



Gender and Sexuality: A Study on Violence Against Women

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Abstract

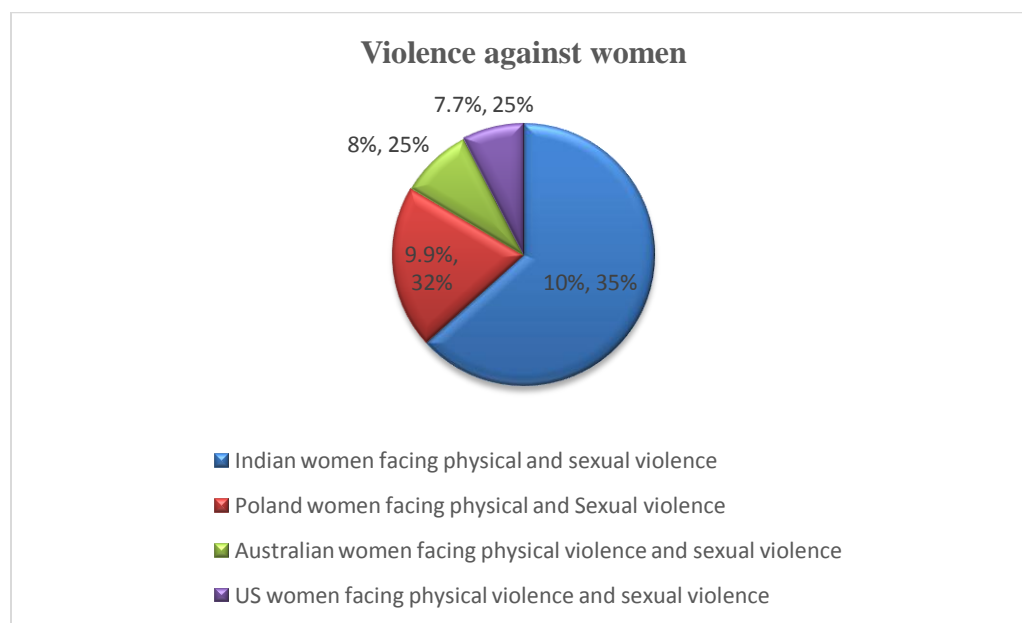
Violence against women is a global phenomenon that exists even beyond cultural, geographical, social, and economic context. Violence against women is widespread in terms of physical, psychological, sexual and economic aspects. By categorizing the violence's against women in different parts of the world Indian women with 10% are facing sexual violence and 35% are physical violence, as compared to Poland women 9.9% are sexual violence and 32% with physical violence. Australian women 8% are facing sexual violence and 25% in physical violence. United States with 7.7% women are facing sexual violence and 22% in physical violence. Death and destruction alter the structure and dynamics of households. To date, attention to the gender impacts of conflict has focused almost exclusively on sexual and gender-based violence. This study based on primary sources of data aims to highlight the ways of how women are facing different kinds of harassments in a continuous process of victimization. In addition, it will also aim to enlighten the need for researchers, therapists, organizations, and judiciaries to evaluate whether individual victims of sexual harassment can be appropriately diagnosed with different psychological problems. However there is still a substantial lack of information and data on the scope and extent of the incidence. Detailed data on women's experience of violence is needed from researchers in order to better understanding the phenomenon and developing targeted policies and measures to prevent and combat violence.

Keywords: Harassments, Psychiatric problems, Victimization, Violence, Women

Introduction

Violence against women is defined as any physical, emotional, sexual, or psychological abuse or violence committed against women by intimate partners or acquaintances, including current or former spouses, cohabiting partners, boyfriends, or dates. Although this definition is broader than ones adopted by many practitioners and narrower than others, it captures the scope of women's victimization at its most fundamental level. Regardless of how it is socially or legally defined, women's experiences of violent victimization are dominated by victimization by people they know (Browne and Williams, 1993). Moreover, although the law distinguishes between sexual assault, domestic violence, and stalking, researches shows that these types of victimization often occur simultaneously or sequentially (Eby et al, 1995). Women all over the world has become the victim different kinds of violence's whether of sexual violence's or of domestic violence's, eve-teasing, etc. Below data will show the women becoming the victims of different kinds of violences around the world.

