WORKPLACE SEXUAL HARASSMENT
A METHODOLOGICAL CRITIQUE

MASTER'S THESIS
MSC. INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS AND POLITICS
COPENHAGEN BUSINESS SCHOOL
17/05/2021

AUTHORS
MOHAMMED ABOU EL-KHEIR (110868)
WASAN EL-HALLAK (109738)

SUPERVISOR
CHRISTOPH HOUMAN ELLERSGAARD

NUMBER OF CHARACTERS AND STANDARD PAGES
272,956 CHARACTERS - 120 PAGES
### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviations</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NFA</td>
<td>Nationale Forskningscenter for Arbejdsmiljø, “Arbejdsmiljø og Helbred”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HK</td>
<td>Handels- og Kontorfunktionærernes Forbund, “UNDER OVERFLADEN”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOA</td>
<td>Fag og Arbejde, “Seksuel chikane på arbejdsplassen”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3F</td>
<td>Fagligt Fælles Forbund, “Seksuel chikane inden for Privat Service, Hotel og Restauration”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FH/Epinion</td>
<td>Fagbevægelsens Hovedorganisation, “BALANCE OG LIGESTILLING RAPPORT”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEADW</td>
<td>Work Environment Activities in Danish Workplaces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDI</td>
<td>Major Depression Inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICD-10</td>
<td>International Classification of Diseases (10+ revision)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSM-IV</td>
<td>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (5th edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEQ</td>
<td>The Sexual Experiences Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSH</td>
<td>The Likelihood to Sexually Harass Scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I. ABSTRACT

In this interdisciplinary study, we investigate and review how contemporary Danish studies on workplace sexual harassment measure the phenomenon and what possible limitations there exists in their applied methodologies. Withal, we assume there exists certain limitations and discrepancies among surveys in the field, which we believe, harnesses inaccurate and underreported estimates on the prevalence of sexual harassment. Our analysis is compiled of five selected Danish studies from the National Research Center of Working Environment along with studies from a select number of labor unions, namely FOA, FH and Epinion, 3F and HK. We conduct a methodological review of these surveys respectively and compare them in terms of their survey designs and methodological framework, which we relate to their findings and discoveries on the subject matter. Through our analysis we highlight the limitations of the question formulations, frames of references and sampling strategies, among other things, in producing adequate and realistic estimates. We show that providing respondents with general and broad questions without any elaboration on how the sexual harassment was expressed, nor any definition of the construct, is associated with lower prevalence levels. Similarly, we emphasize how frame of reference and the sample composition largely impacts and increases the chances of recall bias and sampling errors. Moreover, we briefly assess how qualitative modes of inquiry can harness descriptions and facets of the incident(s) that are not otherwise captured by the surveys in question, such as cases of quid pro quo sexual harassment. In addition, we reveal tendencies across the five studies that serve as potential limitations in properly assessing severity, by the exclusion of variables that account for other personal characteristics, such as ethnicity and sexual orientation, but certainly also how the relationship between the offender and victim affects experienced severity. Finally, we address the shortcomings of not including questions and items that exhibit the consequences that the incident(s) has on victims’ mental health and wellbeing.
# Table of Contents

**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS** .................................................................................................................. 1  

**I. ABSTRACT** ........................................................................................................................................ 2  

**II. INTRODUCTION** ............................................................................................................................. 8  

**III. ACADEMIC REVIEW** .................................................................................................................. 9  

1.1 DEFINING SEXUAL HARASSMENT ................................................................................................. 9  
1.2 ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND GENDER RATIO ............................................................... 10  
1.3 PERSONAL FACTORS: MALE PROCLIVITIES TO HARASS ....................................................... 11  
1.4 POWER RELATIONSHIPS ............................................................................................................. 13  
1.5 MALE-DOMINATED SECTORS AND POWER DIFFERENTIALS .................................................. 13  
1.6 GENDER-BASED SEXUAL HARASSMENT ..................................................................................... 14  
1.7 THE SOCIOCULTURAL MODEL VS. THE ORGANIZATIONAL MODEL ......................................... 14  
1.8 WOMEN AND MEN FROM DIFFERENT SOCIAL GROUPS .......................................................... 15  
1.9 MENTAL HEALTH SYMPTOMS AFTER EXPERIENCING HARASSMENT .................................... 16  
1.10 THE SANITATION OF THE WORKPLACE ...................................................................................... 17  
1.11 PROVISIONS IN THE LAW ........................................................................................................... 18  
1.12 RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE EMPLOYER AND THE EMPLOYEE ............................................. 20  
1.13 ORIGINS OF THE LEGISLATURE .................................................................................................. 21  
1.14 CASE LAW WITHIN THE EXISTING SET OF RULES ............................................................... 21  
1.15 RESPONSE STRATEGIES TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT .............................................................. 22  

**II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK** ..................................................................................................... 24  

