediate supervisor for sexual relations. In each case there were allegations of verbal abuse, sexual comments, reprimands, and physical force.

"Each employment situation worsened significantly after the alleged harassment" ("Sexual Harassment and Title VII," 1978, p. 1017).

Employer Responsibility

In *Garber v. Saxon Business Products* (1977), Ms. Garber refused to partake in sexual relations with her supervisor and was thus refused a promised raise and promotion. In 1977, the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals found that sexual advances by supervisory personnel "allege an employer policy or acquiescence in practice of female employees to submit to sexual advances of their male supervisors in violation of Title VII" (MacKinnon 1979, p. 69).

In the case of *Heelan v. Johns-Manville Corporation* (1978), significant strides were gained in defining the employer's responsibility in cases of sexual harassment. This was the first case of sexual harassment to go to trial. Ms. Heelan was fired for refusing sexual relations with her supervisor. The company did nothing to investigate or rectify the situation despite Ms. Heelan's complaints. Although there was no established procedure for complaints of sexual harassment, Ms. Heelan confided in several co-workers and the administrative assistant to the president. As a result:

After notice of the termination, she also complained to the executive vice president, who telephoned the perpetrator. "Consigli denied any wrongdoing and the matter was dropped." The court in essence found the company's investigation of the problem inadequate to its notice of it. The depth and scope of the inquiry conducted by the company, which amounted to asking the perpetrator whether he did it or not, were held insufficiently thorough to satisfy its Title VII obligation. The judge concluded that "if the employer fails to respond to a valid complaint, it

effectively condones illegal acts." Mary Heelan recovered damages in the form of back pay and lost employment benefits, as well as attorneys' fees. (MacKinnon 1979, p. 77)

It is now clear that employers have a responsibility to investigate complaints of sexual harassment. The literature demonstrates that if an employee is terminated or continually harassed for refusing to cooperate in sexual relations with her supervisor, the employer may be held liable, especially if there is no reporting or complaint procedure. The employer may also be held liable if a complaint is filed and the incident is not fully investigated. No case has found its way to the Supreme Court. If, however, the findings of the lower courts are ultimately upheld by the Supreme Court, more women are likely to bring lawsuits against their harassers and/or employers, as the most effective recourse to sexual harassment (Tillar 1979).

Governmental Response

An employee of the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) conducted an informal survey concerning sexual harassment of federal employees and made the results public. The Subcommittee on Investigations of the Committee on Post Office and Civil Service was prompted to conduct an investigation into the matter. Hearings were held before the subcommittee during October and November of 1979 (Women in Action 1980). As a result of these hearings, the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) has distributed an official policy statement to all federal agencies and departments condemning acts of sexual harassment. It is the responsibility of the OPM to insure that employees work in an environment

that is free from discrimination. The OPM will also be incorporating a training module into supervisory, managerial, and personnel courses. They will attempt to reach approximately 50,000 employees annually. All agencies of the federal government will receive training modules (Women in Action 1980).

Chairwoman Ruth Prokop testified before the U.S. House of Representatives Subcommittee on Investigations that the Merit Systems Protection Board proposes a survey of federal employees concerning sexual harassment. The survey addresses the following issues:

The degree to which sexual harassment is occurring within the Federal workplace, its manifestations and frequency;

Whether the victims (or perpetrators) of sexual harassment are found in disproportionate numbers within certain agencies, job classifications, geographic locations, racial categories, age brackets, educational levels, grade levels, etc.;

What kinds of behavior are perceived to constitute sexual harassment and whether the attitudes of men and women differ in this respect;

What forms of expressed or implied leverage have been used by harassers to reward or punish their victims;

Whether victims of sexual harassment are unaware of available remedies and whether they have any confidence in them;

The impact of sexual harassment on its victims in terms of job turnover, work performance, their physical or emotional condition, and their financial or career well-being; and,

The effect of sexual harassment on the morale or productivity of the immediate work group. (Women in Action 1980, p. 3)

Incidents of sexual harassment can be reported through several channels. These channels vary according to the employing agency. The results of the survey will be used to formally define sexual harassment.

When the issue is defined, it will be used in agency evaluations. Specific questions concerning sexual harassment will be used in interviews by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission with employees, supervisors, and managers (Women in Action 1980).

Recent developments. The Center for the Studies of Women in Educational Management Systems is presently conducting a study of women professionals in the higher education system of Florida. The study:

. . . is being conducted to assess the nature and potential career implications of socio-sexual interactions between professional men and women in the State of Florida. (Myers 1980, p. 1)

The Pentagon has found it necessary to issue orders to commanders of the Armed Forces because of sexual harassment complaints. The policy states that sexual harassment will not be tolerated and that offenders should be "swiftly and fairly" disciplined (Boodman 1980).

Institutional Sexism

Background

The literature review up to this point demonstrates that occupational stereotypes, occupational segregation, and vertical stratification are manifestations of sex-role stereotyping. The institution of higher education is not immune from such discriminatory attitudes and behaviors (Epstein 1970; Feldman 1974; Comment 1979).

Sexism is defined by the Office of Education, Health, and Welfare as:

The collection of attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors which result from the assumption that one sex is superior. (Federal Register 1975, No. 155)

Inherent in this definition is the assumption that people of the same sex have predictable interests and abilities. The definition continues to explain:

In the context of schools, the term refers to the collection of structures, policies, practices, and activities that overtly or covertly prescribe the development of girls and boys and prepare them for traditional sex-roles. (Federal Register 1975, No. 155)

An extensive study by Feldman conducted for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education in 1973 reinforces the assumption that sexism exists in the institution of higher education. This report focuses on the inequities facing women faculty and female graduate students. In addition to the underrepresentation of faculty and graduate students, the Commission's report investigates discriminatory attitudes toward women. Feldman's report acknowledges that sexism exists in the college environment:

A recurring theme is that many of the difficulties that academic women face may be largely the result of a tradition of antifemale discriminatory behavior within academia.

Antifemale attitudes are evident in subtle as well as unsubtle ways. (1974, p. 9)

As is the case in the world of work, academic disciplines are viewed as masculine or feminine:

We thus see an occupational sorting pattern that is strongly sex-related. This is true not only in the occupation system but within higher education as well. Obviously, the two are related, but there has been little systematic or empirical study of the characteristics of "masculine" or "feminine" academic disciplines. The education of women in America has been marked by a tradition that certain disciplines are more proper for women than others. (Feldman 1974, p. 38)

The Carnegie Commission's study did not determine a causal relationship between the gender students perceive appropriate and the enrollment in various areas of study. It was determined that certain fields are viewed as feminine and others are masculine and that undergraduates are aware of the distinction. The undergraduate students studied reflected perceptions that were accurate in terms of actual female and male enrollment patterns. There was no determination or investigation as to whether females would be reluctant to enter fields or pursue studies in areas that are non-traditional for their sex.

Profile of Undergraduate Women Students

Bachelor's level. In 1977, women accounted for 46.2 percent of the recipients of bachelor's degrees in the United States. Women continue to predominate fields in which they have customarily held a majority: foreign languages, health professions, home economics, letters, and library science. Since 1974, psychology has been predominantly a female field with 50.5 percent of the degree recipients being female. In 1977, this percentage grew to 56.7 percent (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES] 1979).

Women have been making the greatest gains in fields which have traditionally been dominated by males. Since 1971, women have shown a decrease or no change in the numbers of degrees awarded in traditional women's fields:

In 1971, there were eight fields in which women accounted for less than 20 percent of the bachelor's degrees awarded. These were: agriculture and natural resources, architecture and environmental design, business and management, computer and information sciences, engineering, law, military science,

and physical sciences. In 1977, the women's percentages had risen to above 20 for all except two of these fields. The exceptions were engineering and military science. (NCES 1979, pp. 3, 5).

Education is the most popular field for women. However, in 1971, education accounted for 36 percent of all bachelor's degrees awarded to women, while in 1977 it accounted for only 25 percent (NCES 1979). In contrast to the field of education, women in the field of engineering comprised about 11 percent of the Fall 1977 entering class (NCES 1979).

The six top ranking fields for women accounted for about 79 percent of womens' degrees in 1971, and 67 percent in 1977. This trend indicates a diversification in the degree fields being pursued by women. The corresponding figure for men in 1977 was 66.5 percent. This demonstrates that "men and women are essentially equal with regard to their diversification across fields of study" (NCES 1979, p. 6).

Master's level. Women as graduate students on the master's level comprise a majority in most major areas of study. Women master's degree recipients in 1971 were predominant in six fields: education, foreign languages, health professions, home economics, letters, and library science. In 1977, women still received the majority of master's degrees in those six fields plus fine and applied arts (NCES 1979).

All of these fields have traditionally been regarded as women's fields. With the exception of health professions, none of them would appear to offer good prospects for employment today. (NCES 1979, p. 11).

Women were awarded 47.1 percent of all master's degrees in 1977. This is an increase from 40.1 percent in 1971. In fact, the percentage

of women receiving master's degrees in 1977 decreased in home economics, library science, and public affairs and services (NCES 1979). The field of education accounted for over half of the master's degrees awarded to women in both 1971 and 1977. "Thus, women are still highly concentrated in the education field in spite of a relatively poor job market for teachers" (NCES 1979, p. 12).

Doctoral level. Women were awarded 14.3 percent of all doctoral degrees in 1971 and 24.3 percent of all doctoral degrees in 1977. This may be misleading in that there was a decrease in the actual number of doctoral degrees awarded to women. In 1971, 27,534 doctoral degrees were awarded to women, whereas in 1977, only 25,150 doctoral degrees were awarded to women (NCES 1979). Although women represent about 25 percent of the doctoral degree recipients, they account for about half of all bachelor's and master's degree recipients. Further investigation into the data demonstrates that women are making gains in awards of doctoral degrees primarily in women's fields:

The 1971 data indicate that women predominated in only one field: home economics, where they accounted for 61 percent of the doctoral degrees. The 1977 data show the women predominating in three fields: foreign languages (51.5 percent); home economics (77.0 percent); and library science (53.3 percent). All of these are generally regarded as women's fields and, it might be noted, these are very small fields in terms of number of degrees awarded. The three fields together accounted for only 987 doctoral degrees in 1977 (men and women combined), out of a grand total of 33,244 degrees. (NCES 1979, p. 15)

In terms of percentage representation, women are making their greatest gains in fields which are traditionally women's fields. In

contrast to the bachelor's and master's levels, women at the doctoral level are making the smallest gains in non-traditional fields.

It may be conjectured that the complex sociocultural forces which are influencing women to enter nontraditional fields of study have not been operating long enough to be manifest at the highest degree levels. If this is so, then the trends already observed at the bachelor's and master's degree levels may soon be evident at the doctoral degree level. (NCES 1979, p. 17)

Once again, education remains the most popular field for both men and women degree recipients. Education accounted for 1/3 of all women's doctoral degrees in 1977. Psychology was the second most popular field for women, accounting for 12.2 percent of the doctoral degrees awarded to women. Letters (10.4 percent) and social sciences (10.3 percent) were the only other fields accounting for more than 10 percent of women doctorates (NCES 1979). Approximately 80 percent of all doctoral degrees awarded to women were in the same six fields as the master's degrees: education, psychology, letters, social sciences, biological sciences, and foreign languages (NCES 1979).

First Professional Degree Level

The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) defines the first professional degree as a degree which meets the following criteria:

- (1) it signifies completion of the academic requirements to begin practice in the profession;
- (2) it is based on a program which requires at least two years of college work prior to entrance;
- and (3) a total of at least 6 academic years of college work is required to complete the degree program, including prior required college work plus the length of the professional curriculum itself. (1979, p. 17)

The data demonstrates modest gains in representation of women among first professional degree recipients from 1971 to 1977. Women are most highly represented in pharmacy (27.5 percent); veterinary medicine (22.8 percent); law (22.5 percent); and medicine (19.2 percent). Women remain a noticeable minority in all of the professional fields (NCES 1979).

Women's largest gains were in the professional fields of veterinary medicine where they increased by 15 percent and medicine where they increased the number of degrees by 10 percent from 1972 to 1977. Law is the most popular professional degree, accounting for 63.9 percent of all women's first professional degrees in 1977. Although medicine is the second most popular degree for women, there was a 12 percent decline in the number of degrees awarded to women from 1971 to 1977. The top three professional degrees for both sexes are law, medicine, and theology:

Law and medicine account for 71.4 percent of the men's first professional degrees. The corresponding value for women was 85.3 percent. Thus, it appears that men are somewhat more diversified than women in the choice of field of professional training. (NCES 1979, p. 24)

A Profile of Professional Women in Academia

Occupational segregation and stereotyping are realities in every occupation and profession in America (Epstein 1970). Education is a traditional profession for women at the elementary and secondary levels. However, careers in higher education are non-traditional for women. Higher education is a male-dominated community where discrimination of

academic women remains predominant. In fact, women faculty have yet to attain equity in salaries, in ranks, in tenure status, and in representation in the university community (Clark 1977; Feldman 1974; Smith and Borgers 1974; Comment 1979). In 1973, female university instructors earned \$3,458 less than the national average of male instructors (Smith and Borgers 1974). Anti-discrimination legislation and affirmative action policies do not appear to be factors causing great strides towards equality for women faculty in higher education:

In 1879 and 1939, women held 40 percent and 30 percent of faculty jobs respectively; in 1974 women represented only 18-20 percent. . . . Even these statistics do not reflect the instability of many female appointments that are part-time, temporary, or non-tenure tract. Two-thirds of male faculty are tenured, whereas only one-third of female faculty have acquired that status or security. . . . (Clark 1977, p. 107).

In 1974, only 12 percent of all female faculty in American universities were full professors. The greatest percentage of women were ranked as assistant professors (35%). Almost 68 percent held the rank of assistant professor, instructor, or lecturer (Clark 1977). Progress for women in higher education has occurred at a less than desirable pace:

Employment of women in higher education has grown slowly over the 1970's, as college enrollments began to level off, but women's progress up the academic ladder still lags far behind that of men. For example, among academically employed Ph.D.'s between 1970 and 1974, 4.4% of the men, but only 2% of the women had reached the rank of professor. Among men, 29.5% are associate professors, but less than 18% of the women have reached this rank. At the bottom of the academic ladder, only 10.8% of the men who earned their Ph.D. in those five years

are instructors or lecturers, but 18.2% of the women still hold this non-tenure rank. ("Progress In Professional Labor Force Is Mixed Bag," 1978/79, pp. 30-31)

Attitudes Affecting Women in Academia

Professional Women

Academic women also experience a form of discrimination in the social network of the higher education institution. Women are often excluded from informal informational networks, such as luncheons, after hours socials, committees, and research projects (Clark 1977). Exclusion from such networks is difficult to measure, however the literature, though lacking empirical evidence of this form of sexism, states its existence (Simon, Clark, and Galway 1967).

In a 1977 conference on Women in Scientific Research, women met to discuss barriers and obstacles to obtaining their degrees and beginning their professional careers. These women testified that in order to attain the respect and recognition for their achievements they must "do better" than their male colleagues because they "are not taken seriously." In addition, they stated that affirmative action programs have not eliminated the barriers of discriminatory college admissions and recruitment policies in hiring. A sample of 60 males was matched to the 60 females at the conference for educational background and experience. These 120 people completed questionnaires concerning their observations of the treatment of women in higher education. The observations included distinct differences in the way women were treated in regard to the "mentor" system, role models, and the general feeling of inequality with

their male colleagues (Science News 1977). The professional women in this study also cited these specific barriers to equality:

. . . difficulties in gaining tenure because of the "men's club" ambience in science departments, which works to exclude women on the basis that they are less-qualified newcomers to the research community. This attitude also seems to carry over to the "same old boys" who referee journal articles (read them to see if their research content warrants publication) and who referee grant proposals to funding institutions. . . . (Science News 1977, p. 279)

A recent study by Theodore (1979) investigated the lack of progress in overcoming sex discrimination in the last decade. She based her conclusions on 65 case studies and over 500 responses to a questionnaire concerning discrimination in higher education. Theodore found that wide differences exist in salaries of male and female faculty members and that women remain clustered in the bottom ranks in non-track tenured positions. She concluded that 1979 is no different than 1970 with respect to fighting sex discrimination (Comment 1979). Theodore's investigation into the lack of success of women's protests and challenges of their institutions on the grounds of sex discrimination paints a sordid picture:

. . . the women are treated as criminals, and they take incredible risks with their careers. Even after their cases are resolved, whether favorably or unfavorably, they may find themselves black-listed. . . . Regardless of whether or not the women tried to work within the system, enlisted the help of state and federal compliance agencies, or sought redress through the courts, they found strong resistance by administrators who lied, deceived, stalled, concealed evidence, and distorted facts; who manipulated and divided people; who changed the rules without accountability to appropriate faculty bodies; who punished, harassed, and

otherwise tried to get rid of protesting women through such measures as tampering with files, writing negative recommendations, demeaning and demoting women, and even punishing their husbands. (Comment 1979, p. 7)

In response to the issues expressed in Theodore's presentation, a representative of the American Council on Education noted that equality for women is frustrated by the structure of the higher education community. "So much of academic life is based on tradition, which, in most cases, is male-oriented and male-dominated" (Comment 1979, p. 7).