Figure:1



The Figure: 1, is categorizing the violence's against women in different parts of the world. Starting from India, the Indian women with 10% are facing sexual violence and 35% are physical violence, as compared to Poland women 9.9% are sexual violence and 32% with physical violence. Australian women 8% are facing sexual violence and 25% in physical violence. United States with 7.7% women are facing sexual violence and 22% in physical violence. It seems that

women around the world are not safe from any kind of violence no matter whether they belong to developed nations or developing ones. But it is undoubtedly true that women from poorest countries are more susceptible to such a kind violence against women.

Sexual harassment can be defined in to two main approaches. One from is a legal perspective and the other from is a social-psychological perspective. In general, social-psychological definitions are broader than legal ones, though recent exceptions exist. A third perspective on sexual harassment-the public or lay perspective- preceded legal and social, psychological ones but now lags well behind each in understanding the scope, nature, and impact of the phenomenon. We evaluate each in turn below.

According to historical writings, sexually harassing behavior has long been a problem (e.g., Segrave, 1994). The term 'sexual harassment,' however, only emerged in the 1970s, when feminists argued that sexual threats, bribes, and objectification presented odious conditions of employment often faced by women, but rarely by men, and therefore constitute unlawful sex discrimination (Mac Kinnon, 1979). The historical pervasiveness of this behavior made it so taken-for-granted that courts initially balked at the idea of calling it discrimination, and early cases were denied or decided in favor of defendants. Organizations saw sexual harassment as a private issue between the harasser and victim, beyond the scope of organizational responsibility (MacKinnon, 1979). Unlike legal definitions, social-psychological perspectives on sexual harassment do not require negative work outcomes and therefore tend to be broader. The focus instead is on specific behaviors and the victim's subjective experience of those behaviors. Illustrating this perspective, Fitzgerald et al. (1997) defines '*sexual harassment as unwanted sex-related behavior at work that is appraised by the recipient as offensive, exceeding her resources, or threatening her well-being.*' Psychologists have concentrated on developing operational definitions of sexual harassment. In a now-classic study, Till: (1980) collected descriptive anecdotes and classified sexually harassing conduct into five categories:

- generalized sexist remarks or behavior;
- inappropriate and offensive (but essentially sanction-free) sexual advances;
- solicitation of sexual activity or other sex' linked behavior by promise of rewards;
- coercion of sexual activity by threat of punishments; and
- sexual assaults.

Theorizing Sexual Harassment

Why does sexual harassment occur? Below we would like to discuss four viewpoints:

- The nature perspective, which sees sexual harassment as the result of biological sex differences
- The nurture perspective, which conceptualizes sexual harassment as a consequence of socialized sex roles and stereotypes
- The power perspective, which views sexual harassment as emerging from sex differences in power (for further reviews, see Tangri and Hayes, 1997; Welsh, 1999).

Sexual harassment also involved male bosses making sexual cooperation a condition of women's employment; this became the prototype of sexual harassment. Despite the prevalence of sexual harassment, there are many unanswered questions. Some of the more pressing questions regarding harassment include defining it; predicting its effects on victims, harassers, and organizations; investigating it; preventing it; rehabilitating sexual harassers; and treating its victims (Donohue, 1997). While scholars have made attempts to address these questions, Fitzgerald, Gelfand, and Drasgow (1995) have described the current state of knowledge as rudimentary. For example, although there is literature that explicates both legal definitions of sexual harassment or victimization of women, that are general, formal, institutional, and psychological definitions that are also more idiosyncratic, informal, and personal, it is not clear how these two definitional strategies should intersect and influence responses by business, the legal system, and the mental health field (Fitzgerald et al, 1997). Furthermore, although sexual harassment prevention programs are common, little is known regarding their effectiveness (Penix & Brunswig, 1999). Finally, there are controversies concerning the proper use of mental health diagnoses in this area (Frances et al, 1995). Questions include the following: Can sexual harassers meet the criteria for some kind of paraphilia? Also, can victims meet the criteria for trauma-related diagnoses?

Sexual Harassment and Post Traumatic Stress Disorder

Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV; American Psychiatric Association, 1994) criteria for PTSD are;

(A) The person has been exposed to a traumatic event in which both of the following were present:

- I. the person experienced, witnessed, or was confronted with an event or events that involved actual or threatened death or serious injury, or a threat to the physical integrity of self or others
 - II. the person's response involved intense fear, helplessness, or horror
- (B) Re-experiencing the event and severe distress
- (C) Avoidance of associated stimuli and
- (D) Hyper-arousal.