2.1 METHODS OF ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND POLITICAL BREAKTHROUGH ................................. 24  
2.2 SEXUAL HARASSMENT: METHODOLOGICAL CRITIQUES ....................................................... 25  
2.3 METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEMS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS IN SEXUAL HARASSMENT RESEARCH .................................................................................................................. 28  
2.4 DIVERGING METHODS OF OPERATIONALIZATION ...................................................................... 28  
2.5 SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH ...................................................................................................... 30  
2.6 RACIALIZED FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT ......................................................................... 31  
2.7 THE PREVALENCE AND NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE WORKPLACE: A MODEL FOR EARLY IDENTIFICATION AND EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT THEREOF .................................................. 32  
2.8 WORKPLACE SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND DEPRESSIVE SYMPTOMS: A CROSS-SECTIONAL MULTILEVEL ANALYSIS .................................................................................................. 34  

**III. METHODS** .................................................................................................................................... 37  

3.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY .............................................................................................................. 37  
3.2 RELAVENCE: PREVALENCE AND TRENDS .................................................................................. 38
IV. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SELECTED SURVEYS

THE NATIONAL RESEARCH CENTER FOR WORK ENVIRONMENT (2018)

4.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
4.2 POPULATION OF THE DATA

HK: “UNDER OVERFLADEN” (2017)

4.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
4.4 FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS
4.5 VERBAL, NON-VERBAL AND PHYSICAL CLASSIFICATIONS

FOA, “SEKSUEL CHIKANE PÅ ARBEJDSPLADSEN” (2019)

4.6 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
4.7 POPULATION OF THE DATA
4.8 FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS

FH/EPINION “BALANCE OG LIGESTILLING RAPPORT” (2019)

4.9 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
4.10 POPULATION OF THE DATA
4.11 FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS

3F/ANALYSE DANMARK - “SEKSUEL CHIKANE INDEN FOR PRIVAT SERVICE, HOTEL OG RESTAURATION” (2015)

4.12 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
4.13 POPULATION OF THE DATA
4.14 FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS
4.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

V. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE NFA

5.1 AGE AND GENDER
5.2 CATEGORY 1A: WOMEN (18-24 YEARS)
II. INTRODUCTION

The motivation to conduct this project was a desire to explore how sexual harassment in the workplace remains a much more pervasive and underreported phenomenon, than statistics show. As a further matter, we wanted to predict and account for the delimiting factors in current survey methodologies that foster inaccurate and descriptively withheld data. Since the 1960’s, stay-at-home mothers have found their way to the labor market and women have increasingly become an integral part of work life in Denmark. Our societies have come a long way since the women’s rights movement emerged in the 60’s, where a movement of feminists called upon themselves the duty to advocate for women’s social, legal, political and economic rights - equal to those of men. However, women have lagged so far behind, that there is still a lot of work to be done in terms of gender equality and equal pay. As such, women still face multiple obstacles in their everyday and work life and are at a disadvantage when compared to their male counterparts, not only in terms of equal pay. This is also highly evident in the ways that women miss out on promotions, struggle to advance their careers, and are penalized for taking maternal leaves - a legacy that stems from systemic patriarchy, which historically has deprived women of the privileges that men have enjoyed. Although women’s rights to equality are protected by law, however, this does not ensure complete equality, nor prevents acts of, discrimination, abuse or harassment, that reproduces traditional gender inequality. The Danish Equal Treatment act was put in place to ensure the equality of men and women’s rights, in which none were treated differently from one another, and the Equal Treatment Act specifically addresses gender inequality and provides definitions for instances of inequality, such as sexual harassment. Sexual harassment, as defined by the Equal Treatment act, is any form of unwanted, physical, verbal or non-verbal form of harassment with sexual undertones. It is a phenomenon that is disproportionately experienced by women in their workplaces, from individuals inside and outside the workplace. Since 2017, the #MeToo movement has affected public discourse and has tangible repercussions for workplaces and a handful of public figures around the world. The movement has forced a conversation about the intersection of power and gender, and as result, women have broadcasted the sexual misconduct of several CEOs, celebrities and public figures, in the news and on social media platforms. In Denmark, this has led to the departure of a few individuals, such as right-wing politician Morten Østergaard and former Lord Mayor of
The Danish hostess Sofie Linde instigated a public uproar after she made an appearance on national television and shared her experience of sexual harassment from a former superior.²

We contend that survey evidence has been important to the development of sexual harassment law. At the same time, survey methodologies and the subsequent estimates of the prevalence of sexual harassment differ considerably. Hence our thesis will offer a review of survey methodologies and explore the limitations of contemporary Danish studies on workplace sexual harassment, where our results will serve the scientific discussion on the subject matter in the future. Our goal is to highlight how these methodological differences affect the data elicited and call attention to how they can be altered in a way that more adequately measures the prevalence and effects of the phenomenon.

III. ACADEMIC REVIEW

1.1 DEFINING SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Most definitions of sexual harassment refer to any form of unwanted or “inappropriate behavior, which has a sexual dimension” (O’Donohue et al., 1998, p. 112) and involves some degree of force. The academic and professional discussion about a precise definition often revolves around:

- The character of the sexual harassment (verbal, non-verbal and/or physical)
- Whether it is a single case or recurring events, and if so, how often it happens
- Duration (how long the harassment has been going on)
- The intensity i.e. different degrees of sexual harassment, where verbal harassment is often characterized as less engraving than physical harassment, but also happens more frequently.