Professional Women's Aspirations

In a Carnegie Commission study, the data revealed that females who aspire to university careers, as opposed to junior college teaching, are more qualified than their male counterparts. Those women who are not more qualified than males, aspire to junior college teaching. Men aspire to university careers regardless of their qualifications (Feldman 1974). The same study indicated that:

Women who teach within higher education are less likely to aspire toward (and end up in) the more prestigious academic positions, although these lower aspirations do not appear to be based on inability or the lack of prerequisites. (Feldman 1974, p. 157)

Women in Administration

Women are noticeably missing from the administrative positions in higher education:

. . . academic women constitute a different population, statistically speaking, from academic men. In the work of academic women, career patterns develop along different lines. Women tend to serve in institutions which emphasize different functions,

and they themselves are attracted to different kinds of functions. Further, they tend to be in areas which are not in strategic positions in the academic market place and which are not as productive as the areas that attract men. (J. Bernard in Barnett and Baruch 1978, p. 15)

The Florida Education Directory for 1978-79 demonstrates the under-representation of women in administrative positions in higher education. In the public community colleges in the State of Florida, 14 percent of the administrators are female; in the state university system, 14 percent of the administrators are women; in the private accredited colleges, 13 percent of the administrators are women. In the entire system of postsecondary education, private and public, there is one female president, three vice presidents, and 20 deans (Soldwedel 1980).

Attitudes Toward Female Graduate Students

Feldman's findings in reference to female graduate students demonstrates that professors in male-dominated fields are viewed as taking women less seriously. Women were more sensitive to a professor's attitudes towards them and could be expected to report that professors "don't take female students seriously." This assumption was borne out by the finding that 50 percent of the females in political science and sociology agreed with this item and only 20 percent of the male students agreed (Feldman 1974, p. 69).

In response to an item concerned with the beliefs of the dedication of female graduate students, approximately 25 percent of the faculty and

graduate students agreed that female graduate students were less dedicated than males. Females were less likely to agree with this item; however, male faculty and graduate students tended to agree. This finding demonstrates that this attitude is common regardless of generational differences (Feldman 1974). Women students in male-dominated fields are perceived as less dedicated than male students:

The overall percentage of those who agree that females are not as dedicated is a good predictor of the feminine enrollment in a field. In general, fields in which all incumbents view females as not as dedicated are male-dominated or have a masculine imagery. Where women are a minority, there is usually more prejudice against them. (Feldman 1974, p. 71)

Faculty may tend to establish apprentice-like relationships with fewer female students if they perceive these students as less dedicated than their male peers. Relationships with professors in some fields of study are an important factor in a graduate student's academic career:

From the standpoint of professional socialization, it is advantageous for graduate students to have a collegial or an apprenticeship relationship with their major professors. A close working relationship with a professor should facilitate research and aid the building of a professional self-image. . . . But women are much less likely to have the benefits of a close working relationship. (Feldman 1974, pp. 119-120)

The Carnegie Commission study explores the positive academic effects that a close relationship with a professor provides for students. Of those students in a close apprentice-like collegial relationship with a professor, approximately 44 percent of the male and 42 percent of the female students had published an article. This is in contrast

to students who had an employer-employee or no-contact relationship with a professor. Only 24 percent of the female students in this type of relationship had published (Feldman 1974).

Close relationships with professors appeared to lessen female students' insecurity. Approximately 20 percent of the females with a close relationship to a professor felt that inability may cause them to drop out of graduate school. However, 35 percent of the females with an employee, student, or no-contact relationship felt that their inability may cause them to drop out of graduate school. Although female students generally had higher GPA's in undergraduate and graduate school, fewer women than men were inclined to rate themselves as the best students in their department. Females also tended to view themselves as students rather than scholars or scientists. Males were inclined to view themselves as scholars or scientists (Feldman 1974). Women students attitudes towards themselves may have had an effect on how they were perceived by others:

Even if they are equal in ability, women may fail to obtain the rewards that men obtain simply because they lack the same dedication. If women are for some reason perceived as less dedicated, however, and therefore are treated as such, they may well lower their academic commitment. Assuming a lower level of commitment, faculty members may pay less attention to their female students, who then become less successful. The prophecy becomes self-fulfilling. (Feldman 1974, p. 12)

Attitudes Toward Women Pursuing Non-Traditional Fields of Study

Observations of the Carnegie Commission study included the following:

We have previously demonstrated that male-dominated fields are the most likely to appear antifemale. Logic might dictate that women would be best off in fields that they numerically dominate. This proves not to be the case. In female-majority fields, men have higher aspirations than women and are less affected by career choice factors. In female-dominated fields, the men, not the women, are the most visible. And since tradition accords the better jobs to men, they can aspire toward and end up in the better positions. (Feldman 1974, pp. 79-80)

A Stanford University study focused on the problems facing women students in the schools of law, medicine, and business. Women who used the counseling services expressed concerns that they felt emanated from a male-dominated, unsupportive, academic environment. These concerns prompted further study. A questionnaire was sent to women in the professional schools of law, medicine, and business. The focus of the study was to identify problems facing women in these fields. Female students felt concern over the lack of support by faculty, lack of role models, exclusion from the "old boy network," and experiences of isolation from their male-dominated peer group (Kaplan and Pao 1977).

A study of Cornell University engineering students demonstrated that 2/3 of the female students who transferred out of the department did so because they felt "restricted by the curriculum and atmosphere of the school." This study also suggested that there was no significant difference in academic achievement or in the total attrition rate of male and female students (Gardner 1976, p. 237). In contrast, a study

of female engineering students at Minnesota's Institute of Technology (IT), showed different attrition rates. In this study, the academic achievement level of female engineering students accounted for about 40 percent of the attrition rate. The attrition rate for females at IT was 66 percent compared to 27 percent at Cornell (Davis 1975 in Gardner 1976). Gardner (1976) stated that the differences in attrition rates between the two schools appears to have been a function of support. Davis (1975) also implied that support from a significant source was an important factor effecting the success of female students. Support at Cornell was in the form of discussion groups, special laboratory courses, and pairing of women in the dormitories (Gardner 1976).

In Cartwright's (1972) study of female medical students, she found that "encouragement from others" was the most frequently mentioned motive for attending medical school. Women in medicine did not appear to receive encouragement once they were in medical school. A recent report by Bourne (1978) suggested that women students appeared to be classified into two groups by the males in their environment. Either they were defined as "sexual" or "asexual/professional." Bourne provided the following examples of behaviors exhibited by males towards their female peers:

1. He expresses disbelief that such an attractive woman could be doing this kind of work. Translation: she is getting high marks on looks at the outset and thus has a lot to lose if she doesn't play the game.
2. He shows dismay that she will not be able to do the work. Translation: he will think her tough and unfeminine if she proves to be able to do the work.

3. He tells her and others, when she can overhear, that she is only doing well because men are doing special favors for her because of her looks. This makes her think maybe she wouldn't be doing as well if men stopped defining her as sexy. It also makes her feel that maybe there is not much point in becoming a star doctor because nobody would believe her anyway.
4. He calls attention to her sex and the sexual aspect of the relationship frequently, often in a teasing way. Translation: remember why I am paying attention to you.
5. He tries to make it with her. This settles the ambiguity once and for all. Consent puts her clearly in the female/sexy category. Refusal proves she is cold and unyielding and, thus, asexual. (Comment 1978, p. 1)

Shapiro (1978) of the Harvard Medical School published "A Survival Guide" for victims of "nonactionable sex discrimination." The one-page chart addresses various categories of discrimination which are components of what is now defined as sexual harassment.

Sexual Harassment of Female Students

Sexual harassment of students by instructors includes various behaviors that can be best described on a continuum. On one end of the continuum there exist subtleties. These are seemingly the least harmful both psychologically and physically, yet possibly the most pervasive. Sexist jokes and/or derogatory remarks about women as a group are hurtful and place limitations on women as would any stereotype (Benson and Thomson 1979).

To date, the only study conducted concerning sexual harassment of students on campus was directed by Benson in 1977 at the University of California, Berkeley (Benson and Thomson 1979). The purpose of the study was to obtain information regarding students' perceptions of the

seriousness of the problem of sexual harassment. In addition, the study was conducted to gain insight into the general extent of the problem on the Berkeley campus. Approximately 1/3 of the 269 respondents reported knowing someone who was sexually harassed. About 20 percent of the respondents indicated that they themselves had been sexually harassed by at least one professor. Seventy-three percent of the respondents reported that they considered sexual harassment either a "very serious" or "somewhat serious" problem. Those students with personal experience or awareness of an incident of harassment tended to perceive that it occurred frequently.

Benson conducted interviews with 50 of the women who reported sexual harassment. The most frequently occurring abuses reported were sexual overtures, comments concerning physical appearance, inappropriate physical contact, and general expressions of sexual interest toward the student. Explicit propositions offering academic reward in return for sexual "favors" were indicated by some of the women interviewed. It was also indicated that punishment was a possible consequence of non-compliance. In still fewer cases, there were instances of overt physical violation:

I needed help with an assignment so I went to the professor's office hours. He was staring at my breasts. . . . It made me uncomfortable and confused. . . . He reached over, unbuttoned my blouse and started fondling my breasts. . . . (Benson and Thomson 1979, p. 11)

However, this type of abuse was atypical, in that most professors approached the students in a more gradual way with less of a demand for immediate sexual obligation. In fact, one faculty member responding to

the original survey reported that some of his colleagues use false praises of women students' work to render them vulnerable to sexual advances in the future (Benson and Thomson 1979).

Pope, Levenson, and Schover (1979) conducted a study regarding sexual activity and graduate education in psychology. The researchers mailed 1,000 questionnaires to the American Psychological Association, Division 29 (psychotherapy) members. Respondents were asked whether they had experienced sexual contact with psychology department teachers, clinical supervisors, and/or administrators. In addition, they were asked whether, as teachers, clinical supervisors, and/or administrators, they had sexual contact with their students. Sexual contact was defined as intercourse or genital stimulation. The respondents were asked if they believed such sexual contact was beneficial to the parties involved. The results of this study indicated that there was a greater likelihood of experiencing sexual contact with an educator while earning a degree, if the degree was earned within the last six years. Approximately 25 percent of the female respondents who earned their degrees in the last six years experienced sex with their educators. Seventy-five percent of those females who had sex as a student did so with a teacher and 47 percent had done so with clinical supervisors. Females reported significantly more sexual contact as students while males reported greater incidence of sexual contact as psychologists with their students and clients. "Twelve percent of the psychology teachers, four percent of the supervisors, and three percent of the administrators reported sexual contact with their students" (Pope et al. 1979, p. 687). Only two percent of the respondents believed that such contact was beneficial to either or both parties (Pope et al. 1979).

In summary, the research suggested that sexual contact occurred between a substantial number of male educators and female students. Respondents did not feel that the experience was beneficial for either party; yet the study did suggest that this behavior was rapidly increasing. The authors called for research into "the incidence of student-teacher sexual contact in undergraduate education or the graduate programs of other academic disciplines" (Pope et al. 1979, p. 687). They expressed the belief that the tendency for sexual activity to occur between male educators and female students may be a result of discrimination. The ratio of male to female faculty in a typical professional program was nine to one, and therefore, female students would be in a higher risk situation than their male counterparts. Finally, the authors concluded:

Psychologists can scarcely afford continuing their selective inattention to these issues. The subject of sexual contact between educators and students should be brought out of the closet and aired in free, open-minded, and serious discussion. Because the profession, though tending to hold an idealized view of itself, is forced to recruit its members from the human race, these discussions will likely be characterized not only by informed wisdom and altruism, but also by anxiety, conflicts, and occasional low self-disclosure. . . . Given the profession's public silence toward the issues thus far, it may be reasonable to assume that many psychologists find it difficult to acknowledge their attraction to or eagerness of sexual relations with their students, let alone that they have considered acting or have already acted on this attraction or eagerness. (Pope et al. 1979, p. 688)

It should be noted that the above-mentioned study does not address the issue of sexual harassment per se, it does however, imply that student-teacher sexual contact is somewhat analagous to doctor-patient

sex, and that is unethical. Dr. Pope, senior author of the study of psychology students and educators, comments on the findings of his research:

For a professor to have an affair with a student is unethical because the teacher's job is to evaluate the student's academic performance. It would make no difference who initiates the relationship. ("Survey Lends Sex, Psych Profs," 1979)

Provost Miller of Stanford University states:

Individuals who might otherwise be regarded as free to consent may feel psychologically coerced. Just because individuals can say "yes" or "no" doesn't mean that they do not feel pressure. (Stanford University News Service 1978, p. 1)

Prevalence of Sexual Harassment of Women Students

The University of Miami indicates that 40 percent of its women students have encountered some form of sexual harassment on campus (Miami Herald 1978). This issue provoked the following statement of administrative policy by President Henry King Stanford:

There is evidence that UM women encounter--sometimes in classrooms and sometimes in offices--derogatory and dehumanizing remarks about women. Whether or not such remarks are thoughtless or deliberate, women have, nevertheless, found them degrading. Therefore, your thoughtful attention to this matter is requested.

Some of the remarks UM women complain about are directed at individual women, who are singled out because of their age, sex, physical attributes, or interest in women's rights issues. Other remarks are directed at women in general and express contempt for women and stereotyped assumptions about women's abilities and ambitions.

Such remarks will not be condoned by the administration. I am asking women students to bring complaints of remarks which they find offensive to the attention of appropriate deans. Women employees are asked to bring such complaints to the attention of the appropriate administrative head of the area in which they work. (Veritas 1978, p. 1)

There is a dearth of information in the literature that demonstrates the frequency of occurrence of incidents of sexual harassment. Most of the information concerning sexual harassment of female students can be found in campus newspapers:

I'll bet there's at least one professor playing around in each department, said a nine year member of the University of Florida faculty. Most of them don't try to hide it. For some, it's a kind of competition, like mounted heads. (Julin 1979, p. 10)

A sociology professor at Yale agrees:

I don't know of a single department where at least one faculty member hasn't occasionally slept with a student, but the same problem exists at every university I know of. ("Bod And Man At Yale," 1977, p. 52)

Anne Simon, a Yale Law School alumna, is the attorney for the first lawsuit involving sexual harassment of students at Yale. She estimates that about 75 incidents of sexual harassment occur at Yale each semester ("Bod And Man At Yale," 1977).

The limited literature available demonstrates a contradiction of opinion. Top level administrators appear to diminish the frequency of sexual harassment incidents. Counselors, psychologists, and women's studies departments state that the problem is extensive:

Women's Studies director at Florida State University says sexual harassment is pervasive. Sexual complaints have been lodged with the Office of Women's Studies regarding the behavior of male faculty and graduate assistants who use their position for sexual harassment.

The degree of harassment varies. It can be very subtle, like a professor asking a student out repeatedly or a graduate assistant being negative about whether or not a woman should be studying in a particular discipline. (Raulerson 1979, p.1)

At the same University, the Vice President for Academic Affairs stated that, "sexual advances to students by teachers are 'very rare'" (Raulerson 1979, p. 1). Perhaps the reason for these contradictions is based on inadequate reporting procedures and the overwhelming possible consequences for the victims. In addition, the lack of publicity and research hinder understanding the extent and resolution of the problem (Stanford University News Service 1978).

In 1973, a senior at a California state university testified before the legislature that she knew of "at least 15 professors who offered students A's for sex" (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 3). At a recent conference of the Association for Women in Science, a substantial number of women (all recent Ph.D. recipients) reported that they had been sexually harassed by men in a position to affect their academic and professional careers. None of these women had discussed this issue publicly before ("Still Many Barriers To Women In Science," 1977). The Benson and Thomson (1979) study demonstrated that although 20 percent of their sample experienced some form of sexual harassment, they were confused about how to deal with the problem.