Sexual harassment can produce Post Traumatic Stress Disorder symptoms in nearly a third of its victims (Wolfe et al, 1998). Psychological effects may be multiply determined by events surrounding the sexual harassment (e.g., problematic sexual harassment investigations) and not solely caused by the harassment itself. There are many other ways of threats caused by harassments such as;

Threat to Physical Integrity

There are three ways in which sexual harassment poses a threat to physical integrity:

- i. by threatening the victim's financial well-being,
- ii. by threatening the victim's physical boundaries, and
- iii. by threatening the victim's control over situations that she should legitimately be able to have some control.

Financial Threat

Sexual harassment threatens to be a potential source of harm for its victims by possibly impairing the soundness of the victim's physical condition. By creating a sexualized environment that is unwelcome, either by making explicit sexual requests of a victim or by subjecting the victim to sexual language, sexual harassment potentially creates a context that impairs the victim's ability to work efficiently and productively. Decrements in work performance and productivity could result in loss of employment. Moreover, sexual harassment may cause the worker to voluntarily leave her work environment, and this could result in financial losses that threaten her well-being. Researches have shown that sexual harassment is associated with financial losses for the victim. Sexual harassment victims report being transferred or fired, receiving lowered evaluations and being denied promotions (Loy & Stewart, 1984). Additionally, sexual harassment victimization is related to absenteeism, tardiness, and reduced productivity (Glomb et al, 1999).

Boundary Threats

Sexual harassment, as sexual practices that are unwanted and unwelcome, constitute a violation of personal values and boundaries and consequently endanger the victim's physical integrity. (Leeser & Donohue, 1997). The statement articulates a kind of conduct that should be practiced in and out of a professional setting. The exposure of an individual to a noxious environment in which they are treated mainly as a sexual object generates inappropriate attention to the victim's body and thereby is a threat to the victim's physical integrity. For example, quid pro quo sexual harassment constitutes a threat to physical integrity as it explicitly delineates the particular punishment that will be imposed if the victim does not permit her body to be treated in a certain manner. Quid pro quoⁱ sexual harassment specifies harmful action on the victim's body if the victim complies and other harmful physical consequences if the individual refuses to comply. Observing and respecting the individual's belief system would entail that others respect her sexual principles, and not coerce her to act contrary to the principles the individual has consistently chosen to guide her actions (Leeser & Donohue, 1997a).

In the last 50 years, more than half of all nations have been affected by internal civil conflicts, defined by Blattman and Miguel (2010) as conflicts with 25 or more deaths per year, or full-fledged civil wars, with 1,000 or more battle deaths per year. Following a peak in the late 1980s and early 1990s, the incidence of wars and battle deaths has declined in recent decades, but a substantial number of people, especially in poorer countries and regions, continue to suffer and are forced to cope with the consequences of destruction and death caused by violent conflict (World Bank, 2011). Researching the effects of violent conflict on economic development is inherently difficult. Conflict itself is difficult to measure and most often occurs in countries that are poor and that have weak institutions and infrastructure; these countries also have sparse pre-conflict statistics and little data-gathering capacity. However, there have been growing efforts to empirically document the impacts of conflict. These efforts have found more lasting impacts on human capital than on physical capital. Economies may recover, but people often do not (Justino Forthcoming). These human effects of conflict are seldom gender neutral. Death and destruction alter the structure and dynamics of households, including their demographic profiles and traditional gender roles. To date, attention to the gender impacts of conflict and war has focused almost exclusively on sexual and gender-based violence (Sabarwal et al, 2010). The same is case with Indian administers Kashmir. The people (the residents) are facing several kinds violations

since decades now, through Indian defense forces appointed there. Death, distraction, disappearances and other kinds of human rights violations are common in this region but sexual violence is the more unacceptable than any other kind of violence.