The different definitions often vary according to their different focuses and perspectives. The literature presents unequal power relationship as one foundational element; its gendered character (women are considered as victims and men as perpetrators) and the emphasis placed on the subjective element i.e. the experience that the behavior was inappropriate, as

---


well as whether it is a condition, that the experience must have had negative consequences for the victim, for it to be characterized as sexual harassment. (MacKinnon, 1979; O'Donohue et. al., 1998; Uggen & Blackstone, 2004; Fitzgerald et. al., 1997).

1.2 ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND GENDER RATIO

The antecedents and consequences of violence against women have been documented in past research. Fitzgerald et. al. (1997) develops a conceptual model identifying antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment. In this framework, organizational climate and job gender context are critical antecedents of sexual harassment, which gives rise to specific job-related consequences, such as decreased job satisfaction, decrements in performance, job loss and career interruption. Organizational climate relates to organizational characteristics that communicate tolerance of sexual harassment, while job gender context represents the gendered nature and the group gender ratio of the employees in the organization. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1997)

According to his framework, sexual harassment in organizations is a function of these two conditions when studied at the level of organizational climate and group culture. Hence experiences of sexual harassment are positively correlated with the extent to which an organization tolerates sexual harassment in the workplace, as is the likelihood of experiencing sexual harassment when working in male dominated occupation or sector. The study differentiates between three behavioral categories of sexual harassment:

(1) Gender Harassment i.e. crude verbal, physical and symbolic behaviors that convey hostile, offensive and misogynist attitudes
(2) Unwanted Sexual Attention i.e. unreciprocated and unwanted sexual attention by the recipient
(3) Sexual Coercion i.e. quid pro quo, subtle or explicit efforts to make job rewards contingent on sexual cooperation
The integrative model posited by Fitzgerald (1997) highlights organizational conditions as potent facilitators of this phenomenon and those female employees who believe their organization is tolerant of sexual harassment, experience higher levels of harassment. Tolerance towards sexual harassment is reflected in the ways that their complaints are not taken seriously, the lack of remedy and punishment for perpetrator behavior and the risks associated with filing a complaint. Male-dominated workplaces are also positively correlated with higher levels of sexual harassment. Altogether, these two components institute a hostile working environment for women, thus having greater implications for their psychological well-being. Women who were harassed reported higher levels of occupational stress: that is, stronger turnover intentions, absenteeism and spent more time thinking about leaving their jobs, which is costly in both organizational and human terms. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1997)

1.3 PERSONAL FACTORS: MALE PROCLIVITIES TO HARASS

Sexual harassment is a complex social problem, which seemingly is produced by a confluence of both personal and situational factors. However, psychological studies of perpetrators of sexual harassment show that sexual harassment is related to rape behavior; hence it suggests that there is some significant overlap between sexual harassment and other forms of more serious sexual coercion. Pryor and Stoller (1994) investigated the social cognition processes that contribute to the proclivity of some men to sexually harass, by which he established that

---

3 Source: Figure 1. Integrated model of antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment
certain males are more likely to engage in severe forms of harassment than others. (Pryor & Stoller, 1994; Malamuth, 1986)

The Likelihood to Sexually Harass (LSH) was developed as a self-report scale that aims to measure individual differences in likelihood to harass among males. The scale places men in ten different scenarios in which they have an opportunity to sexually exploit attractive women without repercussions. Respondents are asked to assume “protection” from possible negative reprisals and to rate their own likelihood to behave in a sexually exploitative manner. An example of a scenario from the LSH scale is illustrated below:

“Imagine that you are the owner of a modeling agency. Your agency specializes in sexy female models used in television commercials. One of your models, Amy T., is a particularly ravishing brunette. You stop her one day after work and ask if she will have dinner with you. She coldly declines your offer and tells you that she would like to keep your relationship with her “strictly business”. A few months later you find that business is slack and you have to lay off some of your employees. You can choose to lay off Amy or one of the four other women. All are good models, but someone has to go. How likely are you to do the following things in this situation?” (Pryor & Stoller, 1994, p. 163)

The remaining scenarios share similar formats, while the key question in this scenario is whether the male would offer Amy to keep her job in exchange for sexual favors i.e. quid pro quo. Findings revealed that men who reported higher scores on the LSH Scale tended to hold adversarial sexual beliefs. Furthermore, they found it difficult to assume others’ perspectives; they generally endorsed traditional male sex role stereotypes and authoritarianism, thus reported a higher likelihood to rape. (Pryor, 1987)