Consequences of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is an issue of power. The power inherent in the student-teacher relationship is obvious:

A college professor wields considerable influence over a student's academic success and future career. A teacher's assessment of a student may in a very real sense affect her "life's chances." Students depend upon their professors for grades, recommendations, job referrals, and research-related opportunities. Graduate students, in addition, rely on

their professors for opportunities to attend special seminars and conferences and to co-author research papers, for introductions to colleagues in the field, for sponsorship in informal and formal academic societies and professional associations, and for recommendations for grants, fellowships, and faculty appointments. (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 3)

Oftentimes the consequences of sexual harassment by instructors becomes so severe that students choose to change their course of study, withdraw from school completely, or remain in school under immense emotional and psychological pressure (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 3). Among several reasons that Juanita Kreps cited for high attrition rates of female graduate students were lack of dedication and lack of interest (Kreps 1971, p. 51). In contrast, Lin Farley stated:

It is time we recognize that what has been judged female disinterest or lack of dedication is often the effect of sexual harassment. Sexual abuse is, in fact, so widespread in higher education that school administrators should have made this connection some time ago. (1978, p. 70)

Many women feel that the only way to "save both autonomy and career," is to leave school. Oftentimes this decision is impulsive and made without adequate preparation. The pressure of explicit sexual demands and "accumulated sexually harassing experiences," may cause a woman to make "life-changing decisions" (Farley 1978, p. 74) For example:

A female cadet at West Point resigned from the military academy in 1977 after charging her male squad leader with improper sexual advances. The Academy dismissed her charges when the squad leader denied any wrongdoing. (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 2)

Psychologists agree the educational experience may become anxiety-producing and uncomfortable in a normal classroom. The students' learning ability may be impaired. Those who complain risk "grief, intimidation, and threats." Sexual harassment takes an emotional toll. "The overwhelming feeling is that of helplessness" (Julin 1979, p. 10). Other reported symptoms of women who were sexually harassed range from insomnia and headaches to diminished ambition and depression (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978). One university psychologist stated:

. . . the helplessness a victim of sexual harassment may feel can cause a great psychological damage. The helpless feeling is most detrimental. (Julin 1979, p. 10)

The severity of the possible consequences that face a student who reports sexual harassment are overwhelming. One University of Florida graduate female flatly rejected the propositions of a department head. She felt reporting the situation would be futile. "There's nobody higher than him unless you get into the top brass; I don't know what it would accomplish. He's too secure in his position." Months later, the graduate student was still fearful that this department head would have a negative affect on her career. After she interviewed for a job, he (the department head) had lunch with her potential employer (Julin 1979, p. 10).

In addition to the physical and emotional consequences of rejecting or reporting sexual harassment is the very real consequence that affects academic advancement. Embarrassing and denigrating remarks aimed at

certain women students from rejected professors, lowered grades, severe criticism of coursework, and hard to find letters of recommendation, are some of the consequences of not cooperating with an instructor's whims (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 3).

A University of Florida counseling psychologist explained:

The complaints have been going on for many, many years. I have heard women say they were graded down a full grade for rejecting a professor (Julin 1979, p. 10)

Various forms of behavior exist within the parameters of the sexual harassment continuum. The effects of the subtle and blatant forms of harassment have not been measured. These effects are likely to be dependent upon the individual, and her perception of the severity of the situation. One professor, who was accused of sexual harassment of several female students stated: ". . .you can take my word for it, it was not a situation where anybody was in any danger or fear" (Florida State University Flambeau 1979, p. 1). After several complaints about this professor, the head of the Florida State University graduate program in theater directing, he resigned. It should be noted that when a complaint was lodged two years previously against this same professor, the student was assured that the professor would not be allowed to return to Florida State University. He did return and he assumed the position that he left. He also continued to victimize his female students:

When he was alone with the women, usually in his office, he would back them into a corner or against the wall, and put his hand in their mouth to keep them quiet. Then he would rub his body against them. (Florida State University Flambeau 1979, p. 1)

This example certainly is not rape, nor it is subtle sexual harassment. The situation falls somewhere within the parameters of the sexual harassment continuum. Although the professor maintained that these women had nothing to fear and were not in any danger, it appears that he certainly violated their personal space. It also appears that this type of behavior would be against the law. Obviously, university officials did not find this a serious offense because the department head was reinstated after the first complaint was filed, two years previously. The Vice President for Academic Affairs felt that the situation was "taken very seriously;" he said, ". . . he knew of three women who reported unwanted advances by this same professor!" (Florida State University Flambeau 1979, p. 1)

Cases similar to those previously mentioned appear to be numerous. University of Florida professors and students can and do describe incident after incident of faculty members pressuring students for sexual favors (Julin 1979). The consequences are as numerous as the incidents:

Because the male is in a position of authority, as professor, mentor, or supervisor, a woman, therefore, may be at great risk if she objects to the behavior or resists the overtures. It is this context which underlies the gravity of the problem of sexual harassment. (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 2)

Anne Truax, Director of the Minnesota Women's Center said she is aware of women students who have all of their Ph.D. coursework completed but leave the university because they cannot tolerate the sexual harassment from their advisor or professor (Scanlon 1979). Truax also reported hearing about a faculty member who is said to have raped several

women students. The students would not file complaints (Scanlon 1979). Rape is beyond the scope of this study. However, attitudes such as the one expressed by the Director of the University of Miami police force are typical. ". . . the cause of many rapes on campus is the promiscuity of the female students." This type of attitude placed the female "victim" in the position of "criminal." The violator of her being becomes the victim who just couldn't help himself (Winerip 1978). Unfortunately, women adopt this attitude and begin to assume the guilt for such acts. "What did I do to cause him to do this to me?" This is the first multitudes of questions that haunt a woman who has been raped and harassed. A graduate student staff member working at the Minnesota Women's Center states:

Many women have been socialized to be afraid to talk about sex harassment. . . . The women feel guilty and that they, not their harassers, are to blame for the incident. (Scanlon 1979, p. 1)

Most of the interviews cited throughout the literature reported that the fear of negative consequences involving their academic and professional career is the major deterrent to women considering reporting incidents of harassment (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978). A representative of the University of Toronto Graduate Student Union reinforced this belief. She noted that a professor was sexually involved with seven graduate women students whose studies he supervised. He informed them "unofficially" that they would do well in his courses. These women reported that they were afraid to report the incidents because they were afraid of the academic and professional consequences ("Canadian Graduate Students Warned," 1979).

The fears related to the consequences of sexual harassment have kept the problem concealed. The establishment of reporting procedures for incidents of sexual harassment would aid in determining the extent of sexual harassment on the campus as well as publicly acknowledging the existence of sexual harassment as a problem. A procedure that would lessen the consequences for the victim might encourage others to trust the university administration in the handling of such affairs.

Reporting Incidents of Sexual Harassment

Incidents of sexual harassment remain unreported for many reasons. Too often, the consequences for reporting or rejecting sexual overtones by a professor appear to be greater than those of submitting to the harassment. The procedure involved in reporting an incident that is so sensitive in nature, is often a deterrent in itself:

The administration feels that incidents of sexual harassment of students by professors are not common. However, there are many cases that are not reported. In order to report an incident, the student would have to come to an open hearing on accusations of misconduct. The administrator commented 'few students are willing to do that.' (Florida State University Flambeau 1979, p. 19)

From this statement, it would be easy to assume that the administration's conclusions about the frequency of incidents of sexual harassment at Florida State University is inaccurate. The validity lies in the awareness that few students would be willing to subject themselves to such a hearing. A psychologist at the Florida State University Mental Health Center states that:

. . . if a student lodges a complaint with the University concerning a relationship with a professor, the University generally works to protect the faculty member against the student. (Raulerson 1979, p. 19)

The department head of the Women's Studies department hears many complaints of sexual harassment because "most students don't report incidents of sexual harassment to anyone in a position of authority at FSU" (Raulerson 1979, p. 19). Officials at the University of Florida say that the ". . . problem of proof coupled with the indifferent attitude of UF administrators results in many complaints being handled in a less than thorough manner" (Julin 1979, p. 11). Although the Office of Student Services handled only four incidents of sexual harassment during Fall and Winter quarters (1978-79), more complaints have been made to the Counseling Center. The Vice President for Academic Affairs at the University of Florida explained that ". . . most complaints of this type are handled by the department chairman" (University of Florida Alligator 1979, p. 10). It appears that the University of Florida considers sexual harassment a problem of middle management. Unfortunately, there are only 12 percent female faculty, and ever fewer female administrators on any management level at the University of Florida (Klein 1979). Throughout the literature, reporting of incidents of sexual harassment of females happens more often through female staff members (Stanford University News Service 1978; Florida State University Flambeau 1979; University of Florida Alligator 1979; Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978).

Several women students and one male professor initiated a lawsuit against Yale University in 1977. The lawsuit claimed that Yale was negligent for failing to provide a grievance procedure for victims of sexual harassment. Since victims are usually females, failing to have such a procedure constitutes sexual discrimination. The case argued that this is a violation of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Nelson 1978). The courts found that one of the female plaintiffs had justifiable cause to sue. In this case, *Alexander v. Yale University*, Alexander maintained that she received a "C" grade in a course for refusing a professor's proposition for sexual activity. She maintained that the professor offered her an "A" grade in return for sexual favors, and when she rejected his advances, he gave her the lower grade. Alexander complained verbally and in writing to the university administration. The university dismissed her allegations without further investigation into the matter (Nelson 1978; Miles 1979). The case did establish that sexual harassment constitutes sexual discrimination which is in violation of Title IX:

. . . it is perfectly reasonable to maintain that academic advancement conditioned upon submission to sexual demands constitutes sex discrimination in education, just as questions of job retention or promotion tied to sexual demands from supervisors have become increasingly recognized as potential violation of Title VII's ban against sex discrimination in employment. (In Miles 1979, p. 14)

As mentioned earlier, part of the lawsuit against Yale University focuses on their lack of a reporting procedure for incidents of sexual harassment (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978). In light of this, Dean Kaplan of Stanford University has spearheaded procedures for the creation of such a system at Stanford:

Normally, students with a grievance are encouraged to talk about it directly with the faculty member concerned, then with the department head, and the appropriate dean. This can be exceptionally difficult if the professor is in a position to wield academic power for personal favors.

Appealing to other professors isn't easy, either. Most are reluctant to delve into the private lives of their colleagues; those lacking tenure can find themselves professionally threatened if they try to do so. Those aggrieved almost universally are women; the higher an appeal is taken, the more likely it will become a matter between men.

If students perceive, rightly or wrongly, that harassment simply is not dealt with as an issue by the faculty, litigation of the Yale variety may ultimately result. (Campus Report 1978, p. 2)

Brown, Rutgers, the University of Minnesota, and the University of Florida have all set up informal procedures for reporting complaints of sexual harassment. The administrative offices of Brown, Rutgers, and the University of Florida have issued policy statements regarding the prohibition and condemnation of such behaviors (Brown 1979; Rutgers 1979; Scanlon 1979; Julin 1979).

At the University of California at Berkeley, 29 women students have filed a complaint with the Department of Health, Education and Welfare on the basis of the University's neglect in establishing grievance procedures (Benson and Thomson 1979). The increased reporting of incidents in the last year has given impetus to organizing campus groups concerned with the problem of harassment. One organization, Women Organized Against Sexual Harassment (WOASH) at the University of California at Berkeley, is devising a grievance procedure for incidents of sexual harassment (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1980). WOASH has picketed the University administration building in protest of

an alleged "cover-up" of charges of sexual harassment leveled against a male professor (Benson and Thomson 1979). The Women's Center at the University of Minnesota collects data on the extent of sexual harassment at the university. The Center also counsels victims of harassment and aids in filing of complaints (Scanlon 1979).

Recent Developments

The Chronicle of Higher Education reported that a professor was dismissed from San Jose State University in California for incidents of sexual harassment. He was ". . . dismissed after five women students accused him of fondling, embracing, and making sexual propositions to them" (1980, p. 2). A second professor at Berkeley has been suspended without pay for one quarter after harassment charges were filed (Chronicle of Higher Education 1980).

The Federal Government is presently addressing the issue of sexual harassment on the campus. The National Advisory Council of Women's Educational Programs is a presidentially appointed body established by Congress. The Council's responsibility is to advise and report on sex equity in education. This Council has publicly requested information from victims about their experiences of harassment. Depending upon the scope of the problem, the Council may hold hearings on sexual harassment. If the project's investigation finds that federal action on the problem is necessary, they will make such a recommendation to Congress ("Sexual Harassment Reviewed By Council," 1979).

Sexual harassment exists on the campuses of our colleges and universities. It is a threat to the academic and economic future of students. Students cannot freely choose to accept or reject sexual advances. To report or reject incidents of sexual harassment may jeopardize grades, careers, and futures. The problem and the extent of the problem need publicity and research. Educational equity and Title IX require that this problem no longer be hidden. "The problem of sexual harassment will not go away, nor are there easy answers" (Project on the Status and Education of Women 1978, p. 5).

Summary

The review of related literature demonstrates the relationship of sex-role stereotyping to occupational and institutional sexism. The roles of women in our society characterize women as submissive, incompetent, and subordinate to men. These roles are perpetuated by the sex-stereotypic attitudes of men and women. Sexual harassment is a component of occupational segregation and vertical stratification. It exists in a symbiotic relationship with the outgrowths of occupational stereotyping. As occupational stereotyping exists, it is paralleled by stereotyping in academia. As the world of work is dominated by males, so is the world of higher education. As specific occupations are sex-typed, so are the academic and professional fields that are pursued by students.

Sexual harassment of female students exists as it exists in the world of work. The extent of this phenomenon in academia has not been surveyed as it has in the working world. Few universities have taken the initiative to address the problem.

The United States Government has recognized the extent of the problem of sexual harassment of women. Congressional investigations into harassment of women in federal and state agencies, as well as the Armed Forces are currently underway. The Federal Government is also in the process of investigating sexual harassment on campus. The courts have determined that sexual harassment is sex discrimination and a violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In addition, sexual harassment has been found to contribute to sexual discrimination in education under Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments. The extent of the problem of sexual harassment on the campus has not been researched. The Federal Government, recent research, and the Project on the Status and Education of Women of the American Association of Colleges all express a need for such information.

CHAPTER THREE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The review of literature, in Chapter Two, demonstrates the general extent of the problem of sexual harassment of women in the world of work. In addition, it depicts the void of information concerning the extent of the problem of sexual harassment of female students in postsecondary education. The purpose of this study was to contribute to the elimination of this void by providing information concerning the extent of sexual harassment of women students on the campus. Too, the study examined female students' attitudes and beliefs concerning the occurrence of the sexual harassment phenomenon.

Description of Sample and Selection

The target population of this study was undergraduate and graduate professional female students in selected state universities of Florida. As indicated on Table 1, the three largest universities in the State of Florida were surveyed. These schools were selected not solely due to their size, but because they were the only schools in the state university system that offered professional programs in the selected professions. For the purpose of this study, professional programs were defined as advanced training programs that lead to a degree in dentistry, education, engineering, law, medicine, or veterinary medicine.

The total population of female students in the state university system of Florida's programs leading to degrees in dentistry, law,

Table 1
Population and Sample Sizes

<u>School</u>	<u>University</u>	<u>Total Population</u>	<u>Sample Size</u>	<u>Minimum Acceptable Sample (25%)</u>
Dental Education (Graduate)	UF	48	48	12
	FSU	622	200	150*
	USF	555	200	
Education (Undergraduate)	USF	622	200	
	FSU	1336	200	150*
	UF	739	200	
Engineering	USF	1780	200	
	UF	255	524	131
Law	USF	269		
	FSU	119	353	88
Medicine	UF	334		
	USF	131	193	48
Veterinary Medicine	UF	62	97	24

*Total from all three universities

medicine, and veterinary medicine were surveyed. A total of 695 women in these non-traditional professional major areas of study, were surveyed. All women students in the undergraduate engineering programs at the University of Florida and the University of South Florida were surveyed. A total of 524 surveys were mailed to these engineering students. A systematic sample of female undergraduate and graduate students majoring in education at Florida State University, the University of Florida, and the University of South Florida, were selected and surveyed. A total of 1,200 questionnaires were mailed to women students in graduate and undergraduate education programs (Table 1).

The rationale for sampling in the above manner was to approximate equal sample sizes for each of the independent variables: undergraduate (1,124), graduate (1,291), traditional professional (1,200), and non-traditional professional (1,215). The minimum acceptable returns from the sample of the total group and each individual group was set at 25 percent (Table 1). This required a minimum of 603 surveys to be returned from the total group. However, the desirable return was set at 40 percent of the sample (966).

Procedures

A "contact" person was designated at each university. The contact person's function was to facilitate the distribution of the questionnaire by aiding in the accumulation of enrollment lists (Appendix A).

Personal contact was made with the contact person by telephone. Representatives of the University of Florida Student Government Association, the Society of Women in Engineering, and the women's law organizations at their respective schools were contacted by telephone. The members of these organizations functioned by supplying the researcher with any necessary information and by aiding in informing fellow students of the survey.

The following procedure was utilized in accumulating the data:

Phase I — A sample of 600 undergraduate and 600 graduate female students majoring in education was systematically selected from the enrollment lists from Florida State University, the University of Florida, and the University of South Florida. A random number between one and six was selected from a box. Every fourth, fifth, or sixth name was selected from the list beginning with the name that matched the number drawn from the box. The spread between each name selected was determined by dividing the desired two hundred subjects into the total number of students on the list.

Phase II — A cover letter and stamped return envelope accompanied each questionnaire. Subjects were requested to return the questionnaire within three weeks of the mailing date. (See Appendix B for sample cover letter and questionnaire.) The return envelope was coded and matched to a code number on one of the enrollment lists. This was done to reduce the number of postcards to be sent as a follow-up to non-respondents.