Indirect impacts on health

Violent conflicts affect population health in ways that extend beyond the direct effects of violence through a combination of increased exposure to infectious disease, acute malnutrition, poor sanitation, and a lack of health services. The evidence suggests that women and children have more exposure to these indirect effects of war on health than men do. Indirect effects occur because health and other infrastructure, such as roads needed for effective health system functioning, may be damaged, and resources may be diverted away from health (Ghobarah et al, 2003). Vulnerability to disease may be further increased by loss of income and assets, population displacement, or orphan-hood. The spread of HIVⁱⁱ may be increased through sexual violence or otherwise increased interaction between civilians and military groups with higher HIV prevalence rates as well as through increases in refugee movements and commercial and it may be reduced by the better social services often found among refugee camps (Mock et al, 2004). Women are often at higher risk of contracting HIV/AIDSⁱⁱⁱ as a result of displacement and have an increased likelihood of being victims of sexual violence. In Rwanda, 17 percent of women who were survivors of genocide, and 67 percent of rape survivors were HIV positive (McGinn, 2000). Refugees can also pose significant challenges to receiving nations. A study of 135 countries from 1962 to 1997 found that for every refugee who left a malaria endemic zone; there were 2.7 new cases in the receiving area (Montalvo & Reynal-Querol, 2007). Baez (2011) found that the flood of refugees from the genocides of Burundi and Rwanda into a neighboring region of Tanzania had adverse impacts on the health of local children, including a 7-percentage point increase in child mortality and an increase of 15-20 percentage points in infectious diseases. These findings are in line with other studies that caution that neglecting vaccination and disease control efforts in post conflict settings can lead to devastating epidemics and further fatalities (Connolly et al, 2004).

Reduced access to health care may also increase mortality from chronic diseases among older people, as it did in Kosovo in 1998–99 (Spiegel & Salama, 2000). This reduced access may also have severe negative impacts on women's reproductive health, resulting in gynecological problems, unwanted pregnancies, maternal mortality, obstetric fistula, and preterm babies

(McGinn, 2009). Estimations of the contribution of these indirect effects has been hampered by a lack of data and difficulty establishing a satisfactory counterfactual of health outcomes in the absence of war (Murray et al, 2002). In a cross-national analysis of 1999 WHO data on Disability Adjusted Life Years, Ghobarah, Huth, and Russett (2003) found that the additional burden of death and disability incurred in 1999 alone from the indirect and lingering effects of civil wars in 1991–97 was almost double the burden incurred directly and immediately from all wars in 1999. Their results are strongest for infectious diseases and traffic accidents. Overall, the authors conclude that women and children are the most common long-term victims of civil war. Equally critical is the impact of the experiences of conflict on mental health. Several studies note poor psychosocial health after exposure to conflict, with children and adults demonstrating high levels of traumatic symptoms, stress, anxiety, aggressive behavior, and depression. However, these studies often do not identify who was exposed to trauma or compare findings with a control group that was not exposed to conflict (Stover et al, 2009). A meta-analysis of 25 years of research on sex differences in trauma and posttraumatic stress disorder showed that females are at greater risk of developing posttraumatic and depressive symptoms after traumatic events, whereas males report more exposure to trauma, even when comparing the frequency and severity of war trauma experienced by civilian male and female victims of war or terrorism (Tolin & Foa, 2006). In one of the few studies that uses a tragic natural occurrence (i.e., random abductions by the Lord's Resistance Army) to randomize exposure to violence, Annan and others (2011) reported that women in Uganda experience greater emotional distress than men do from war violence, although men and women report similar levels of violence (approximately 25 percent of both female and male Lord's Resistance Army abductees were forced to beat, cut, or murder people). Unexpectedly, most women returning from these armed groups reintegrate socially and are psychologically resilient.

Widowhood

As result of the excess mortality of men, wars create widows. There is little empirical evidence on the economic status of these war widows, but the little existing evidence suggests that widows and the households that many of them head are especially vulnerable to the consequences of violent conflict. Bruck and Schindler (2009) noted the need to empirically study the changes that war widowhood brings to women and households, including the formation of female-headed households and subfamilies when war widows and their children take refuge in larger, male-

headed households. These authors specifically examined the case of widows in the Rwandan genocide. However more than 500,000 deaths from genocide were men, resulting in unbalanced sex ratios after the genocide. These authors found that genocide widows and their children face different and often more severe constraints in earning incomes because of the loss of economic resources tied to men, including male labor and land ownership, and the destruction of social networks. That studies found that 23.3 percent of rural households are female-headed. Widow-headed households have a higher incidence of poverty and extreme poverty when compared to male-headed households, but they show a less pronounced gender division of labor, suggesting that the conflict triggered a change in traditional gender roles within the home. Schindler (2010) also showed that the work intensity of teenage girls, adult women, and widows is significantly higher in conflict regions with fewer males in the population, holding household wealth and community infrastructure constant (Schindler, 2010).