Pryor, Lavite and Stoller (1993) later instituted that local social norms are important contributors to the occurrence of sexually harassing behavior, in social circumstances where this type of behavior is accepted and/or tolerated. Situational factors vis-a-vis the social circumstances include male dominant cultures, sexually objectifying environments, organizational tolerance and masculine group norms where harassment serves to male bonding. (Thomae & Pina, 2015; Holland & Cortina, 2016; Szymanski & Mikorski, 2016; Pryor, Lavite & Stoller, 1993)
1.4 POWER RELATIONSHIPS

There is great consensus among policymakers and researchers that sexual harassment in the workplace is a recurring social problem. The majority of research concerning sexual harassment has examined sexual harassment of women by men, which represent the most predominant form of harassment in workplaces. The pioneering scholarly work by Catharine MacKinnon in the 1970s and 80s established sexual harassment as a prosecutable form of sex discrimination. (MacKinnon, 1979)

MacKinnon proposes an explanation of sexual harassment based on gender, and by definition, something that men do to women. This definition of sexual harassment in the workplace is grounded in the unwanted enforcement of sexual demands, promulgated by unequal power relationships. These power relationships within the organization are rooted in the sexual and material power imbalance that exists between men and women outside of the labor market. These are brought into the work space, and so the existence of power imbalances in different spheres mutually reinforce each other. Her definition was enrolled as a feminist tradition, which largely presumes our society to be subject to unequal power structures. Women tend to possess a generally poorer position in the power hierarchy, where sexual harassment worsens their position even further. (Ibid.)

MacKinnon introduced a distinction between harassment as either “quid pro quo” i.e. sexual favors in exchange for a promotion or raise and/or the creation of a hostile work environment, where the person is not willing to engage, and where the harasser retaliates. For the latter, MacKinnon argues that women in these particular scenarios are often forced to a tacit acceptance of the conditions and a sexualized environment, which is considered to be more suppressing for women than cases of quid pro quo. (Browne, 2006)

1.5 MALE-DOMINATED SECTORS AND POWER DIFFERENTIALS

Apart from power differentials and expressions of gender, the workplace demography also influences sexual harassment experiences, hence why a large part of the literature emphasizes the importance of numerical sex ratios and gender parity in workplaces. The weight of the evidence suggests that sexual harassment of women and men often occurs in male-dominated sectors, occupations and settings. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1997; Mansfield et. al., 1991; Uggen and Blackstone, 2004; Rospenda et. al., 1998) Lafontaine (1986) highlights that occupations that have been traditionally male-dominated and are characterized by large power differentials between organizational levels are positively correlated with the incidence of sexual harassment of women. In a male-dominated setting, women tend to be sexually harassed by their male
counterparts, while men experience it more often from other males. (Illies, Hauserman, Schwochau & Stibal, 2003; Lafontaine & Tredeau, 1986)

1.6 GENDER-BASED SEXUAL HARASSMENT

On the other hand, Katherine Franke (1997) emphasizes how it is merely not about the subordination of women by men, but about the enforcement of gender norms for men as well as women. In her work, she describes harassment as a means to regulate and police particular views on men and women, and how they should be behaving according to prescribed gender roles and societal classifications of masculinity and femininity. (Franke, 1997) This is especially prevailing in male-dominated workplaces, where research by Berdahl and Welsh suggest that women are more vulnerable to sexual harassment from superiors and/or colleagues. In a male-dominated workplace, where masculine norms are enforced, a woman will naturally stick out, which in turn increases her chances of being sexually harassed (Berdahl, 2007; Welsh, 1999) This also applies to men that go against or do not conform to the prevalent gender ideals within the organizational context, in which they work. (Berdahl, 2007) Gutek (1987) argues that sexual harassment happens, as what is expected by females in a male-dominated workplace does not consist with her gender role, while the opposite asserts itself in female-dominated occupations. Hence a large concentration of one gender in an occupation or sector entails expectations towards one behaving in accordance to the gender roles, that are defined by the majority gender at place. Thus the individuals and associated gender-roles that are part of a minority, such as women in a male-dominated workplace, will be considered to deviate from the majority i.e. men. According to Gutek, these ways of doing gender and the transfer of gender-based behavior to the workplace can facilitate a work environment characterized by hostility towards deviance from the norms. (Gutek, 1987)

1.7 THE SOCIOCULTURAL MODEL VS. THE ORGANIZATIONAL MODEL

While the feminist perspective, as proposed by MacKinnon, sees societal changes as necessary to reduce sexual harassment, the legal and the organizational perspective seeks solutions through changes in the workplace. (MacKinnon, 1979; Gutek, 1987) In this line of literature, a variety of the definitions and models are often compared to each other. The sociocultural model, developed by Pina and other co-authors, focuses on unequal gender power structures, where sexual harassment is an expression of inequality, sexism, patriarchal structures and male dominance in our societies. (MacKinnon, 1979; Pina et. al., 2009) The unequal gender roles permeates sexual harassment, and therefore aids in its persistence. Women and men, that
practice a marginalized masculinity or are considered feminine are the most vulnerable targets of sexual harassment. This also means that sexual harassment can be a way to confirm the male employees masculinity in front of other men at the workplace, as other men become the main audience, for example when a sexist comment about women is used as a way to demonstrate power. (Quinn, 2002).