Phase III -- A total of 2,415 questionnaires were mailed to a sample of female students at the three universities. (See Table 1.) The initial mailing began during the fourth week of the Spring quarter 1980. Due to the delay in acquiring enrollment lists from the University of South Florida, 731 questionnaires were not mailed until the last week of the quarter.

Phase IV -- Three weeks after the initial mailing, a postcard was sent to non-respondents. No follow-up mailing was conducted for the University of South Florida sample. Data collection occurred over a period of ten weeks. Table 1 illustrates the actual number of returns and the percentage of returns from each professional school acquired from both mailings.

Instrumentation

After an extensive review of the literature, it was discovered that there was no available measure, concerning sexual harassment, for utilization in descriptive research. A questionnaire was developed to assess the extent to which undergraduate and graduate students experienced various forms of sexual harassment. In addition, the questionnaire provided for the examination of the beliefs and attitudes students hold in relationship to sexual harassment. (See Appendix C.)

Development

The questionnaire was developed to encompass the various components of the definition of sexual harassment. Major components of the definition were identified from the newsletter on the Project on the Status and Education of Women:

- a. verbal sexual harassment of male and female students: sexist jokes, remarks, sex-role stereotyping.
- b. subtle and blatant forms of sexual harassment: inappropriate physical contact, sexual advances, propositioning in return for grades. (1978, p. 3)

Additional questions referred to opinions regarding the reporting of incidents of sexual harassment, students sexually harassing instructors, and a general statement about the occurrence of sexual harassment on campus. The questionnaire was pilot-tested on four separate groups during the Winter and Summer quarters of 1979 at the University of Florida.

Phase I

The first pilot group consisted of 18 Counselor Education graduate students at the University of Florida. They contributed to the refinement of the items and format by completing the questionnaire and offering anonymous critiques, followed by verbal feedback. The items were then rewritten and submitted to a review panel of five professors in the Counselor Education Department and the Office for Student Services at the University of Florida. The review panel was given a definition of sexual harassment in a cover letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire. All panel members agreed that the questionnaire demonstrated "face" and "content" validity. The Fry Readability Formula was used to determine that the questionnaire was appropriate for college-level readers (Fry 1968).

Phase II

The questionnaire was then distributed to 29 undergraduate students participating in a leadership training program conducted by the Office for Student Services at the University of Florida during the Winter quarter 1979. A test-retest design was utilized by administering the identical questionnaire two weeks after the first testing sessions. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was obtained for each pre- and post-test item. The correlation coefficient for the questionnaire was found to be .81. Further investigation into the pre- and post-test relationship utilized a T-Transformation Matrix to demonstrate the relationships to be significant at the .001 level of significance.

An item analysis was conducted to establish construct validity and reliability. Analysis of variance was used to provide a factor analysis. Both the pre- and post-test factors included the same items. The post-test factors that accounted for 50 percent of the variance in the scores are the same factors as those on the pre-test.

Phase III

The questionnaire was revised in format to include two separate sections: attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment and personal experiences of sexual harassment. The items from the original questionnaire with an item correlation of below .4 were either reworded or discarded.

The response format for Part I of the questionnaire was revised to a four-point Likert-type scale. The "undecided" choice was eliminated

to create a forced choice and reduce the tendency toward a response set. Part II of the questionnaire contained items assessing personal experiences by recording "yes" or "no" responses. The Fry Readability Formula determined that the questionnaire was appropriate for college-level readers. The review panel, once again, agreed that the questionnaire demonstrated face and content validity.

Phase IV

During the Summer quarter 1979, at the University of Florida, the questionnaire was administered to one graduate class in the Educational Foundations department and one undergraduate class in the Criminal Justice department. The total sample consisted of 35 students. The questionnaire was administered using a three-week interval between pre- and post-tests. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was obtained for each item and for the total questionnaire. The correlation coefficient for the questionnaire was found to be .80. Once again, a T-Transformation Matrix demonstrated that all pre- and post-test relationships were significant at the .001 level of significance.

An analysis of variance using a Principal Factor Analysis was conducted to determine the reliability and construct validity. Three factors accounted for approximately 38 percent of the total factor variance. These three factors were labeled "Attitudes and beliefs concerning blatant forms of sexual harassment," "Subtle forms of sexual harassment," and "Personal experiences of blatant forms of sexual harassment." (See Appendix B for detailed analysis.)

All statistical analyses were computed through the use of the STATJOB System of statistical programs for use on UNIVAC 1100 series computers. The DSTAT2 program was utilized for the correlational analyses and the FACTOR3 program was used for the factor analyses.

Phase V

The questionnaire was pilot-tested once again during Summer quarter 1979 at the University of Florida. The questionnaire was distributed to undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in two classes in the Behavioral Sciences Department. The data from the 70 questionnaires were examined in terms of the percentage of agreement with each item of the questionnaire. (See Appendix C.)

Final Revisions

The format of the questionnaire was slightly revised. The revisions were made primarily in the instruction format. The questionnaire was previously accompanied by a computer answer sheet. Since the questionnaire was distributed through the mail, the instructions were revised. The demographic data requested in the study were:

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------------|
| a. date of birth | c. major area of study |
| b. marital status | d. level in school |

Analysis of Data

The accumulation of data in the study yielded two primary groupings of data: scores on the questionnaire and the demographic data. The demographic data focused upon traditional or non-traditional fields of study at the graduate and undergraduate levels of study. The questionnaire

responses were examined in relation to the demographic data. The first three hypotheses were subjected to a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA): (Clyde 1979)

1. There is no difference in attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment between women in the traditional professional major area of education and those in selected non-traditional professional major areas of study.
2. There is no difference in beliefs and attitudes of women students among selected non-traditional major areas of study.
3. There is no difference in attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment between graduate and undergraduate women students.

The MANOVA was used to analyze the interactions of each independent variable (traditional and non-traditional areas of study, and graduate and undergraduate levels of study) upon the dependent variable. In order to reject the null hypotheses, an F-value significant at the .05 level was required.

Log-linear analyses were used to analyze the second three hypotheses of the study:

4. There is no difference between women students in selected non-traditional professional areas of study and the traditional professional major area of education in the frequency of sexual harassment.
5. There is no difference in the frequency of sexual harassment of women students among selected non-traditional major areas of study.
6. There is no difference between the two groups (undergraduate women students and graduate women students) in the frequency of occurrence of sexual harassment.

The log-linear analysis was an analysis of frequency tables which generated chi-square statistics. This technique was used to analyze qualitative or categorical data from descriptive research:

The result is the identification of the main effects, simple interactions, and higher order interactions that contribute to the frequency patterns in the data being analyzed. (Milone and Wolk 1980, p. 162)

Three-way log-linear models, which are analogous to Analysis of Variance models, were constructed. Since multiple testing of variables was required, a chi-square lower than .05 level of significance was necessary in order to accept the significant difference at the .05 level. This technique allowed for examination of the main effects and the interaction between harassment (yes or no) and major area of study (traditional or non-traditional), harassment and level of study (graduate or undergraduate), and the frequency of "yes" and "no" responses.

The following hypothesis was subjected to a canonical correlation analyses:

7. There is no difference between attitudes and beliefs of women students towards sexual harassment and their experiences of sexual harassment.

This technique was used to obtain composite variables from items in Part I and Part II of the questionnaire. It enabled exploration into the relationship of variables in each part of the questionnaire (attitudes/beliefs and experiences). A Pearson correlation coefficient was obtained for composites.

The Biomedical Computer Programs P-series (BMDP-79) was utilized for the data analyses. Clyde's MANOVA (1969) was used as the program for the multivariate analysis of variance.

Limitations

The following limitations of this study are noted:

1. The generalizability of this study is limited to female students, in selected professional programs within the state university system of Florida.
2. Implicit in the design of a survey by mail is that the response rate may be a function of "yes" or "no" responses from people with a particular bias.
3. Approximately one-third of the mailing occurred during the last week of the quarter, thus limiting the numbers of students who actually received and returned the questionnaires.

CHAPTER FOUR RESULTS

This study was designed to investigate the attitudes, beliefs, and experiences concerning sexual harassment of female students in higher education. The Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment was used to facilitate this examination. Appendix B, Part I of the questionnaire focuses upon attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment on campus. Part II of the questionnaire is concerned with the student's personal experiences of sexual harassment. Selected items from the questionnaire have been analyzed in reference to the independent variables of "professional school" (non-traditional and traditional) and "level in school" (undergraduate and graduate). The analyses of data in this chapter parallel the order of the seven hypotheses listed in Chapter Three.

Demographic Data

Sample. A total of 2,507 questionnaires were mailed to female students enrolled in selected professional schools in the state university system of Florida. Graduate and undergraduate education were the programs selected to represent the traditional programs. The non-traditional programs selected were dentistry, engineering, law, medicine, and veterinary medicine. The entire population of female students enrolled in the schools of dentistry, law, medicine, and veterinary medicine in the state university system of Florida were surveyed.

The total enrollment of women in engineering programs at these schools was surveyed. A sample was drawn from the undergraduate and graduate schools of education from each of the three universities in the study.

As can be seen from Table 2, a response rate of over 40 percent of the total sample was obtained. The same response rate was achieved for each professional area of study with the exception of undergraduate education and medicine. Table 2 also shows a 47 percent response rate for the non-traditional professional schools and a 37 percent response rate for the traditional professional schools. In addition, the graduate level response rate is shown to be 13 percent greater than the undergraduate response rate. Due to the small number of women in dental, medical, and veterinary schools, the groups were combined under the area of "medicine" to facilitate and improve upon statistical computations.

Institutional information. Florida State University (FSU), the University of Florida (UF), and the University of South Florida (USF), are the only universities in the state university system of Florida that offer preparatory professional programs such as dentistry, law, medicine, and veterinary medicine. These three universities are also the largest universities within the state system. The areas of engineering and education were included in this study for a comparison of the undergraduate levels of study.

Table 2
Composition of Sample of Female Students, by Professional School
and Level, Responding to Sexual Harassment Questionnaire

Professional School	Sample Size	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents	Minimum Acceptable Sample (25%)	Desired Sample Size (40%)
TRADITIONAL Education (Graduate)	1200	448	37	(300)	(480)
Education (Undergraduate)	600	287	48	150	240
	600	161	27	150	240
NON-TRADITIONAL Dentistry	1307	620	47	(327)	(523)
Engineering	49	27	55	12	20
Law	524	253	48	131	210
Medicine	453	228	50	113	181
Veterinary Medicine	186	67	36	47	74
	95	45	47	24	38
OTHER	0	41	3	0	0
GRADUATE LEVEL	1383	694	50	346	553
UNDERGRADUATE LEVEL	1124	411	37	281	450
TOTAL	2507	1111 ^a	44	627	1003

^aTotal number of respondents - sums do not always equal this number as cases were excluded from one or more tables for computational purposes

The instructional personnel in all of the professional schools are predominantly males.* As can be seen from examining Table 3, males also dominate on all levels of rank with the exception of assistant professors of education at USF. In the field of education, only 22 percent of the professors, on all levels of rank, are females at both FSU and UF. Twenty-four percent of the professors of education, on all levels of rank at USF, are females.

The composition of instructional personnel in the non-traditional professional areas of study is overwhelmingly male-dominated (see Table 3). At the two universities with engineering programs, 100 percent of the full and associate professors are male. There is one female assistant professor at each of these schools. As can be seen from Table 3, FSU has three female professors of law out of 20 professors, and no female professors at the highest level of rank. The University of Florida has four female professors of law out of 43, with one being a full professor. There are also no full professors of medicine, in the state university system, who are female. Of the 207 professors of medicine at USF, 8 percent are females. At UF, 14 percent of the 224 professors are women. There are no female full professors in the veterinary medicine program at the University of

* Information concerning instructional personnel was compiled from personal correspondence with the Department of Budget and Analysis, FSU; the Division of Planning and Analysis, UF; and the Office of Institutional Research, USF.

Table 3
 Number and Percentage of Male and Female Faculty in Selected Professional
 Schools in the State University System of Florida

	Dental		Education		Engineering		Law		Medicine		Veterinary Medicine	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY												
Professor	60	5	10	0								
	93	7	100									
Associate Professor	34	16	6	2								
	68	32	75	25								
Assistant Professor	14	10	1	1								
	58	42	50	50								
Total	108	31	17	3								
	78	22	85	15								
UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA												
Professor	NA ^a	NA	5	74	0	31	1	69	0	4	0	
			86	100		97	3	100		100		
Associate Professor	NA	NA	30	39	0	6	3	48	10	12	3	
			73	100		67	33	83	17	80	20	
Assistant Professor	NA	NA	14	5	1	2	0	76	21	22	3	
			74	26	5	100		78	22	88	12	
Total	85	3	76	21	1	39	4	193	31	38	6	
	97	3	78	22	1	91	9	86	14	86	14	

Table 3--continued

	Dental		Education		Engineering		Law		Medicine		Veterinary Medicine	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH FLORIDA												
Professor	57	$\frac{7}{89}$	28	$\frac{0}{100}$	42	$\frac{0}{100}$						
Associate Professor	50	$\frac{16}{76}$	14	$\frac{0}{100}$	47	$\frac{3}{6}$						
Assistant Professor	8	$\frac{13}{38}$	3	$\frac{1}{25}$	101	$\frac{14}{88}$						
Total	115	$\frac{36}{76}$	45	$\frac{1}{98}$	190	$\frac{17}{8}$						

^aNot Available

Florida. There are six professors in the veterinary medicine program who are women. The statistics from the dental school at the UF were not available according to rank. There are a total of three female professors out of 88 in the dental school.

Analysis of Data

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to investigate the first three null hypotheses of this study. These three hypotheses focus upon attitudes and beliefs of female students concerning sexual harassment on the campus. The second three null hypotheses are concerned with the students' personal experiences of sexual harassment. These three hypotheses were tested by means of a chi square analysis. The seventh hypothesis focuses upon the relationship between students' attitudes and beliefs and their experiences concerning sexual harassment. This hypothesis was tested by means of a canonical correlational analysis. A significance level of less than .05 was necessary to reject all null hypotheses.

For the purpose of this study, the definition of sexual harassment is composed of two facets, subtle and blatant forms of sexual harassment. The subtle forms of harassment are included in Items 1, 3, 5, 9, 18, 21, 22, 25, 34, and 35 of the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment. Experiencing an instructor who "told jokes that 'put down' women" (Item 23) is considered subtle in comparison to experiencing "unwanted sexual attention" (Item 29). The blatant types of sexual harassment are included in Items 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 17, 26, 27, 29, 32, 33, and 38 of the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment. Several items on the

questionnaire will not be included in this analysis as they do not pertain directly to the definition of sexual harassment of female students. The following items have been excluded from the analysis:

2. Instructor(s) have stereotyped men in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.
4. Student(s) have "propositioned" instructor(s) to participate in sexual activities.
10. Student(s) who are discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are female, feel free to report the incident.
11. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about males as a group.
15. Student(s) have made sexual advances towards their instructor(s).
16. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" men.
19. Student(s) who are being discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are male, feel free to report the incident.
20. Students feel free to report incidents of sexual harassment to university officials.
23. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" men.
24. I have "propositioned" an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activity.
28. I feel free to report an incident of sexual harassment to university officials.
30. If I were discriminated against by my instructor because of my sex, I would feel free to report the incident to university officials.
31. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped men in lectures, remarks, and/or presentations.
36. I have made sexual advances towards my instructor(s).
37. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about males as a group.

Table 4
 Multivariate Tests of Significance Using Wilks Lambda Criterion
 for 12 Attitude Items

Item	IS^a	F	Mean Square	$P <$
		$(F = 3.010)$	$(P < .001)^b$	
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are non-traditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).		5.534	3.312	.019
3. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.		23.866	16.117	.001
5. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" women.		31.902	21.523	.001
6. Student(s) have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).		3.698	2.611	.055
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.		.009	.005	.926
8. Instructor(s) have unnecessarily touched, patted, or brushed up against student(s).		1.615	1.209	.204

Table 4--continued

Item	F	Mean Square	P <
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	14.856	9.755	.001
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their student(s).	7.685	4.936	.006
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their student(s).	6.414	3.815	.011
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their student(s) to participate in sexual activity.	2.759	1.759	.097
17. Student(s) have experienced forms of sexual harassment by their instructor(s).	5.860	4.038	.016
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	2.781	1.843	.096

IS^a = Level/School interaction

P < .001^b = Level of significance for level/school interaction

Items Concerning Attitudes and Beliefs

For the purpose of this portion of the study, a multivariate F-test determined the rejection of the first three null hypotheses. Table 4 demonstrates that there is a significant interaction (.001) between the main effects of Level (graduate and undergraduate) and School (traditional and non-traditional). Further analysis of this interaction is precluded by the fact that the dimensions of difference cannot be classified unambiguously along the lines of Level (L) and School (S). Additional analysis of the attitude items was conducted by means of a posteriori one-way analysis of variance (see Table 5). As displayed on Table 5, between-group comparisons of the means of the attitude items show significant differences. With the exception of two items, all of the attitude items show significant differences at less than the .05 level of significance.