Sexual and gender-based violence

Sexual violence (rape and sexual abuse) and other forms of gender-based violence (domestic abuse and beatings) have become distressingly common features associated with violent conflict, although it is extremely difficult to obtain reliable estimates of their incidence and prevalence. These types of violence can be a direct weapon of war used for ethnic cleansing and for punishing opponents, although carefully collected evidence questions the extent to which such violence has occurred. More commonly, this type of violence may be a crime of opportunity facilitated by the general breakdown of social order, a climate of impunity, and the contagion effect of war violence. Such violence has been widely reported, for example, in the former Yugoslavia in the mid-1990s, where it is estimated that 20,000 women were raped; the Rwandan genocide in 1994, with estimates that approximately 300,000 to 400,000 women suffered rape; Somalia in the early 1990s; the conflict in Kashmir; the 15-year-long civil war in Peru; and the recent civil war in Sudan (McGinn et al, 2000). A global review of 50 countries found significant increases in gender-based violence following major wars (World Bank, 2011). Estimates of sexual and gender-based violence can suffer in both wartime and peacetime from serious underreporting (i.e., because people are unwilling or afraid to report gender-based violence, especially when the perpetrator is a family member) or over-reporting, when incidence statistics are inflated because reporting improves with time (Nordas & Cohen, 2011). This situation also

occurs in peacetime, making it very difficult to accurately assess the increases in sexual and gender-based violence that are associated with conflict.

Recent evidence highlights variations in the prevalence of sexual and gender-based violence in war situations and relates this variation to combatant norms and group cohesion. This evidence shows that Bosnia and Rwanda are anomalous cases of wartime rape being used as a war weapon for ethnic cleansing. In most other cases, sexual and gender-based violence is a crime of opportunity that is often committed by relatives rather than strangers (Wood, 2009). A study of sexual violence in a pediatric ward in Goma, Democratic Republic of the Congo, showed the predominance of domestic sexual violence over militarized rape. Of 500 pediatric cases treated for sexual violence at the hospital (2006-2008), nearly all were females between the ages of 10 and 18 (Kalisya et al, 2011). Also in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the results of a population-based household survey with a randomly assigned module on sexual violence (a subsample of 3,436 women) yielded a very high prevalence of rape-an estimate of more than 400,000 women were raped in the 12 months prior to the 2007 survey and showed that the most pervasive form of sexual violence was from intimate partners and that the most conflict-affected provinces were at higher risk of sexual violence (Peterman et al, 2011). Sexual and gender-based violence triggered by conflict may have similar economic outcomes, trapping victims and their families in poverty. It may also have psychosocial and reproductive health consequences. Research that tracks sexual and gender-based violence victims over time alongside appropriate controls is needed to assess the full consequences of violent conflict and to design appropriate interventions.

Migration and displacement

Violent conflict sometimes disrupts normal life to the extent that people are forced to move elsewhere in the hope of finding more secure conditions for themselves and their families. These movements are sometimes massive, as was the case in Mozambique, where residents of approximately half of all households were internally displaced or were refugees by the end of the war (Bruck, 2006). By the end of 2009, it is estimated that 42 million people had been forced to leave or flee their homes due to violence-15 million refugees outside their country of residence and 27 million internally displaced persons, with women and children comprising 80 percent of all refugees and internally displaced people (World Bank, 2011). Such circumstances leave women almost entirely alone to care for their families under very difficult circumstances.

Displaced people typically face significant asset losses and major economic and social difficulties in the resettlement process. By cutting off large numbers of people from economic opportunities, internal conflict can lead to a vicious cycle of displacement and household poverty from which it is difficult to escape. This situation is made worse by the destruction of social networks and the consequent depletion of important elements of people's social, economic, and political capital, including the previously mentioned constraints that accompany widowhood and female headship. In Colombia, internal displacement has both income- and gender-differential labor effects. Annual labor income among displaced persons fell by 80 percent and recovered to only half of its pre-displacement level after more than a year (Ibanez & Moya, 2010). Displaced females work longer hours, earn similar wages, and contribute in larger proportions to household earnings than do rural women who do not move, but this increased contribution does not seem to strengthen their household bargaining power (Calderon et al, 2011). Researchers have observed increased domestic violence against women and violent punishment of children, both of which may be related to the traumatic events that led to displacement.