On the other hand, Pina et.al. (2009) also develops the organizational model, which suggest that sexual harassment is an exploitation of hierarchical relations, authority and power imbalance at the workplace. In other words, it is the norms and the environment that are essential to whether sexual harassment takes places, where the management’s reaction to sexual harassment is instrumental as to how much it is allowed to develop. (Pina et. al., 2009; Sundaresh & Hemalatha, 2013) This model, although not as much as the sociocultural model, has a gendered dimension in which both men and women can be victims, but since women often rank lower organizationally, they are more commonly the victims. (O’Donohue et. al., 1998)

1.8 WOMEN AND MEN FROM DIFFERENT SOCIAL GROUPS

Connell’s (1987) theory of hegemonic masculinity supersedes Franke’s gender proposition as an explanation to sexual harassment, by looking at the patterns of practice that allowed men’s collective dominance over women to continue. These patterns ascended through culture, institutions and persuasion, where sexual harassment may act as a tool to achieve appropriate ways of “doing gender” and as a mean to penalize gender nonconformity among men and women. (Connell, 1987)

Research by Texerira (2002) on contra-power harassment suggests that race, class positions and gender equips harassers with informal power, even though the targets may possess greater organizational authority than the harassers. She has advanced two distinct positions for the contra-power processes; the vulnerable-victim hypothesis, in which women, racial minorities and those with precarious positions and least work-place authority are subject to greater levels of sexual harassment. And secondly, the power-threat model. (Texerira, 2002) With greater empirical support, the power-threat model suggests that women with authoritative and supervisory positions, who threaten men’s dominance, are targeted more frequently than other women. (Chamberlain et. al., 2008; Stainback, Ratliff and Roscigno, 2011; Texerira, 2002)

Few studies have considered race as a variable of interest. Buchanan and Ormerod (2002) considered the effect of race, particularly by investigating the prevalence of harassment towards African-American women. Their studies suggested that women of color are subject to
a more racialized form of sexual harassment, and so their experience with harassment may be distinct from that experienced by Caucasian women.

1.9 MENTAL HEALTH SYMPTOMS AFTER EXPERIENCING HARASSMENT

Although women are more likely to experience being put down or treated differently because of their sex, both men and women experience gender harassment more frequently than other forms of sexual harassment. While a number of investigations have examined mental health outcomes from sexual harassment for men and women separately, few of them focus on the effect of gender roles. Street, Gradus, Stafford and Kelly’s (2007) contribution to the field examines the experiences of sexual harassment among males and females during military service. Their results points towards raising awareness around men that experience sexual harassment, as it shows to have greater and stronger negative mental health impact, compared to the females in the same categories. The authors surveyed 2,319 females and 1,627 male former reservists in the U.S Military, to examine the gender differences in the types of harassment experienced. (Street et. al., 2007)

The typologies adopted stem from the conceptual model developed by Fitzgerald (1997), which we addressed in the earlier paragraphs. The researchers used a logistic regression to identify the frequency of each experienced subtype of sexual harassment by each gender (sexist hostility, sexual hostility, unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion), while also accounting for the odds of experiencing sexual harassment as a male and a female. (Fitzgerald, 1999) Finally, they examine associations with mental health outcomes. The results showed that:

a) Males have their worst harassment experience perpetrated by someone of the same gender
b) Female participants reported a higher frequency of all sexual harassment experiences and also had increased odds of experiencing any subtype of sexual harassment compared to the male participants
c) Items reflecting the smallest gender difference i.e. smallest odds ratio were not items that assessed inappropriate expression of sexual interest, but rather were consistent with Franke’s (1997) conceptualization of sexual harassment: this type of behavior as a means of enforcing rigid hyper masculine gender norms, conveyed by offensive sexual stories, jokes and remarks, in male-dominated environments.
For general mental health, the analyses revealed elevations in mental health symptoms. Among both men and women, sexual harassment was a predictor of increased symptoms of PTSD and depression. The analyses revealed a significant interaction effect; hence at high levels of harassment, male participants generally reported a larger decrease in general mental health, than females in the survey. (Street et. al., 2007)

Models of responses to sexual harassment are developed based on women’s experiences, which may not fully explain men’s experiences with sexual harassment. One explanation relates to the way our society views sexual trauma as less normative for men, although male victims of sexual harassment often report greater levels of surprise and shock. This in turn threatens his own gender role, resulting in increased feelings of blame, shame and powerlessness, which according to Singer (1989) also illuminates why male victims are less likely to report these experiences, in the absence of clinical evaluation.