By examining the direction of the responses expressed in percentages, Part I of the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment, several trends become apparent. Table 6 includes 12 items concerned with attitudes and beliefs about sexual harassment on campus. These items require a response in the form of Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, or Strongly Disagree. The following numerical values were assigned to each response category: Strongly Agree = 1; Agree = 2; Disagree = 3; Strongly Disagree = 4.

Table 6 demonstrates that the larger percentage differences of agreement occur among the subtle forms of harassment (Items 1, 3, 5, 9, and 18). More women in non-traditional areas of study tended to

Table 5
 One-Way Analysis of Variance, A Posteriori Tests
 of 12 Attitude Items Between Groups

Item	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	P <
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are non-traditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).	15.2592	5.0864	8.459	.0001
3. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.	40.1194	13.3731	19.762	.0001
5. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" women.	61.8248	20.6083	30.408	.0001
6. Student(s) have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).	12.0232	4.0077	5.638	.0008
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	1.6142	.5381	.932	.4243
8. Instructor(s) have unnecessarily touched, patted, or brushed up against student(s).	4.8126	1.6042	2.185	.0882

Table 5--continued

Item	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p<
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	26.8748	8.9583	13.500	.0001
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their student(s).	12.5367	4.1789	6.506	.0002
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their student(s).	8.0456	2.6819	4.523	.0037
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their student(s) to participate in sexual activity.	6.3230	2.1077	3.303	.0197
17. Student(s) have experienced forms of sexual harassment by their instructor(s).	13.0217	4.3406	6.269	.0003
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	5.2454	1.7485	2.642	.0481

Table 6
Differences in Attitudes and Beliefs Concerning Sexual Harassment between Female Students
in Traditional (T) and Nontraditional (NT) Professional Fields of Study
Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages

Item	Professional School	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Responses
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are nontraditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).	T	RS ^a 4.3	78 17.5	238 53.4	111 24.9	446
	NT	RS 4.2	122 19.8	307 49.8	162 26.3	617
3. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.	T	RS 6.3	135 30.3	201 45.1	82 18.4	446
	NT	RS 11.2	197 32.0	270 43.8	80 13.0	616
5. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" women.	T	RS 6.7	146 32.7	194 43.4	77 17.2	447
	NT	RS 14.1	239 38.9	223 36.3	66 10.7	615
6. Students have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).	T	RS 6.0	121 27.1	188 42.1	111 24.8	447
	NT	RS 6.5	207 33.6	255 41.4	114 18.5	616

Table 6--continued

Item	Professional School	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Responses
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	T	RS — %	69 15.5	194 43.6	174 39.1	445
	NT	RS — %	91 14.9	248 40.5	264 43.1	612
8. Instructor(s) have unnecessarily touched, patted, or brushed up against students.	T	RS — %	24 5.4	197 44.1	130 29.1	447
	NT	RS — %	31 5.1	247 40.3	192 31.3	613
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	T	RS — %	39 8.7	171 38.2	62 13.8	448
	NT	RS — %	83 13.4	235 38.0	51 8.2	618
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their students.	T	RS — %	15 3.7	201 45.1	114 25.6	446
	NT	RS — %	18 2.9	255 41.5	149 24.2	615

Table 6--continued

Item	Professional School	RS %	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Responses
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their students.	T	RS %	13 2.9	105 23.7	213 48.1	112 25.3	443
	NT	RS %	17 2.8	145 23.7	298 48.7	152 24.8	612
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their student(s) to participate in sexual activity.	T	RS %	14 3.1	98 22.0	203 45.6	130 29.2	445
	NT	RS %	18 2.9	144 23.4	272 44.3	180 29.3	614
17. Student(s) have experienced forms of sexual harassment by their instructors.	T	RS %	17 3.8	106 23.8	196 44.0	126 28.3	445
	NT	RS %	34 5.6	176 29.0	254 41.9	142 23.4	606
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	T	RS %	19 4.3	97 21.8	203 45.6	126 28.3	445
	NT	RS %	22 3.6	163 26.6	271 44.3	156 25.5	612

RS^a = Raw Score, number of respondents designating agreement

%^b = Percentage of respondents designating agreement to the nearest tenth percent

agree that subtle forms of sexual harassment occur than women in traditional areas of study. There appears to be little difference in the percentage of women in non-traditional and traditional areas of study that perceived the occurrence of blatant forms of harassment. The differences in agreement as to the occurrence of these blatant forms of harassment range from .1 percent to 7 percent (Items 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, and 17).

The percentages of agreement in the attitudes and beliefs of women in non-traditional fields of study are presented on Table 7. The responses of students in the areas of dentistry, medicine, and veterinary medicine have been combined to form the category of "medicine." A smaller percentage of women in engineering, than in either law or medicine, perceived the occurrence of subtle forms of sexual harassment (Table 7). Approximately 25 percent of the women in engineering, 51 percent of the women in law, and 60 percent of those in medicine agreed that "instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group" (Item 3). Almost 68 percent of the medical students and 64 percent of the law students indicated that they believed that instructors told jokes that were derogatory to women, while 34 percent of the engineering students indicated agreement (Item 5).

Approximately 63 percent of those in law and medicine agreed that instructors stereotype women in their instructional methodology, whereas almost 40 percent of the students in engineering indicated agreement (Item 9).

Table 7
Differences in Attitudes and Beliefs Concerning Sexual Harassment of Female Students
in Nontraditional Professional Fields of Study Expressed
in Raw Scores and Percentages

Item	Professional School	Strongly Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total Responses
		RS %	RS ^c % ^d	Agree	Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are nontraditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).	Eng. ^a		5 1.9	36 14.3	126 50.0	85 33.7	252	
	Law		6 2.6	49 21.6	117 51.5	55 24.2	227	
	Med. ^b		15 10.9	37 26.8	64 46.4	22 15.9	138	
3. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.	Eng.		12 4.8	54 21.6	140 56.0	44 17.6	250	
	Law		30 13.2	86 37.9	86 37.9	25 11.0	227	
	Med.		27 19.4	57 41.0	44 31.6	11 7.9	139	
5. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" women.	Eng.		18 7.2	68 27.2	121 48.4	43 17.2	250	
	Law		36 15.9	110 48.5	66 29.1	15 6.6	227	
	Med.		33 23.9	61 44.2	36 26.1	8 5.8	138	

Table 7—continued

Item	Professional School	Strongly Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total Responses
		RS %		RS %		RS %		
6. Students have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).	Eng.	RS	15	65	112	58	250	
		%	6.0	26.0	44.8	23.2		
	Law	RS	13	99	83	32	227	
		%	5.7	43.6	36.6	14.1		
	Med.	RS	12	43	60	24	139	
		%	8.6	30.9	43.2	17.3		
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	Eng.	RS	2	39	93	117	251	
		%	.8	15.5	37.0	46.6		
	Law	RS	4	42	103	74	223	
		%	1.8	18.8	46.2	33.2		
	Med.	RS	3	10	52	73	138	
		%	2.2	7.2	37.7	52.9		
8. Instructor(s) have unnecessarily touched, patted, or brushed up against students.	Eng.	RS	10	49	99	92	250	
		%	4.0	19.6	39.6	36.8		
	Law	RS	7	58	97	62	224	
		%	3.1	25.9	43.3	27.7		
	Med.	RS	14	36	51	38	139	
		%	10.1	25.9	36.7	27.3		

Table 7--continued

Item	Professional School	RS %	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Responses
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	Eng.	RS %	17 6.8	83 33.1	124 49.4	27 10.8	251
	Law	RS %	34 14.9	111 48.7	66 28.9	17 7.5	228
	Med.	RS %	32 23.0	55 39.6	45 32.4	7 5.0	139
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their students.	Eng.	RS %	2 .8	65 26.0	105 42.0	78 31.2	250
	Law	RS %	10 4.4	98 43.4	83 36.7	35 15.5	226
	Med.	RS %	6 4.3	30 21.6	67 48.2	36 25.9	139
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their students.	Eng.	RS %	4 1.6	46 18.5	121 48.6	78 31.3	249
	Law	RS %	6 2.7	63 28.0	114 50.7	42 18.7	225
	Med.	RS %	7 5.1	36 26.1	63 45.6	32 23.2	138

Table 7--continued

Item	Professional School	Strongly Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total Responses
		RS %		RS %		RS %		
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their student(s) to participate in sexual activity.	Eng.	RS %	2 .8	52 20.7	110 43.8	87 34.7	251	
	Law	RS %	10 4.5	69 30.8	98 43.7	47 21.0	224	
	Med.	RS %	6 4.3	23 16.6	64 46.0	46 33.1	139	
17. Student(s) have experienced forms of sexual harassment by their instructors.	Eng.	RS %	11 4.4	55 22.1	111 44.6	72 28.9	249	
	Law	RS %	15 6.9	78 35.8	88 40.4	37 17.0	218	
	Med.	RS %	8 5.8	43 30.9	55 39.6	33 23.7	139	
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	Eng.	RS %	9 3.6	52 20.8	112 44.8	77 30.8	250	
	Law	RS %	9 4.0	80 35.9	94 42.1	40 17.9	223	
	Med.	RS %	4 2.9	31 22.3	65 46.8	39 28.1	139	

^a = Engineering

^b = Medicine

RS^c = Raw Score, number of respondents designating agreement

%^d = Percentage of respondents designating agreement to the nearest tenth percent

Table 7 also demonstrates that there tended to be a greater percentage of law students, than either medical or engineering students, who believed in the occurrence of the blatant forms of sexual harassment. Approximately 50 percent of the law students, compared to 40 and 32 percent of the medical and engineering students, respectively, believe that "student(s) have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s)" (Item 6). About 26 percent of the engineering and medical students agreed that "instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their student(s)," compared to almost 48 percent of the law students (Item 12). Almost 35 percent of the law students agreed that "instructor(s) have 'propositioned' their student(s) to participate in sexual activity" (Item 14). About 43 percent of the law students, 37 percent of the medical students, and 26 percent of the engineering students, agreed that students experience "sexual harassment" by their instructors (Item 17).

Additional analysis of the twelve items, taken from Part I of the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment, indicates that graduate students' attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment are different than those of undergraduates (see Table 8). A greater percentage of graduates than undergraduates tended to agree that subtle forms of sexual harassment occurred (Items 1, 3, 5, and 9). Approximately 28 percent of the graduates, compared to about 15 percent of the undergraduates, agreed that women are discouraged by instructors from entering non-traditional fields of study (Item 1). Almost 47 percent of the graduates and 29 percent of the undergraduates agreed that instructors

Table 8

Differences in Attitudes and Beliefs Concerning Sexual Harassment Between Graduate (G) and Undergraduate (UG) Female Students Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages

Item	Level	RS ^a %	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Responses
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are nontraditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).	G	RS ^a %	35 5.1	157 22.7	333 48.3	165 23.9	690
	UG	RS %	11 2.7	50 12.2	228 55.6	121 29.5	410
3. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.	G	RS %	80 11.6	242 35.0	272 39.3	98 14.2	692
	UG	RS %	18 4.4	102 25.1	217 53.3	70 17.2	407
5. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" women.	G	RS %	92 13.3	282 40.8	244 35.3	73 10.6	691
	UG	RS %	26 6.4	119 29.2	189 46.3	74 18.1	408
6. Students have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).	G	RS %	43 6.2	233 33.7	279 40.3	137 19.8	692
	UG	RS %	26 6.4	107 26.2	178 43.6	97 23.8	408

Table 8--continued

Item	Level	RS %	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Responses
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	G	RS %	12 1.7	95 13.9	300 43.8	278 40.6	685
	UG	RS %	5 1.2	72 17.6	150 36.7	182 44.5	409
8. Instructor(s) have unnecessarily touched, patted, or brushed up against students.	G	RS %	36 5.2	163 23.7	289 42.0	200 29.1	688
	UG	RS %	21 5.1	83 20.3	168 41.2	136 33.3	408
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	G	RS %	95 13.7	294 42.4	238 34.3	67 9.6	694
	UG	RS %	27 6.6	148 36.2	183 44.7	51 12.5	409
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their students.	G	RS %	27 3.9	213 30.9	292 42.3	158 22.9	690
	UG	RS %	9 2.2	106 26.0	174 42.6	119 29.2	408

Table 8--continued

Item	Level	RS %	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Responses
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their students.	G	RS %	24 3.5	169 24.7	326 47.6	166 24.2	685
	UG	RS %	8 2.0	90 22.2	195 48.0	113 27.8	
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their student(s) to participate in sexual activity.	G	RS %	24 3.5	166 24.2	297 43.3	199 29.0	686
	UG	RS %	8 2.0	86 21.0	187 45.7	128 31.3	
17. Student(s) have experienced forms of sexual harassment by their instructors.	G	RS %	36 5.3	193 28.4	285 41.9	166 24.4	680
	UG	RS %	16 3.9	95 23.3	179 44.0	117 28.7	
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	G	RS %	23 3.4	182 26.6	301 43.9	179 26.1	685
	UG	RS %	18 4.4	83 20.4	189 46.4	117 28.7	

RS^a = Raw Score, number of respondents designating agreement

%^b = Percentage of respondents designating agreement to the nearest tenth percent

made "negative remarks about females as a group" (Item 3). About 13 percent of the graduates believed that instructors told jokes that were derogatory to women, while about 6 percent of the undergraduates held the same belief (Item 5). From Item 9, it is apparent that almost 64 percent of the graduates, and almost 49 percent of the undergraduates, agreed that instructors stereotype women in their classroom presentations.

A greater percentage of graduates, compared to undergraduates, tended to agree that blatant forms of sexual harassment occur. The items which include these blatant forms of harassment are presented on Table 8 (Items 6, 12, and 17). Almost 33 percent of the undergraduates, and about 40 percent of the graduates, believed that students experienced "unwanted sexual attention" from their professors (Item 6). Approximately 35 percent of the graduates and 28 percent of the undergraduates agreed that instructors "have made sexual advances towards their students" (Item 12). About 34 percent of the graduates, compared to 28 percent of the undergraduates, believed that students experienced "sexual harassment" (Item 17).

Items Concerning Experiences

The items from Part II of the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment, that were used to investigate personal experiences concerning sexual harassment, were subjected to chi square analyses. These items require a "yes" or "no" response according to the student's personal experiences. The results displayed on Table 9 represent the differences

Table 9
 Differences of Experiences of Sexual Harassment Between Female Students
 Enrolled in Traditional (T) and Nontraditional (NT) Professional Fields
 of Study Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages

Item	Professional School		Yes	No	Total Responses	Chi Square	P <
	T	NT					
21. Instructor(s) have tried to discourage me from choosing a career that is non-traditional for my sex (e.g., female pursuing engineering, male pursuing nursing).	RS ^a	396	50	396	446	9.06	.0026
	% ^b	88.8	11.2	88.8			
22. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about females as a group.	RS	506	112	506	618		
	%	81.9	18.1	81.9			
25. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	RS	249	199	249	448	15.63	.0001
	%	55.6	44.4	55.6			
25. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	RS	267	352	267	619		
	%	43.1	56.9	43.1			
25. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	RS	250	197	250	447	15.25	.0001
	%	55.9	44.1	55.9			
25. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	RS	270	349	270	619		
	%	43.6	56.4	43.6			

Table 9--continued

Item	Professional School		Yes	No	Total Responses	Chi Square	p <
	RS %	NT %					
26. An instructor(s) has asked me for sexual favors in return for grades/letters of recommendation.	T	RS %	13 2.9	435 97.1	448	.41	.5241
	NT	RS %	13 2.1	606 97.9			
27. I have experienced an instructor(s) who has made unnecessary and unwanted physical contact with me.	T	RS %	75 16.8	372 83.2	447	.37	.5420
	NT	RS %	114 18.4	505 81.6			
29. I have experienced unwanted sexual attention from my instructor(s).	T	RS %	75 16.8	372 83.2	447	1.94	.1633
	NT	RS %	126 20.4	493 79.6			
32. I have been "propounded" by an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activities.	T	RS %	38 8.5	408 91.5	446	.06	.8090
	NT	RS %	49 7.9	570 92.1			

Table 9--continued

Item	Professional School	Yes		No		Total Responses	Chi Square	p <
		RS %		RS %				
33. I have experienced sexual harassment by my instructor(s).	T	RS %	42 9.4	404 90.6	446	.01	.9280	
	NT	RS %	58 9.4	556 90.5				614
34. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s).	T	RS %	46 10.3	399 89.7	445	4.39	.0362	
	NT	RS %	92 14.9	525 85.1				617
35. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped women in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks.	T	RS %	214 48.1	231 51.9	445	29.48	.0001	
	NT	RS %	402 64.9	217 35.1				619
38. An instructor(s) has made sexual advances towards me.	T	RS %	64 14.5	378 85.5	442	.01	.9408	
	NT	RS %	89 14.4	527 85.5				616

RS^a = Raw Score, number of respondents designating agreement

%^b = Percentage of respondents designating agreement to the nearest tenth percent

of experiences of sexual harassment between female students enrolled in traditional and non-traditional professional fields of study. Table 9 presents an association between "professional school" and the blatant forms of sexual harassment (Items 21, 22, 25, 34, and 35). The level of association for these items is less than .05 (Table 9). There is, however, a lack of association between professional school and the blatant forms of sexual harassment (Items 26, 27, 29, 32, 33, and 38). Close examination of Table 9 reveals that about the same percentage of students in both traditional and non-traditional professional schools have experienced "sexual advances" (Item 38), "sexual harassment" (Item 33), being "propositioned" (Item 32), being asked for "sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation" (Item 26), "unnecessary and unwanted physical contact" (Item 27), and "unwanted sexual attention" (Item 29). As can be seen from Table 9, when there is a difference in the percentage, a greater percentage of students in the non-traditional fields have had those experiences. The association that exists between the professional school and the subtle forms of harassment allows the rejection of the fourth null hypothesis. There are significant differences in the number of women who have experienced sexual harassment when comparing women in traditional and non-traditional professional fields of study (Table 9).