Despite generally bleak conditions, refugee camps can sometimes offer better services than those available in the refugees' places of origin. However, people may linger in refugee camps as internally displaced people for years, if not decades. One review of global displacement trends estimated the average length of displacement at 14 years (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2004). In some settings (e.g., Burma, southern Sudan, Burundi), higher proportions of refugee children were in school than those who stayed behind. Examining the 10 settings that produced the largest number of refugees as of 2002, the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children (2004) found that among refugees, enrollment levels decrease after grade 4 for both boys and girls, with gender differentials steadily increasing; enrollment rates were 20 percent higher among boys than girls in first grade and were nearly twice as high at the secondary level. Refugees and the internally displaced reflect highly gender-specific consequences of violent conflict and civil wars.

Asset and income loss

Conflicts impose shocks on the population. Recent empirical literature has begun to measure the substantial costs of violent conflict on economies and communities. These costs encompass the most immediate and observable consequences of war, such as damage to the national productive structure and the redirection of resources from productive to military uses, as well as more

indirect effects on households' assets and income and other attributes of economic well-being. Violent conflict damages public resources and services (World Bank, 2011). It destroys school infrastructure, displaces teachers, and interrupts schooling, often for years. In Sudan, the destruction of infrastructure included the destruction and closure of schools and hospitals. Immunization, preventive medicine, and malaria eradication services stopped completely in the south, and malnutrition affected most of the children in the region (Teodosijevic, 2003). Violent conflict also damages transportation networks and other infrastructure, crippling production in the primary and secondary sectors. In Mozambique, rail and other rural infrastructure were severely affected (Bruck, 2006). As the government shifts expenditure toward the military, public investment and expenditure on maintenance experience pressure that further deteriorates public infrastructure. The post-conflict legacy of these effects can be extensive.

Private assets are also lost or destroyed during fighting and looting. These assets include houses, land, utensils, livestock, and other productive assets. Livestock is a key form of savings and an insurance substitute in many developing countries that helps to smooth consumption in adverse times. Agricultural production was badly affected during the war in Mozambique, and 80 percent of cattle stock was lost (Bruck, 2006). In northern Uganda, many people lost all of their cattle, homes, and assets (Annan et al, 2006). During the 1994 Rwandan genocide, the average cattle stock was halved, and 12 percent of households lost their homes (Berlage et al, 2003) In Tajikistan, the civil war damaged the homes and livelihoods of 7 percent of households between 1992 and 1998 (Shemyakina, 2011). The Burundi conflict in the 1990s was accompanied by severe asset depletion (Bundervoet & Verwimp, 2005). In Colombia, violence significantly affected the efficiency of farm holdings as a result of the disruption of rural labor markets and limits imposed on the operation of larger farms (Gonzalez & Lopez, 2007). These losses can impoverish societies and create or entrench household poverty, leading to persistent cycles of war and poverty (Justino, 2006). However, armed conflict can also result in new opportunities, such as firms and households that take advantage of the redistribution of assets that often follows conflict (Justino Forthcoming).

The ability of households to respond and adapt to the asset and income shocks of war depends on a number of factors, including the often-overlooked issue of civilian agency (Justino Forthcoming). Women are often severely asset and land constrained, making it difficult for them to manage farms and households in the absence or death of men. However, women are

resourceful and can play important roles in helping households adapt to the shocks of war. Gender roles and inequality are clearly important in terms of how individuals and households experience the loss of assets and income during conflict and how they accommodate these losses. These factors help to explain the interaction between violent conflict and poverty and the channels through which violent conflict can perpetuate household poverty, as described in the section below on second-round impacts.