1.10 THE SANITATION OF THE WORKPLACE

In Schultz’s (2003) “The Sanitized Workplace”, she raises some of the concerns related to management having increased legitimacy and license to punish sexual conduct, which she believes suppresses sexuality and intimacy in the workplace. Her work emphasizes that, “rather than presuming that women will always find sexual conduct offensive, this research suggests that we should ensure that women are fully integrated into equal jobs and positions of authority.” (Schultz, 2003, p. 2070) Hence management should not possess unilateral power to censor sexual conduct, but instead “strive to create structurally egalitarian work settings in which employees can work with management to forge their own norms about sexual conduct.” (Ibid., p. 2070)

Hence according to this perspective, if employees are to work together informally and intensely to accomplish organizational goals, managers have to set traditional ideas of rationality aside, that paints sexuality and intimacy as irrational forces that do not belong in the organizational life. Moreover, contemporary organizational emphasis on harassment and discrimination has led women to translate and understand broader forms of managerial abuse and discrimination as sexual harassment. In this perspective, scholarly work suggests that organizations with liberal and dynamic cultures led by creativity and innovation often contain an atmosphere of pressure and activity that stimulate sexual excitement. Thus human intimacy and sexuality should be viewed as an interwoven part of organizational life, which facilitates close synergies and an atmosphere of intellectual and social openness within the organization. Schultz (2003) advocates for the coexistence of sexuality and intimacy with gender equality and organizational
rationality, rather than punishing people on suspect grounds of either harassing or discriminatory behavior.

1.11 PROVISIONS IN THE LAW

In Denmark, sexual harassment is often dealt with at a non-legal level, e.g. as part of human resource management at each individual organization or through the use of unions. However, the Equal Treatment Act in the occupations of men and women summarizes the different engagements and fields of application of the jurisdictions related to harassment and discrimination. Under Danish legislation and caselaw, the Danish Equal Treatment Act Section 1 has been put in place to prohibit sex discrimination and sexual harassment in employment conditions since the 1990’s, hence before the EU defined sexual harassment as unlawful sex discrimination. (Andersen et al., 2006)

These are the provisions given on the ground of sex and sexual harassment in Danish Legislation:

- Section 1 of the Danish Equal Treatment Act (consolidated Act no. 734 of 28th of June 2006)
- Section 1(a) of the Danish Equal Pay Act (consolidated Act no. 899 of 5th of September 2008)
- Section 2a of the Danish Gender Equality Act (consolidated Act no. 1095 of 19th of September 2007)
- Section 3(a) of the Act of Equal Treatment of Men and Women in Connections with Insurance, Pensions and Similar Financial Services (consolidated Act no. 133 of 24th of February 2009)

The Equal Treatment Act Section 1, article 3, 4, 5 and 6 outline the properties of direct and indirect discrimination, harassment and sexual harassment. Paragraph 2 and 3 in the Equal Treatment Act defines direct and indirect discrimination as follows:

Paragraph 2/3. “It is direct/indirect discrimination, when a provision, a criterion or a practice, which is seemingly neutral, will put people of one sex inferior to people of the other sex, unless
that provision, condition or practice objectively justified for a factual purpose and the means to meet it are appropriate or necessary."⁴

According to Andersen et. al. (2006), indirect indiscrimination is often difficult to articulate and more subtle in its expressions than direct discrimination, which makes the prevalence of sexual harassment in this category problematic to identify and even harder to corroborate in a legal case. Infringing acts can in these cases cause occupational injury, either in the form of an accident of work or occupational disease. The following paragraphs offer broader and clearer definitions of harassment and sexual harassment, which is extremely important if we want to understand the varying degrees of sexual harassment and possible grey-zones in the application of the law. (Andersen et al., 2006)

Paragraph 5 in the Equal Treatment Act defines harassment as:

Paragraph 5 “There is harassment, when there is expelled any form of unwanted verbal, nonverbal or physical behavior in connection with a person’s gender with the purpose or the effect to violate a person’s dignity and create a threatening, hostile, degrading, humiliating or unpleasant climate.”⁵ (Bekendtgørelse af lov om ligebehandling af mænd og kvinder med hensyn til beskæftigelse m.v., 2011)

Paragraph 6 in the Equal Treatment Act defines sexual harassment as:

Paragraph 6. “There is sexual harassment, when there is expelled any form of unwanted verbal, nonverbal or physical behavior with sexual undertones with the purpose or the effect to violate a person’s dignity, namely by creating a threatening, hostile, degrading, humiliating or unpleasant climate.”⁶ (Bekendtgørelse af lov om ligebehandling af mænd og kvinder med hensyn til beskæftigelse m.v., 2011)

Paragraph 4 in the Equal Treatment Act, under Section 1, condemns harassment and sexual harassment as an unlawful act:

⁵ Source: https://www.retsinformation.dk/eli/ta/2011/645, visited: 16th of February 2021
Paragraph 4. “Harassment, as defined in Paragraph 5, and sexual harassment as defined in Paragraph 6, are to be considered as discrimination based on sex and are therefore prohibited. A person’s rejection or of submission to such conduct may not be used as justification for a decision affecting that person.” (“Promulgation of the law on equal treatment of men and women with regard to employment, etc., 2011”)

The definitions offered in the Danish legislation, according to Andersen et. al. (2006), refer to both the purpose or effect of violating a person’s dignity, and as such, accept that harassment can be unintentional. The scope of the Danish prohibition of harassment and sexual harassment is broad and applies virtually to every sector, occupation and person. Under Section 1(a) in the Gender Equality Act, the application of the these prohibitions extends to:

1. Every employer, organization or authority in public enterprise and public administration
2. All persons, organizations and authorities who supply goods and services made available to the public in both public and private sectors, including public bodies, which are offered outside the transactions, the private and family life in this regard.