A significant association exists ($p < .05$) between the numbers of women experiencing sexual harassment and the non-traditional professional areas of study; engineering, law, and medicine (Table 10).

This association becomes evident when examining the items representing the subtle forms of sexual harassment (Items 21, 22, 25, and 35). The fields of dentistry, medicine, and veterinary medicine have been combined to create the category of "medicine" to allow for more accurate analysis (Table 10). Eighty percent of the female students in medicine have experienced "instructor(s) who made negative remarks about females as a group," while 64 percent of the law students, and 38 percent of the engineering students, have had the same experience (Item 22). Approximately 32 percent of the medical students have experienced an instructor who discouraged them from entering a field that was not traditional for their sex, while 16 and 12 percent of the engineering and law students, respectively, reported having this experience (Item 22). A greater percentage of medical students perceived themselves as having experienced subtle forms of harassment, such as, sex-stereotyping in classroom instruction (82 percent), and jokes that are derogatory to women (78 percent), than women in either engineering and law schools. Four of the five items designated as subtle forms of harassment show as association as $p < .05$. The fifth null hypothesis is rejected as there are significant differences in the numbers of women experiencing sexual harassment among the non-traditional fields of study (Table 10).

Table 11 includes 11 items from Part II of the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment. These questions require a "yes" or "no" response according to the student's personal experiences. The graduate student sample, represented on Table 11, is composed of female students enrolled in programs leading to degrees in dentistry, education, law,

medicine, and veterinary medicine. The undergraduate student sample is composed of female students enrolled in programs leading to degrees in education and engineering. Four items on Table 11 demonstrate an association with the students' level in school. A greater number of graduate students have had experiences in situations that are categorized as subtle types of sexual harassment. Such statements as "I have experienced an instructor(s) who has made negative remarks about females as a group" have chi square values with less than a .0001 significance level and indicate an association with the respondents' level in school (Item 22). The same association is indicated for Items 25 and 35 where approximately 60 percent of the graduate students experienced "an instructor(s) who told jokes that 'put down' women" as well as experiencing stereotyping in classroom instructional methods. Approximately 40 percent of the undergraduate women indicated that they had these experiences. A greater percentage of graduate women, than undergraduate women, perceived themselves as having experienced "subtle pressures for sexual activity" from their instructors (Item 34).

A larger percentage of graduate, than undergraduate, women indicated that they have experienced the blatant forms of sexual harassment. Twelve percent of the undergraduates indicated that an instructor had "made sexual advances" (Item 38), while 16 percent of the graduate students indicated that experience (Table 11). Two percent more graduates, than undergraduates, indicated that they had been "propositioned" (Item 32). Approximately 20 percent of the graduate students experienced "unwanted sexual attention," while about 17 percent

of the undergraduates had that experience (Item 29). Items 26, 27, and 33 show similar differences between levels. Table 11 demonstrates that 10.6 percent of the graduate students, and 7.1 percent of the undergraduates, felt that they had been sexually harassed (Item 33). The chi square values for these items show that there is no significant degree of association between the experience of the blatant types of sexual harassment and the students' level of school. The findings represented on Table 11 suggest the rejection of the sixth null hypothesis as there are significant differences in the number of female students who have had experiences of sexual harassment when graduate and undergraduate women are compared.

The Relationship Between Items

A canonical correlation analysis was conducted to test the seventh hypothesis concerning the differences between students' attitudes and beliefs, and their experiences of sexual harassment. Two canonical factors were constructed from composites of canonical variables. The relationships between the composites of canonical variables for the first set (attitudes) and the second set (experiences) created two canonical factors. These results are reported on Table 12.

Canonical Factor 1 displays a canonical correlation of .795. This correlation represents the relationship between the canonical variables from the first set (attitudes) and the second set (experiences). This relationship is significant at less than the .0001 level of significance. The canonical variables were selected if they displayed

a correlation coefficient of greater than .5. The first factor shows high positive correlations for the canonical variables that are attitude items focusing on subtle forms of harassment (Items 1, 3, 5, and 9). The second set (experiences) shows high positive correlations for similar items representing the subtle forms of harassment (Items 21, 22, 25, and 35). Canonical Factor 1 also presents canonical variables, from attitude items, with positive correlations above the .5 cut-off, that represent the blatant forms of sexual harassment (Items 6, 8, 12, 13, 17, and 18). These attitude items do not have matching canonical variables, from the experience set, with positive correlations greater than .5. Positive correlations in Canonical Factor 1 indicate disagreement.

Canonical Factor 2 is also displayed on Table 12. The composites of canonical variables from the first set (attitudes) and the second set (experiences) show a canonical correlation of .627. The relationship between these two composites is significant at less than the .0001 level of significance. The canonical variables within the second factor represent the same two attitude and experience items that express blatant forms of harassment (Items 8, 13, 27, and 29). Negative correlations found within this factor represent agreement (Table 12). The seventh hypothesis is rejected as there is a significant relationship between students' attitudes and beliefs, and their experiences of sexual harassment.

Table 10
 Differences of Experiences of Sexual Harassment of Female Students Among
 Nontraditional Professional Areas of Study Expressed
 in Raw Scores and Percentages

Item	Professional School	Total Responses		Chi Square	P <	
		Yes	No			
21. Instructor(s) have tried to discourage me from choosing a career that is non-traditional for my sex (e.g., female pursuing engineering, male pursuing nursing).	Eng. ^a	RS 40 15.9	RS ^c 212 84.1	252	23.72	.0001
	Law	RS 28 12.3	RS 200 87.7	228		
	Med. ^b	RS 44 31.9	RS 94 68.1	138		
22. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about females as a group.	Eng.	RS 95 37.7	RS 157 62.3	252	72.47	.0001
	Law	RS 146 64.0	RS 82 36.0	228		
	Med.	RS 111 79.9	RS 28 20.1	139		
25. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	Eng.	RS 93 36.9	RS 159 63.1	252	71.30	.0001
	Law	RS 148 64.9	RS 80 35.1	228		
	Med.	RS 108 77.7	RS 31 22.3	139		

Table 10--continued

Item	Professional School		Total Responses		Chi Square	P <
	Yes	No	Yes	No		
26. An instructor(s) has asked me for sexual favors in return for grades/letters of recommendation.	RS	245	252		.36	.8350
	%	$\frac{245}{97.2}$				
		7	$\frac{7}{2.8}$			
Med.	RS	224	228			
	%	$\frac{224}{98.2}$				
		4	$\frac{4}{1.7}$			
27. I have experienced an instructor(s) who has made unnecessary and unwanted physical contact with me.	RS	137	139		3.05	.2180
	%	$\frac{137}{98.6}$				
		2	$\frac{2}{1.4}$			
Eng.	RS	212	252			
	%	$\frac{212}{84.1}$				
		40	$\frac{40}{15.9}$			
Law	RS	186	228			
	%	$\frac{186}{81.6}$				
		42	$\frac{42}{18.4}$			
Med.	RS	107	139			
	%	$\frac{107}{77.0}$				
		32	$\frac{32}{23.0}$			
29. I have experienced unwanted sexual attention from my instructor(s).	RS	205	252		1.07	.5855
	%	$\frac{205}{81.3}$				
		47	$\frac{47}{18.6}$			
Eng.	RS	181	228			
	%	$\frac{181}{79.4}$				
		47	$\frac{47}{20.6}$			
Law	RS	107	139			
	%	$\frac{107}{77.0}$				
		32	$\frac{32}{23.0}$			
Med.	RS	107	139			
	%	$\frac{107}{77.0}$				
		32	$\frac{32}{23.0}$			

Table 10—continued

Item	Professional School		Total Responses		Chi Square	P <
	Yes	No	Yes	No		
32. I have been "propo- sitioned" by an in- structor(s) to par- ticipate in sexual activities.	RS	233	19	233	.51	.7755
	%	92.5	7.5	92.5		
	RS	211	17	228		
	%	92.5	7.5			
33. I have experienced sexual harassment by my instructor(s).	RS	126	13	139	3.01	.2222
	%	90.6	9.3			
	RS	233	18	251		
	%	92.8	7.2			
34. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s).	RS	202	23	225	4.53	.1037
	%	89.8	10.2			
	RS	121	17	138		
	%	87.7	12.3			
34. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s).	RS	223	29	252	4.53	.1037
	%	88.5	11.5			
	RS	186	42	228		
	%	81.6	18.4			
34. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s).	RS	116	21	137	4.53	.1037
	%	84.7	15.3			

Table 10--continued

Item	Professional School		Yes	No	Total Responses	Chi Square	p <
	RS %	RS %					
35. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped women in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks.	Eng.	RS %	$\frac{123}{48.8}$	$\frac{129}{51.1}$	252	52.13	.0001
	Law	RS %	$\frac{165}{72.4}$	$\frac{63}{27.6}$	228		
	Med.	RS %	$\frac{114}{82.0}$	$\frac{25}{18.0}$	139		
38. An instructor(s) has made sexual advances towards me.	Eng.	RS %	$\frac{33}{13.2}$	$\frac{217}{86.8}$	250	.81	.6664
	Law	RS %	$\frac{33}{14.5}$	$\frac{194}{85.5}$	227		
	Med.	RS %	$\frac{23}{16.5}$	$\frac{116}{83.4}$	139		

Eng.^a = EngineeringMed.^b = MedicineRS^c = Raw Score, number of respondents designating agreement%^d = Percentage of respondents designating agreement to the nearest tenth percent

Table 11
 Differences of Experiences of Sexual Harassment Between Graduate (G)
 and Undergraduate Level (UG) Female Students
 Expressed in Raw Scores and Percentages

Item	Level	Yes	No	Total Responses	Chi Square	P <
21. Instructor(s) have tried to discourage me from choosing a career that is non-traditional for my sex (e.g., female pursuing engineering, male pursuing nursing).	G	RS ^a 113 16.3	578 83.6	691	2.10	.1474
	UG	RS 53 12.9	357 87.1			
22. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about females as a group.	G	RS 411 59.2	283 40.8	694	39.3	.0001
	UG	RS 162 39.5	248 60.5			
25. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	G	RS 409 59.0	284 41.0	693	41.43	.0001
	UG	RS 159 38.8	251 61.2			

Table 11--continued

Item	Level	RS %	Yes %	No %	Total Responses	Chi Square	P <
26. An instructor(s) has asked me for sexual favors in return for grades/letters of recommendation.	G	RS %	14 2.0	680 98.0	694	.57	.4487
	UG	RS %	12 2.9	398 97.1	410		
27. I have experienced an instructor(s) who has made unnecessary and unwanted physical contact with me.	G	RS %	131 18.9	562 81.1	693	1.44	.2305
	UG	RS %	65 15.8	345 84.1	410		
29. I have experienced unwanted sexual attention from my instructor(s).	G	RS %	135 19.5	558 80.5	693	.66	.4173
	UG	RS %	71 17.3	339 82.7	410		
32. I have been "propositioned" by an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activities.	G	RS %	61 8.8	632 91.2	693	1.08	.2997
	UG	RS %	28 6.8	381 93.1	409		

Table 11--continued

Item	Level	RS %	Yes %	No %	Total Responses	Chi Square	p <
33. I have experienced sexual harassment by my instructor(s).	G	$\frac{73}{10.6}$	$\frac{73}{10.6}$	$\frac{615}{89.4}$	688	3.36	.0667
	UG	$\frac{29}{7.1}$	$\frac{29}{7.1}$	$\frac{380}{92.9}$	409		
34. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s).	G	$\frac{101}{14.6}$	$\frac{101}{14.6}$	$\frac{590}{85.4}$	691	4.36	.0363
	UG	$\frac{41}{10.0}$	$\frac{41}{10.0}$	$\frac{367}{90.0}$	408		
35. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped women in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks.	G	$\frac{446}{64.4}$	$\frac{446}{64.4}$	$\frac{246}{35.5}$	692	32.50	.0001
	UG	$\frac{191}{46.7}$	$\frac{191}{46.7}$	$\frac{218}{53.4}$	409		
38. An instructor(s) has made sexual advances towards me.	G	$\frac{110}{15.9}$	$\frac{110}{15.9}$	$\frac{581}{84.1}$	691	3.05	.0809
	UG	$\frac{48}{11.9}$	$\frac{48}{11.9}$	$\frac{356}{88.1}$	404		

RS^a = Raw Score, number of respondents designating agreement

%^b = Percentage of respondents designating agreement to the nearest tenth percent

Table 12

Two Canonical Factors That Relate to Attitude
and Experience Items Expressed by Correlation Coefficients

CANONICAL FACTOR 1		
Canonical Correlation = .795	Chi Square = 2181.9	P < .0001
Attitude Items		Cnvrs. ^a
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are non-traditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).		.643
3. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.		.816
5. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" women.		.811
6. Students have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).		.610
8. Instructor(s) have unnecessarily touched, patted, or brushed up against students.		.565
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.		.822
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their students.		.503
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their students.		.537
17. Student(s) have experienced forms of sexual harassment by their instructors.		.617
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).		.524

Table 12--continued

Experience Items	Cnvr.s.
21. Instructor(s) have tried to discourage me from choosing a career that is non-traditional for my sex (e.g., female pursuing engineering, male pursuing nursing).	.531
22. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about females as a group.	.801
25. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	.755
35. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped women in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks.	.777
CANONICAL FACTOR 2	
Canonical Correlation = .627	Chi Square = 1701.6 P < .0001
Attitude Items	Cnvr.s. ^b
8. Instructor(s) have unnecessarily touched, patted, or brushed up against students.	-.541
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their students.	-.513
Experience Items	Cnvr.s.
27. I have experienced an instructor(s) who has made unnecessary and unwanted physical contact with me.	-.672
29. I have experienced unwanted sexual attention from my instructor(s).	-.577

Cnvr.s.^a = Correlation coefficient for canonical variables

Cnvr.s.^b = All items correlate positively. The negative sign on the correlations indicate agreement based on the 1 to 4 values assigned to the Likert-type scale on the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment

CHAPTER FIVE
Conclusions, Discussion, and Implications

The primary purpose of this study was to provide more accurate information pertaining to the number of women students who have experienced sexual harassment during the course of their experiences in academia. This study also examined the perceptions of women students toward the occurrence of sexual harassment. In addition, this research reinforced the existing definition of sexual harassment as it pertains to students.

The results of this study can be generalized only to female students in the state university system of Florida who are enrolled in the following selected professional schools: dentistry, education, engineering, law, medicine, and veterinary medicine. The total population of female students in the graduate level, non-traditional professional areas of study (dentistry, law, medicine, and veterinary medicine) was surveyed. All of the undergraduate engineering students who were enrolled at the participating universities were surveyed. A sample of undergraduate and graduate education majors were selected from the three participating universities (Florida State University, the University of Florida, and the University of South Florida).

The Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment was mailed to 2,507 women students in the selected professional major areas of study (Appendix B). There were 1,111 questionnaires that were used for the analysis of data. The Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment was developed by the

researcher to aid in the examination of the problem of sexual harassment. Items were constructed from the components of a definition of sexual harassment published by the Project on the Status and Education of Women in 1978. The pilot tests on the questionnaire demonstrated that sexual harassment could be considered a dichotomous variable including components of subtle and blatant forms of harassment (Appendix C.2). The canonical correlation analysis of this study reinforced the viewpoint that a dichotomy exists within the definition of sexual harassment.