The massive human losses from violent conflict can exacerbate gender inequalities, as described above, but other impacts of violent conflict can reduce these inequalities by altering the landscape of opportunities available to women. Several studies have found that households recover some of their earlier economic indices (often roughly measured) within years or decades and manage to limit the damage to human capital accumulation and losses to family members. In Sierra Leone, households' experiences of war victimization during the 12-year period of civil war from 1991 to 2002 had no strong or consistent association with households' assets, although the study only examined ownership of a stove or radio in 2005 (Bellows and Miguel, 2006). In Rwanda, McKay and Loveridge (2005) and Justino and Verwimp (2006) found that per capita GDP reached its pre-genocide level less than 10 years after the genocide but with increasing levels of inequality. However, other studies have found longer-term impoverishment following violent conflict, especially for low-income households. In a small panel of rural households in Rwanda, Justino and Verwimp (2006) found that households whose dwelling was destroyed or who lost land experienced a significant decrease in average incomes. They found a 15-percentage point increase in households that were classified as extremely poor between 1990 and 2002. In a large cross-sectional study, McKay and Loveridge (2005) found that rural incomes in Rwanda had recovered to their (very low) 1990 pre-conflict levels by 2000. However, this recovery was due largely to the improved position of the richer households, who could take skilled labor jobs. In contrast, income levels did not recover for nearly 70 percent of the rural population (especially for the poorest 30 percent), who had small landholdings and little access to wage income. The way that households recover from the shocks produced by violent conflict is part of their adaptive responses, and women often assume the primary responsibility for ensuring the survival of families. Women take over this pivotal economic role especially when working-aged males have died or have joined (or been forced to join) fighting units and when

families are forced to move internally or to another country, and women and children from the majority of those displaced (World Bank, 2011).

Changes in marriage and fertility

People in conflict zones alter marriage and childbearing patterns to minimize the disruptive effects of conflict on their household economy. Households that experience a decrease in income often defer marriage expenditures and childbearing until times are better. This phenomenon has been found in studies of the effects of armed conflict and in many studies of economic shocks. For example, Jayaraman, Gebreselassie, and Chandrasekhar (2009) found that in Rwanda, women living in areas that were more exposed to violent conflict during the 1994 genocide (as measured by the proportion of sibling deaths in 1994) were more likely to marry and have children later than those living in clusters that experienced less violence. Fertility can be depressed as a result of lower coital frequency, as couples are separated by male out-migration and male combat duties, and poor nutritional status and stress lower fecundity and increase spontaneous abortions (Blanc, 2004).

Conflict has an additional dimension beyond other kinds of shocks in that conflict-related excess male mortality creates shortages of potential grooms. This situation may increase the search and dowry costs incurred by women's families, as Shemyakina (2009) found in Tajikistan, where women of marriageable age who lived in conflict-affected areas were one-third less likely to be married than women in less affected areas. In Cambodia, a rebound in marriage occurred after the war but could not be sustained due to a shortage of young men of marriageable age (Heuveline & Poch, 2007). The shortage of grooms may lead to changes in marriage practices, such as an increase in polygamous marriages and informal unions. For instance, in the case of Colombia, the impact of male mortality due to internal conflict is partially responsible for the increasingly high frequency of consensual unions and, potentially, for female rural to urban migration (Holland & Ferguson, 2006).

Labor reallocation

The loss of men in conflict and declines in household income trigger changes in the household allocation of labor. These changes include women's increased participation in the labor market, the so-called 'added worker' effect in which women join the workforce to help family's weather income shocks and compensate for the absence of an earning spouse or partner. Studies in industrialized countries suggest that the added worker effect was strong during the World Wars

and the Great Depression, but it has become less important over time as women's status in the labor market has improved (Lyle et al, 2004). In developing countries, however, recent evidence suggests that aggregate economic shocks yield added worker effects for women in low-income countries and low-income households, whereas 'discouraged worker' effects seem to prevail for women in high-income countries and high-income households (Buvinic et al, 2010).

Domestic violence has a somewhat different legal history, although it is rooted in similar assumptions about relationships between women and men. Although history shows sporadic efforts to criminalize wife-beating (Pleck, 1987), such laws were seldom called into use and many States did not have them. As a result, judges were rarely confronted with assault charges involving spouses, but when they were asked to rule on cases of criminal wife-beating, they often explicitly condoned the behavior as a form of family discipline and male responsibility (Allison & Wrightsman, 1993). Women's claims were also rebuffed in civil court, where common law rulings declared that if beatings did not cause lasting injury, they were insufficient to constitute the 'extreme cruelty' that justified divorce.

Objective of the study

The aim of this paper is to highlight the ways of how women are facing different kinds of harassments in a continuous process of victimization

Methodology

The study has used exploratory research method to interpret the data gathered from the respondents during the field content analysis. The sources were based on primary data but to make the concept and theoretical approach more clear, the researchers had also added some secondary content information's as well. The sample size was of 50 respondents and sources used to accumulate the content from the respondents were; interview schedule through ethnographic tools.