Hence the Danish Gender Equality Act applies to all sectors of society, e.g. media, social security and education.

1.12 RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE EMPLOYER AND THE EMPLOYEE
Currently, there exists no sanctions or elicit provisions in legislation, nor any case law on whether the employer can be held legally responsible for harassment by customers, colleagues or superiors, although the harassment and sexual harassment prohibitions formulated earlier addresses employers specifically. The Working Environment Act (“Arbejdsmiljøloven”) prescribes that all employees need to have a both mentally and physically healthy work environment. The act places the responsibility on the employer to conduct effective supervision with the wellbeing of their employees.

The Executive Order on the Execution of Work (“Bekendtgørelse om arbejdets udførelse”) emphasizes the prevalence of harassment and bullying in any organization, as a responsibility of the employer. This is to be understood in the way that the employer has a general duty to provide a safe working environment, by the implementation of a personnel policy and

appropriate guidelines. Hence the employer is the responsible party for any harassment or sexual harassment by managers and co-workers, if the employer has not taken adequate steps to inhibit or stop the harassment. Many employers and organizations nowadays use workplace-specific internal complaints procedures to combat harassment as well as sexual harassment; thus these are measures that under the law fulfils the employer’s duty. If the employer has not fulfilled this duty to stop the occurrence of harassment at the workplace, the aggrieved worker can invoke working environment rules with the help of the labor union. (Andersen et. al., 2006)

1.13 ORIGINS OF THE LEGISLATURE

These legislatures and definitions have their origins from the European Union. The Equal Treatment Act incorporates directives from the European Council “Equal Treatment Directive” of 2002, in which the principle of equal opportunity for and equal treatment of men and women in relation to their employment and occupation is implemented. The definition of sexual harassment in article 6 is developed on the basis of the recommendations put forth by the Council of Ministers resolution of 29th of May 1990 and The European Commissions’ recommendation of 27th of November 1991 on the protection of women and men’s dignities in the workplace. (Beskæftigelsesministeriet “EU’s ligebehandlingsdirektiv”, 2002) It is explicitly stated in the EU law and in Danish law, that sexual harassment is conflicting to the principle of equal treatment and that it is the employers’ responsibility to ensure equal working conditions. (Ibid.) Provisions on harassment on the ground of sex and sexual harassment can also be found in Directives 2006/54 and 2004/113. These directives have been transposed and implemented directly in Section 1 of the Danish Equal Treatment Act. The wording of these provisions differ slightly from the Directives, however, the meaning can be argued to be the same throughout both the European Union’s directives and the Danish provisions. (Ibid.)

1.14 CASE LAW WITHIN THE EXISTING SET OF RULES

An important perspective which often arises when discussing sexual harassment, is why victims rarely report to courts or any relevant judicial instance; thus why these cases often fall through when it comes to both conviction and remediation, according to a report conducted by the Danish labor union “3F”. Despite the clear formulation of the law on sexual harassment, convictions within the realm are rare; this is especially relevant for verbal harassment, as it

often is the most common type of sexual harassment, which has the most far-reaching consequences and mental injuries to follow for the violated. Sentencing almost always requires that the incident has some character of physical assault. Assumingly, there is some reluctance towards raising convictions for verbal sexual harassment, despite the legal authority prescribed in the law. (3F, “Seksuel chikane og restssystemet”, 2015)

Other concerns related to the prosecution of sexual harassment cases relate to the evidence burden. In cases of sexual harassment, it is often very difficult to lead evidence in a case. According to the Danish Union “3F”, this can attributed to several factors:

1. Lack of witnesses
Sexual harassment often happens in places and at times where there is no witnesses present

2. Word against word
Often, the offender's defense consists of denial, or in opinions on how the woman herself wanted it, and so it ends up in a case of word against word.

3. Witnesses falling through with their testimonies
Furthermore, another factor worth considering is the long waiting time before the case is presented to the court - which can take almost a year by estimate from filing the incident - which increases the inclination for witnesses to fall through on their testimonies. This is contributable to situational factors; the victim of the sexual harassment will be off the worksite, while witnesses might still have to function in the very same workplace where it happened, and so they might attach the utmost importance to this consideration.