Results from this study were analyzed by means of several statistical computer programs. Part I of the questionnaire focused upon attitudes and beliefs of students concerning the occurrence of sexual harassment. This information was examined by a multivariate analysis of variance (Clyde 1969) and a one-way analysis of variance a posteriori test from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, N., Hull, C., Jenkins, J., Steinbrenner, K., and Bent, D. 1975). A cross-tabulation matrix and chi square analyses were used to examine the data from Part II of the questionnaire which focused upon personal experiences (Engelman, L., Fane, J., and Jennrich, R. 1977). A canonical correlation analysis was used to determine the relationship between responses from Part I and Part II of the questionnaire, as well as to extricate factors that may be used to clarify the definition of sexual harassment (Engelman et al. 1977).

Conclusions

The conclusions based on information obtained from Part I of the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment must be qualified on the basis of the findings indicated by the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The MANOVA indicates a significant interaction between the Level (graduate and undergraduate) and School (non-traditional and traditional) variables; therefore, the groups are not independent. The first three hypotheses may be rejected, as there are differences in attitudes and beliefs between the four groups. The data cannot be simplified beyond the Level/School interaction, therefore, drawing specific conclusions from the Level/School model may take the data out of context. Final conclusions concerning attitudes and beliefs about sexual harassment cannot be made based on Level and School; however, conclusions can be made based on significant trends in the data:

1. A greater percentage of women in non-traditional fields of study compared to those in traditional fields of study, agree that subtle forms of sexual harassment occur;
2. A greater percentage of women students in medical and law schools, compared to those in engineering schools, agree that subtle forms of sexual harassment occur;
3. A greater percentage of graduate level students, than undergraduate level students, agree that subtle and blatant forms of sexual harassment occur;
4. A greater percentage of women in law and medical schools, than in engineering schools, agree that blatant forms of sexual harassment occur;
5. There are no significant differences in the perceptions of the occurrence of blatant forms of sexual harassment between women in non-traditional and traditional fields of study.

The following conclusions are based on the information obtained from Part II of the Questionnaire on Sexual Harassment. Part II of the questionnaire is concerned with the students' personal experiences of sexual harassment.

1. Women in non-traditional fields of study, more so than women in traditional fields of study, tend to experience subtle forms of sexual harassment.
2. Graduate students are more likely to experience subtle forms of sexual harassment than undergraduate students.
3. Women preparing for medical professions, more so than women in law and engineering schools, tend to experience subtle forms of sexual harassment.
4. There are no significant differences in experiences of blatant forms of sexual harassment when comparing the following groups:
 - a. non-traditional and traditional
 - b. medicine, law, and engineering
 - c. graduate and undergraduate.

The canonical correlation analysis provided the information on which the following conclusions are based:

1. Women students perceptions concerning the occurrence of sexual harassment are congruent with their experiences.
2. There is a tendency for those students who have not experienced subtle forms of sexual harassment to believe that both the subtle and blatant forms of harassment do not occur.
3. The definition of sexual harassment includes two distinct factors which may be considered subtle and blatant forms of harassment.

Discussion

The conclusions of this study focus upon attitudes, beliefs, and experiences concerning sexual harassment of female students in selected

professional major areas of study. The conclusions that are drawn from the data, that relate to attitudes and beliefs, must be qualified.

The original factors of Level (L) and School (S) do not clearly explain the differences in the data. Significantly, more information exists in the data than the L and S model supplies. The interaction of LS indicates that within each group of L, the S effect is different, and within each group of S, the L effect is different. There is some relationship between L and the data and S and the data; however, the interaction effect prevents clear-cut interpretation of the results. Conclusions that are drawn concerning graduates must be made with the understanding that a graduate student is also a member of a traditional or non-traditional professional school. The same consideration must be given when contemplating conclusions concerning students in the other three groups (undergraduate, traditional, and non-traditional). Although the L effect is different for each S and the S effect is different for each L, the direction that the data takes is the same.

Graduate students and students in non-traditional fields of study tend to agree that subtle forms of harassment occur. Several factors may account for this conclusion:

1. graduate students tend to be registered in classes with a smaller student/teacher ratio than undergraduates;
2. graduate students, compared to undergraduate students, tend to be exposed to a greater number of professors with higher rank, and professors with higher rank tend to be males;
3. students in non-traditional fields attend classes usually taught by males;

4. professors in non-traditional fields are accustomed to preparing for classes geared for and dominated by male students;
5. the male-dominated environment is possibly more conducive to sex-role stereotyping, negative remarks about females as a group, and jokes that are demeaning to women, than are classes in traditional fields.

Law and medical students' perceptions concerning the occurrence of blatant and subtle forms of harassment may differ from the perceptions of engineering students, due to several factors:

1. Law and medical students are graduate level students and probably have more college experience and exposure to a greater number of professors, than do undergraduate engineering students;
2. Law and medical students tend to be older and have more life experience with which to identify sexist behaviors.

There appear to be no statistically significant differences in the experiences of blatant forms of harassment between the four groups. Small percentage differences do occur in the experiences of blatant forms of harassment between the groups. Unwanted sexual attention, sexual advances by an instructor, unnecessary and unwanted physical contact, are items included in the blatant factor. It may be said that between 15 and 20 percent of the women students in this study, regardless of professional major area or level in school, have had experiences similar to those mentioned above.

It appears that female students in the medical professions (dentistry, medicine, veterinary medicine) suffer these experiences more so than students in other major areas of study. It should be noted that 80 percent

of the women in the medical school grouping indicate that they have experienced negative remarks about women as a group, jokes that "put down" women, and stereotyping in lectures and presentations. About 65 percent of the law students indicate that they have had the same experiences of subtle forms of sexual harassment. These results lead to salient implications.

The results indicate that the students' perceptions concerning the occurrence of sexual harassment relate to personal experiences of harassment. Those who have not experienced sexual harassment tend to disagree that it occurs. Those students who have experienced harassment tend to agree that it occurs. The canonical composites indicate two distinct factors, similar to those of the pilot study, described in Appendix C, which relate to the development of the questionnaire that may be labeled subtle and blatant forms of harassment.

Implications

The following implications may be derived as a result of this research:

1. In-service education is needed to aid professors in developing an awareness of sex-fair teaching techniques and materials, especially in non-traditional professional major areas.
2. In-service education is needed to aid professors in consciousness-raising concerning sex-stereotypic attitudes and beliefs.
3. In-service education is needed to acquaint professors with Title IX regulations that prohibit sex discrimination.
4. Active recruitment efforts are needed to fill the void of female professors on all levels of rank and to provide role models for women pursuing careers in non-traditional professions.

5. Support groups need to be provided for women in non-traditional professional areas of study, to aid them in coping with the sex-stereotypic effects of a male-dominated environment.
6. Printed materials that address the issue of sexual harassment on the campus and describe a due process reporting procedure, need to be distributed to students, professors, and administrators.
7. The issue of sexual harassment needs to be addressed in the code of ethics of the appropriate associations and/or organizations that serve university instructional personnel.

The results of this study indicate a need for research in the following areas:

1. A replication of this study with matched groups such as pre-law, pre-medical, and medical.
2. A replication of this study in the private and/or church supported universities.
3. A replication of this study in other non-traditional major areas of study for women.
4. A study of the experiences of sexual harassment of female university staff including graduate assistants, instructional personnel, and administrators.
5. A replication of this study using age as an independent variable.
6. A structural analysis to examine the best predictive items on the questionnaire with respect to university level and professional major area of study.
7. A replication of this study involving students who withdraw or transfer from the universities.
8. A replication of this study in geographical areas dissimilar to Florida.

APPENDIX A
Notation

It is noted here that despite telephone and written communications with the Affirmative Action Office, the Vice President for Student Affairs, and the Registrar of the University of South Florida, there was a considerable delay in acquiring enrollment lists. Obtaining these lists required three months of waiting and continued efforts by the researcher and the Dean of Student Services at the University of Florida. It should also be noted that without the Dean's aid in this matter, the lists probably would not have been sent to the researcher.

Due to the fact that many questionnaires did not arrive until after the quarter was over, follow-up postcards were not sent to the University of South Florida sample.

APPENDIX B
Sample Cover Letter and Questionnaire

University of Florida
Office for Student Services
Gainesville, Florida 32611

Dear Student:

As a woman student pursuing a career in a traditionally male-dominated profession, you are in a unique position to offer valuable insight into vital issues that affect women preparing for professional careers. The goal of this study is to provide information concerning factors that affect the lives of women who choose to overcome stereotypes as they move into non-traditional vocations. Such a move requires the ability to develop and cope with relationships with predominantly male educators.

The enclosed survey focuses upon your relationships with your professors, supervisors, and advisors and the environment they provide for you. The Office for Student Services, and the Institute on Sexism at Florida International University, have endorsed this study.

I realize your time is valuable. This questionnaire will not require more than 15 minutes of your time. The questionnaires have been coded specifically for the purpose of reducing the number of follow-up mailings. This is an anonymous survey and coding information will be destroyed when your questionnaire is received.

Please return your questionnaire by _____. A stamped return envelope is enclosed. The results of this survey will be made available at your request.

My sincere thanks for your cooperation.

Judy Oshinsky
Ph.D. Candidate
University of Florida

Definition of Terms

The following terms have been clarified for the purpose of this questionnaire:

INSTRUCTOR(S) - One or more teacher, advisor, or university-employed staff members (e.g., graduate assistants).

PROPOSITIONED - Offered or suggested a plan for sexual interaction.

*The situations described on this questionnaire may have taken place in or out of the classroom (e.g., instructor's office).

PART I

	SA	A	D	SD
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are non-traditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Instructor(s) have stereotyped men in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Students have "propositioned" instructors to participate in sexual activity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" women.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Students have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Instructor(s) have unnecessarily touched, patted, or brushed up against students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Students who are discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are female, feel free to report the incident.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	SA	A	D	SD
11. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about males as a group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their student(s) to participate in sexual activity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Student(s) have made sexual advances towards their instructor(s).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" men.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Student(s) have experienced forms of sexual harassment by their instructor(s).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Student(s) who are being discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are male, feel free to report the incident.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

PLEASE READ THESE INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ITEMS 21-28. If the statement describes a personal experience that you have had, please place an X in the box in the column labeled "yes." If you have not experienced the situation described, please place an X in the box in the column labeled "no."

<u>PART II</u>	YES	NO
21. Instructor(s) have tried to discourage me from choosing a career that is non-traditional for my sex (e.g., female pursuing engineering, male pursuing nursing).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about females as a group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" men.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | YES | NO |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 24. I have "propositioned" an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activity. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. An instructor(s) has asked me for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. I have experienced an instructor(s) who has made unnecessary and unwanted physical contact with me. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. I feel free to report an incident of sexual harassment to university officials. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. I have experienced unwanted sexual attention from my instructor(s). | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30. If I were discriminated against by my instructor because of my sex, I would feel free to report the incident to university officials. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 31. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped men in lectures, remarks, and/or presentations. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 32. I have been "propositioned" by an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activity. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 33. I have experienced sexual harassment by my instructor(s). | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 34. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s). | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 35. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped women in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 36. I have made sexual advances towards my instructor(s). | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- | | YES | NO |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 37. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about males as a group. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 38. An instructor(s) has made sexual advances towards me. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
-
-

Comments. Please use this space for any comments or experiences that you wish to share:

Thank you for your cooperation!!

APPENDIX C
Revision of Sexual Harassment Questionnaire

Methodology

Subjects

The subjects in this study were students participating in undergraduate and graduate classes at the University of Florida during the Summer quarter. The questionnaire was distributed to an undergraduate class in Criminal Justice which consisted of 27 students, and a graduate class in Educational Foundations which consisted of 21 students.

The post-test was distributed to both groups three weeks after the pre-test. Questionnaires from those students who did not participate in the post-test were placed in a separate group, which were to be included in the pilot study.

The Final Sample

The final sample consisted of 20 subjects from the undergraduate class and 15 subjects from the graduate class for a total sample group of 35 subjects.

The undergraduate class consisted of students between the ages of 20 and 27. The graduate class consisted of students between the ages of 21 and 43. There was a total of 21 females and 14 males in the total sample group. There were nine different major areas of study represented. The total sample group consisted of 17 students, master's level and above, four juniors, and 14 senior class students, in the total sample group of 35.

Development

The questionnaire was revised to include two separate sections: (1) attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment; and, (2) personal experiences of sexual harassment.

The instrument was developed to encompass the various components of the definition of sexual harassment. Major components of the definition were identified from the Newsletter on the Project on the Status and Education of Women (1978).

- a. Verbal sexual harassment of male and female students: sexist jokes, remarks, sex-role stereotyping. Part I: six questions; Part II: six questions.
- b. Subtle and blatant forms of sexual harassment: inappropriate physical contact, sexual advances, propositioning in return for grades. Part I: eight questions; Part II: seven questions.

Additional questions refer to opinions regarding reporting incidents of sexual harassment (5 questions), students sexually harassing instructors (4 questions), and a general statement about the occurrence of sexual harassment on campus (2 questions).

Questions from the original questionnaire with an item correlation of below .4 were either reworded or discarded.

Item Writing and Item Review

The item form decided upon for Part I of this revision of the questionnaire was a four-point Likert-type scale on a continuum from Strongly Agree (SA) to Strongly Disagree (SD). The Undecided (?) choice was eliminated to create a forced choice and reduce the tendency toward

a response set. This differs from the five-point Likert-type scale of the original questionnaire.

The item form from Part II was a "yes" or "no" choice. The object of this part was to measure the frequency of occurrence. Personal experience was given a weight of one and no personal experience was given a weight of two.

Validity

The review panel was given a definition of sexual harassment in a cover letter which explained the purpose of the questionnaire. All panel members agreed that the questionnaire demonstrated "face" and "content" validity. The Fry Readability Formula was used to determine that the questionnaire was appropriate for college-level readers (Fry 1968, pp. 513-516).

The decision to include a larger number of items on verbal sexual harassment was necessary in order to include items that differentiate between males and females. In actuality, there are five questions concerning verbal sexual harassment. These were repeated for each sex. Two additional questions were added concerning student harassment of instructors. This was done to determine students' attitudes and beliefs concerning this phenomenon and to provide a variable which would reduce prejudices inherent in this type of survey.

Pre-testing procedures may have served as a factor of internal validity; subjects might have discussed the questionnaire, since sexual harassment is a controversial and sensitive issue. Although there were only three weeks between pre- and post-tests, the possibility exists that students changed their attitudes and opinions.

Validity and reliability. A test-retest was utilized by administering the identical questionnaire three weeks after the first testing session. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was obtained for each pre- and post-test item and total scores. (See Appendix C.1).

One means of establishing the construct validity and reliability was to conduct an item analysis to determine if each item discriminates the way it was intended to discriminate. Each item was weighted from one (Strongly Agree) to four (Strongly Disagree) on a four-point Likert-type scale. An analysis of variance was used to provide a factor analysis which determined which items clustered together and accounted for variance in scores. A T-score was obtained to determine whether these factors clustered together by chance. The level of significance was established at .001. All statistical analyses were computed through the STATJOB System of Statistical Programs for use on UNIVAC 1100 series computers. The DSTAT2 program was used to conduct the correlational analysis.

Procedures

The questionnaire was distributed to one undergraduate and one graduate class at the University of Florida during the Summer quarter. The undergraduates were students in a criminal justice class, and the graduate students were participating in a class in the Educational Foundations Department.

The students were asked to participate in a survey of "student-teacher" relationships. They were informed that this was a voluntary and anonymous survey and that their honesty and cooperation would be

appreciated. The graduate assistant told the students to read the instructions carefully. (See Appendix C.2.)

The students were instructed to use the last four digits of their student number as an identification number. The pre- and post-test were then matched using the student number. This was an effective method of matching pre- and post-test questionnaires.

Three weeks after the first administration, the identical test was given to the same classes. The graduate assistant explained that it was necessary to retake the questionnaire as part of a doctoral research study. The students were told that they would receive the results of the study sometime in the near future.

Results

This questionnaire was designed to obtain data concerning attitudes and beliefs and experiences of sexual harassment on the campus. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was used to determine the reliability of each pre- and post-test item. An Analysis of Variance, using a Principle Factor Analyses was conducted to determine reliability and constant validity. Correlation coefficients were determined for each pre- and post-test relationship. (See Appendix C.1.)

Analysis of Data

A statistical analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the pre- and post-tests. The analysis shows a positive correlation of .80. In order to further investigate the relationship between pre- and post-test data, a T-transformation Matrix demonstrated the

relationships to be significant at less than the .001 level of significance (Table 1). As shown on Table 2, Factor 1 accounts for 19.1 percent of the total variance. This factor was labeled "Attitudes concerning blatant forms of sexual harassment." The items (6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 17, and 18) include issues such as students being the recipients of unwanted sexual attention, inappropriate physical contact, and being propositioned for grades in return for sexual favors. Factor 2 on Table 2 was labeled "Subtle forms of sexual harassment" because the items (4, 22, 24, and 34) that cluster together in this factor address issues concerning sex-role stereotyping, jokes that "put down" women, and negative remarks about women as a group. This factor accounts for 9.4 percent of the total variance.