Discussion

The serious challenge of violence against women with the uprising phenomenon is that it escalates and nearly to become out of control. It is noticed in this study as well from the past literature that

violence against women whether familial or sexual violence is increasing every day. The study has revealed that such a kind of violences is becoming more expose to big criminal activities like issue of rape and murder. Although several laws have been implemented by governments around

the world but still the situation is getting worse every day and the issues are unsolved. Despite records and interviews that shown the alarming rate of violences against women compared to any other act. The study has explored that usually the women from poorest countries are more prone to such a kind of violences but it is also a matter of fact that women from developed nations are also not safe from such a kind of violences either. Women from war like countries or places where political unrest is going on since decades are facing several kinds of violences especially sexual violence by the defense personals appointed there. And in such places women are used as a weapon of war.

Conclusion

The past decade has witnessed great strides in research on sexual harassment. Much has been learned about its different forms, perpetrators, and victims, the contexts that promote it, and its effects on individuals and organizations. No longer seen as ‘just’ a ‘women’s issue,’ sexual harassment is now recognized as illegal and immoral behavior that harms women, men, and the ‘bottom line.’ Despite these knowledge gains and the organizational changes that have accompanied them, harassment based on sex remains all too common. More research is clearly needed to better understand and prevent sexual harassment, helping organizations to foster vibrant, healthy, and respectful work environments. Violent conflicts have been a pervasive feature of the recent global landscape, especially in countries and regions that are poor and have weak institutions and low levels of human development. Once they begin, wars lead to further increases in poverty and leave nations vulnerable to additional cycles of violence. However, the study of war and its social and economic legacies is difficult. Those who participate in or simply live through wars often suffer from persistent injuries, receive less education, and experience a permanent decline in their productivity and earnings. However, it remains unclear which impacts are most profound and persistent, which disproportionately strike the poor, and how these effects can be contained by local institutions and economic policies (Blattman & Miguel, 2010). In particular, there is very little knowledge of the factors that make some individuals and households more resilient than others to the impacts of conflict. The concept of ‘violent conflict’ cannot be understood by a single indicator, and different indicators may yield different effects on labor, education, and health. It is therefore of the utmost importance to be as precise as possible about the channels through which violent conflict affects the outcomes of interest. Not all channels are equally harmful; some may be gender neutral, and some may even favor girls and

women. This overview has offered an organizing framework to help identify the transmission channels for the effects of conflict on households and genders and their adaptive responses to it, but there is room for greater precision in future research. Our paper also aims to illuminate the need for researchers, therapists, organizations, and judiciaries to evaluate whether individual victims of sexual harassment can be appropriately diagnosed with different psychological problems such as Post traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) whether by sexual violence or by intimate partner violence. Also, if the direct link of sexual harassment as a viable event that results in post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is widely supported, this can be reflected in judicial decisions regarding the appropriate monetary compensations for victims of sexual harassment. Victims can be seen as legitimately suffering from a serious mental disorder and be compensated appropriately for this.

ⁱ Quid pro quo is Latin term for "something for something" that originated in the Middle Ages in Europe. It describes a situation when two parties engage in a mutual agreement to exchange goods or services reciprocally. In a quid pro quo agreement, one transfer is thus contingent upon some transfer from the other party. Retrieved from:

<https://www.investopedia.com/terms/q/quidproquo.asp>

ⁱⁱ HIV (human immunodeficiency virus) is a virus that attacks the body's immune system. If HIV is not treated, it can lead to AIDS (acquired immunodeficiency syndrome). Learning the basics about HIV can keep you healthy and prevent HIV transmission. Retrieved from: <https://www.cdc.gov/hiv/basics/whatishiv.html>

ⁱⁱⁱ AIDS is the late stage of HIV infection that occurs when the body's immune system is badly damaged because of the virus. A person with HIV is considered to have progressed to AIDS when: the number of their CD4 cells falls below 200 cells per cubic millimeter of blood (200 cells/mm). (In someone with a healthy immune system, CD4 counts are between 500 and 1,600 cells/mm.) OR, they develop one or more opportunistic infections regardless of their CD4 count.

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