The attitudes and beliefs of graduate and undergraduate students concerning sexual harassment on campus are recorded on Table 3. These attitudes and beliefs (Items 1-20) are recorded by the percentage of students who agree or strongly agree with each item. The percentages were calculated to the nearest tenth of a percent.

The experiences of undergraduate and graduate students with various forms of sexual harassment are depicted on Table 4. These items (21-28) represent personal experiences of students. The percentages represent the percent of undergraduate students who demonstrated a response of "yes" to each individual item.

Table 13
Pre- and Post-Test Data (N=35)

	Sum	Mean	SD ^a	r ^b	t-score
Pre-test	2998	85.657	10.55		
Post-test	2914	83.257	10.86	.802	7.773*

* at the .001 level of significance

^aStandard Deviation

^bCorrelation Coefficient

Table 14
Factor Analysis of Attitude and Experience Items

FACTOR 1		Attitudes concerning blatant forms of sexual harassment accounting for 19.1 percent of total variance (total pre- and post-test data)			
Number	Sum	Mean	SA ^a	Variance	
6	171	2.4	.85	.802	
7	197	2.8	.84	.698	
8	192	2.7	.86	.779	
12	174	2.5	.79	.822	
13	191	2.7	.72	.860	
14	176	2.5	.86	.673	
17	189	2.7	.73	.728	
18	178	2.5	.74	.715	
FACTOR 2		Subtle forms of sexual harassment of women students accounting for 9.4 percent of total variance (total pre- and post-test data)			
4	178	2.5	.74	.513	
22	110	1.6	.50	.875	
24	109	1.6	.50	.828	
34	101	1.4	.50	.579	
FACTOR 3		Personal experiences of blatant forms of sexual harassment accounting for 9.3 percent of total variance (total pre- and post-test data)			
31	132	1.9	.32	.817	
32	131	1.9	.34	.782	
33	128	1.8	.38	.697	
37	130	1.9	.35	.738	
FACTOR 4		Subtle forms of sexual harassment of male students accounting for 7.7 percent of total variance (total pre- and post-test data)			
30	108	1.5	.50	.584	
36	118	1.7	.47	.871	
38	123	1.8	.43	.925	

^aStandard deviation

Table 15
 Pre- and Post-Test Scores of Attitudes of Undergraduate and
 Graduate Students* Towards Sexual Harassment on
 Campus (Percentage Agreeing with Items)

Item	Percentage Undergraduate Agreeing (N=20)	Percentage Graduate Agreeing (N=15)
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are non-traditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).	22.5	36.7
2. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.	45.0	40.0
3. Students have "propositioned" instructors to participate in sexual activities.	47.5	43.0
4. Instructor(s) tell jokes that "put down" women.	47.5	50.0
5. Instructor(s) have stereotyped men in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	47.5	66.7
6. Students have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructors.	57.5	46.7
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	42.5	30.0
8. Instructor(s) unnecessarily touch, pat, or brush up against students.	37.5	34.5
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	52.5	70.0

Table 15—continued

Item	Percentage Undergraduate Agreeing (N=20)	Percentage Graduate Agreeing (N=15)
10. Student(s) who are discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are female, feel free to report the incident.	37.5	40.0
11. Instructor(s) make negative remarks about males as a group.	7.5	13.0
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their student(s).	55.0	50.0
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their student(s).	37.5	36.7
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their student(s) to participate in sexual activity.	50.0	46.4
15. Student(s) have made sexual advances towards their instructor(s).	60.0	56.7
16. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" men.	20.0	36.7
17. Student(s) experience forms of sexual harassment by their instructor(s).	37.5	36.7
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	52.5	50.0
19. Student(s) who are being discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are male, feel free to report the incident.	37.5	40.0

Table 15--continued

Item	Percentage Undergraduate Agreeing (N=20)	Percentage Graduate Agreeing (N=15)
20. Students feel free to report incidents of sexual harassment to university officials.	35.0	33.0

* Male and Female Students

Table 16
 Pre-and Post-Test Scores of Undergraduate and Graduate Students' *
 Experiences of Sexual Harassment (Percentages Agreeing with Items)

Item	Percentage Undergraduate Agreeing (N=20)	Percentage Graduate Agreeing (N=15)
21. Instructor(s) have tried to discourage me from choosing a career that is non-traditional for my sex (e.g., female pursuing engineering).	17.5	6.7
22. I have experienced instructor(s) who make negative remarks about females as a group.	40.0	46.7
23. I have propositioned an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activity.	7.5	0
24. I have experienced instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	45.0	43.0
25. An instructor(s) asked me for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	10.0	3.0
26. I have experienced instructor(s) who has made unnecessary and unwanted physical contact with me.	20.0	23.0
27. I feel free to report an incident of sexual harassment to university officials.	50.0	46.7
28. I have experience unwanted sexual attention from my instructor(s).	27.5	13.0
29. If I were discriminated against by my instructor because of my sex, I would feel free to report the incident to university officials.	45.0	53.0

Table 16--continued

Item	Percentage Undergraduate Agreeing (N=20)	Percentage Graduate Agreeing (N=15)
30. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped men in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks.	45.0	46.7
31. I have been "propositioned" by an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activities.	12.5	10.0
32. I have experienced sexual harassment by my instructor(s).	17.5	6.7
33. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s).	15.0	20.0
34. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped women in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks.	55.0	56.7
35. I have made sexual advances towards my instructor(s).	10.0	0
36. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about males as a group.	27.5	36.7
37. An instructor(s) has made sexual advances towards me.	15.0	13.0
38. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" men.	20.0	30.0

* Male and Female Students

Conclusions, Discussion, Implications

Conclusions

This questionnaire was designed to assess attitudes and beliefs towards sexual harassment on campus, attitudes and beliefs reporting incidents of harassment, and the frequency of occurrence of incidents of sexual harassment.

The questionnaire was found to be reliable, when used with a pilot sample of graduate and undergraduate university students. An item analysis demonstrated that the test contained construct validity. Some items were evidently stronger in measuring what they were created to measure. These results are significant in determining which items can be eliminated for further refinement of the questionnaire. The Factor Analysis demonstrated which items correlated with each of the independent factors. The results show four distinct factors: attitudes concerning sexual harassment, experiences of sexual harassment, subtle forms of sexual harassment, and subtle forms of sexual harassment of males. This questionnaire is a reliable and valid measure of attitudes and beliefs concerning sexual harassment on campus, as well as being a reliable measure of the frequency of occurrence of incidents of sexual harassment.

Discussion

It is apparent from the results shown on Table 14 and Table 15 that undergraduates and graduates tend to agree and disagree similarly to the items on the questionnaire. Graduates appear to experience and to

agree more strongly to the occurrence of stereotyping and subtle forms of harassment. Graduates tend to feel "subtle pressure" for sexual activity more so than undergraduates. However, graduate students appear to experience unwanted and unnecessary physical contact. This may be due to greater exposure to one-to-one relationships with instructors on the graduate level. Too, the size of the sample is small enough to vary in percentage on an item that differs by only one respondent.

The sample size was too small to make comparisons between the attitude and experience variables. However, the questionnaire demonstrates its ability to measure both variables and provide valuable information.

Implications

Sexual harassment is a reality on college and university campuses. Hard data is necessary to convince university officials before administrative policies and procedures are developed. The questionnaire in this study is capable of providing data concerning attitudes and experiences focused on sexual harassment. The questionnaire needs refinement in item structure and definition of terms. Surveys are beginning to emerge on campuses across the country. These surveys help people become aware of the problem and demonstrate the need to provide effective measures for coping with it.

Further research is needed to determine the physiological and psychological effects of sexual harassment. Are women "dropping out" of graduate and nontraditional career programs because of sexual harassment?

Is sexual harassment of female students occurring more frequently to students in nontraditional academic programs such as law, medicine, and engineering?

These questions are just some areas that need to be addressed. At present, there is very little in the way of literature that touches on sexual harassment as an issue confronting university communities. The problem exists and it will not go away. It is time to confront this issue head on!

The Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted at the University of Florida during the Summer quarter, 1979. The sexual harassment questionnaire was distributed to two classes in the Behavioral Sciences Department.

Demographic Data

Questionnaires were distributed to 70 students in two classes. Additional questionnaires were incorporated into the pilot group from the "pre- post-test" group. These were questionnaires of subjects who took either the pre- or post-test and therefore could not be matched. A total of 72 out of 85 questionnaires were used for the analysis of data. Questionnaires which were incorrectly marked or incomplete were discarded.

The pilot group ranged from age 18 to age 33. There were 34 females and 38 males, representing 16 different major areas of study. Students were registered from freshman through masters level.

Discussion

Table 17 demonstrated that approximately 20 percent of the respondents experienced "unwanted sexual attention," and from six to nine percent experienced more blatant forms of harassment. These percentages would probably have been larger had the sample been of all female respondents. Approximately 50 percent of this sample would not feel free to report incidents to the university officials.

Over 50 percent of the respondents believe that instructors have made sexual advances towards their students, have provided unwanted sexual attention to students, and have "propositioned" their students. The data demonstrates that a larger percentage of the respondents believe sexual harassment occurs than have personally experienced it. However, this may be due to the male and female composition of the sample. Females are the traditional victims of most of the forms of sexual harassment and they compose less than half of the sample.

Table 17
 Experiences of and Attitudes Toward Blatant and Subtle Forms of Sexual Harassment, Students Harassing Professors, and Reporting Incidents of Sexual Harassment to University Officials.*
 (Percentages Agreeing With Items).

Attitude Items	Percentage
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are non-traditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).	24
2. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.	43
3. Students have "propositioned" instructors to participate in sexual activities.	39
4. Instructor(s) tell jokes that "put down" women.	39
5. Instructor(s) have stereotyped men in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	58
6. Student(s) have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).	50
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	36
8. Instructor(s) unnecessarily touch, pat, or brush up against student(s).	26
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	57
10. Student(s) who are discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are female, feel free to report the incident.	34
11. Instructor(s) make negative remarks about males as a group.	50
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their student(s).	51

Table 17--continued

Attitude Items	Percentage
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their student(s).	31
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their student(s) to participate in sexual activity.	45
15. Student(s) have made sexual advances towards their instructor(s).	59
16. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" men.	21
17. Student(s) experience forms of sexual harassment by their instructor(s).	42
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	47
19. Student(s) who are being discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are male, feel free to report the incident.	38
20. Students feel free to report incidents of sexual harassment to university officials.	24

Experience Items	Percentage
21. Instructor(s) have tried to discourage me from choosing a career that is non-traditional for my sex (e.g., female pursuing engineering).	9
22. I have experienced instructor(s) who make negative remarks about females as a group.	55
23. I have propositioned an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activity.	0
24. I have experienced instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	54
25. An instructor(s) has asked me for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	6
26. I have experienced an instructor(s) who has made unnecessary and unwanted physical contact with me.	15

Table 17--continued

Experience Items	Percentage
27. I feel free to report an incident of sexual harassment to university officials.	41
28. I have experienced unwanted sexual attention from my instructor(s).	19
29. If I were discriminated against by my instructor because of my sex, I would feel free to report the incident to university officials.	50
30. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped men in lectures, remarks, and/or presentations.	57
31. I have been "propositioned" by an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activities.	6
32. I have experienced sexual harassment by my instructor(s).	9
33. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s).	7
34. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped women in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks.	64
35. I have made sexual advances towards my instructor(s).	1
36. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about males as a group.	30
37. An instructor(s) has made sexual advances towards me.	9
38. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" men.	26

*Percentages estimated to the nearest whole percent

APPENDIX C.1
Pilot Study
Questionnaire

	<u>r^a</u>
1. Instructor(s) have discouraged women from choosing careers that are non-traditional for their sex (e.g., women becoming surgeons).	.746
2. Instructor(s) have made negative remarks about females as a group.	.570
3. Students have "propositioned" instructors to participate in sexual activities.	.430
4. Instructor(s) tell jokes that "put down" women.	.681
5. Instructor(s) have stereotyped men in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	.354
6. Student(s) have experienced unwanted sexual attention from their instructor(s).	.719
7. Instructor(s) have asked for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	.657
8. Instructor(s) unnecessarily touch, pat, or brush up against student(s).	.681
9. Instructor(s) have stereotyped women in their remarks, presentations, and/or lectures.	.279
10. Student(s) who are discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are female, feel free to report the incident.	.425
11. Instructor(s) make negative remarks about males as a group.	.538
12. Instructor(s) have made sexual advances towards their student(s).	.773
13. Instructor(s) have made unwanted physical contact with their student(s).	.806
14. Instructor(s) have "propositioned" their students to participate in sexual activity.	.453

	<u>r^a</u>
15. Student(s) have made sexual advances towards their instructor(s).	.343
16. Instructor(s) have told jokes that "put down" men.	.694
17. Student(s) experience forms of sexual harassment by their instructor(s).	.497
18. Student(s) have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with their instructor(s).	.631
19. Student(s) who are being discriminated against by their instructor(s) because they are male, feel free to report the incident.	.305
20. Students feel free to report incidents of sexual harassment to university officials.	.412
21. Instructor(s) have tried to discourage me from choosing a career that is non-traditional for my sex (e.g., female pursuing engineering).	.402
22. I have experienced instructor(s) who make negative remarks about females as a group.	.656
23. I have propositioned an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activity.	.697
24. I have experienced instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" women.	.629
25. An instructor(s) asked me for sexual favors in return for grades and/or letters of recommendation.	.364
26. I have experienced an instructor(s) who has made unnecessary and unwanted physical contact with me.	.773
27. I feel free to report an incident of sexual harassment to university officials.	.447
28. I have experienced unwanted sexual attention from my instructor(s).	.919
29. If I were discriminated against by my instructor because of my sex, I would feel free to report the incident to university officials.	.563

	<u>r^a</u>
30. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped men in lectures, remarks, and/or presentations.	.770
31. I have been "propositioned" by an instructor(s) to participate in sexual activities.	.435
32. I have experienced sexual harassment by my instructor(s).	.880
33. I have experienced subtle pressure for sexual activity with my instructor(s).	1.000
34. I have experienced an instructor(s) who stereotyped women in lectures, presentations, and/or remarks.	.712
35. I have made sexual advances towards my instructor.	1.000
36. I have experienced an instructor(s) who made negative remarks about males as a group.	.602
37. An instructor(s) has made sexual advances towards me.	.790
38. I have experienced an instructor(s) who told jokes that "put down" men.	.614

r^a = Correlation coefficient

APPENDIX C.2
Pilot Study
Instructions

INSTRUCTIONS. Please Read These Instructions Very Carefully!

Turn your answer sheet to Side Two. The personal information grid is on the left side of your answer sheet. Do not darken in the circles for your name; instead print the name of your MAJOR AREA of study, and darken in the appropriate circles. Abbreviate only if necessary (e.g., Business Admin. or Mech. Engineer.).

Next, darken in the appropriate circles for SEX and BIRTH DATE. Leave the Special Codes and Identification Numbers blank.

Darken in the appropriate number for your level in school:

Freshman - 1	Graduate (Masters level) - 5
Sophomore - 2	Graduate (Specialist) - 6
Junior - 3	Graduate (Doctoral) - 7
Senior - 4	Other - 8

Check the grid to be certain that your information has been accurately recorded. Now turn to Side One and record the answers to the questionnaire.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Judy C. Oshinsky was born in Brooklyn, New York, in 1947. She received a Bachelor of Science degree in health and physical education from Ithaca College, Ithaca, New York, in 1968.

From 1968 to 1972, she taught physical education in the Dade County Public School System in Miami, Florida. In 1972, she received a Master of Education degree in guidance and counseling from the University of Miami. For the following year, she worked as a counselor and Area Director of Concept House, Inc., a residential facility for hard-core drug addicts.

In 1974, she returned to the Dade County Public School System as a PRIDE Program Counselor. During her five years in this position, she developed a peer counseling program for junior high school students, conducted counseling groups for parents and teachers, and served as liaison between her school and several county agencies. From 1975 until the present, she served as a consultant and trainer for the Institute on Sexism/Sexuality at Florida International University.

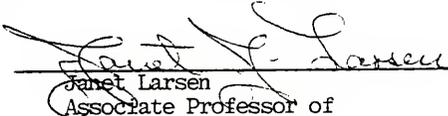
She has received training in several areas of therapy including Gestalt Therapy, Transactional Analysis, Psychosynthesis, Bioenergetics, and Parent Effectiveness Training. She is a member of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, the American Association of University Women, and has lifetime membership in Delta Psi Kappa, a professional physical education fraternity for women.

In 1978, she entered the University of Florida and received her Ph.D. in counselor education in December of 1980.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Robert O. Stripling
Distinguished Service Professor
of Counselor Education

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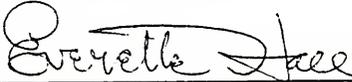
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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Counselor Education in the College of Education and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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