1.15 RESPONSE STRATEGIES TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT
For many years, a number of scholars have attempted to classify responses to harassment, a few who draw links to outcomes and consequences. More importantly, contemporary public debates on sexism and sexual harassment in the work place often pose questions about the reliability of these women’s testimonies, the assertiveness in their responses and rejections of the offender. Fitzgerald (1995) explores and reconceptualizes responses to sexual harassment, within the context of modern cognitive approaches to understand stressful life situations. (Fitzgerald, 1995; Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)

In her paper “Why Didn’t She Just Report Him? The Psychological and Legal Implications of Women’s Responses to Sexual Harassment”, she highlights how victims seek institutional or
organizational relief (i.e. filing of a formal complaint, filing a lawsuit or notifying a supervisor) as the last resort when they have experienced sexual harassment at varying degrees. Hence more often, they would resort to other response strategies that are internally or externally focused. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1995)

**Internally focused responses.** A common response in less severe situations, is to ignore the harassment and do nothing (*endurance*) or pretend that the situation is not happening or that the victim does not care. (*denial*) “Doing nothing” or “endurance” in this context may imply a deliberate decision to ignore the harassment, that is, enduring the situation because one is afraid, one sees it as unavoidable or simply just does not know what else to do. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1988; Gutek, 1985, Gutek & Koss, 1993) Other internally focused responses of these women was to rethink the situation in such a way that it was not defined as harassment. Others attempted to interpret these men’s intentions as benign or by attributing the harassment to their own behavior i.e. blaming themselves, which inhibited their willingness to report or file complaints. (Jensen & Gutek, 1982)

**Externally focused responses** is where the victim actively attempts to cope by means of humor (*appeasement*) as to avoid direct confrontation with the harasser, through the use of humor, excuses, delaying etc. Many women avoid the offender, which is the most common problem-solving strategy (*avoidance*). Other victims discussed the issue with a colleague, a friend or a family member (*social support*). Other women would also employ a variety of assertive responses, such as to communicate their discomfort and disapproval with the harassment, by explicitly asking the harasser to stop and leave them alone, while others threatened to expose the harasser to co-workers. A limited number of women either verbally or physically attacked their harassers (*assertive*). (Fitzgerald et. al, 1995; Gruber & Bjorn, 1982) The different coping strategies often depend on the severity of the harassment, which elicit varying degrees of assertive reactions; where the harassment has been explicit or repeated, victims often sought more assertive response strategies, hence unmistakable harassing behaviors or situations are more likely to elicit assertion or a complaint. Where the harassing behavior was more subtle and less explicit, victims were more likely to avoid or ignore the offender, or put him off by using humor. (Gruber & Bjorn, 1986; Livingston, 1982; Fitzgerald et. al., 1995)

Presently, women that are victims of sexual harassment in the work place are often faced with the question “*why did you not just report him?*”, in which they give a variety of answers. First and foremost, they have a belief that nothing can or will be done, while others are merely reluctant as they do not want to cause problems for the harasser. However, the most common
reason they give is fear. Fear of not being believed, fear of retaliation and afraid of how it could impact their careers. (Gutek, 1985; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Fitzgerald et. al., 1995; Gruber & Bjorn, 1982; Fitzgerald et. al., 1988) In Culbertson’s (1992) study of the navy, a third of the victims state how they were humiliated in front of others after filing a complaint, while multiple researchers have found that assertive responding was associated with more negative outcomes, in other words, “made things worse”. Thus the literature on response strategies to sexual harassment has given some explanations to why women are reluctant to instigate legal proceedings and report their offenders. (Culbertson et. al., 1992; Hesson-McInnis & Fitzgerald, 1992)

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 METHODS OF ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND POLITICAL BREAKTHROUGH

The Danish publication “Seksuel chikane på arbejdspladsen: Faglige, politiske og retlige spor” by Borchorst and Agustin (2017) addresses some of the possible shortcomings in sexual harassment surveys, especially the one conducted by NFA. In their review of the phenomenon from different political and legal aspects, they identify three concerning methodological issues:

1. **QUESTION FORMULATION**

The percentages derived from the NFA on the scope of sexual harassment are some of the lowest among analyses in the field (although we found that HK had even lower percentages than NFA, however, it is a special case and the analysis will reveal why). Basically, one can problematize that political debates on sexual harassment for the most part refer to average figures for both men and women of 3 percent, regardless of the fact that there is a large gender difference in the scope. Also, they address some of the problems associated with the formulation of the questions posed. NFA has altered both the question and answer options; from “unwanted sexual attention” in 2005 to “sexual harassment” in 2012, hence a use of the actual word “sexual harassment” in the survey, that is more closely related to the definition in the Equal Treatment Act. However, there is no doubt that it makes a difference whether one asks in general or for specific behaviors, of which the SEQ method lends itself to, as we compare the selected surveys. (Borchorst & Agustin, 2017)
2. A PROBLEM “ONLY” IN CARE PROFESSIONS AND PUBLIC SECTOR

According to the researchers of this book, The NFA concludes that sexual harassment is most prevalent in care subjects, occupations and fields and so is a problem most exclusively withheld to the public sector. On one hand, some of the union analyses and surveys we have referred to confirm that there exists absurdly high incidence levels in care professions, but at the same time, it is clear that other industries are affected from sexual harassment. They argue that the NFA results are sample-based, and so they are so small that it is only tenable to conclude where sexual harassment is most prevalent; hence it is also what they stick to doing in their publications. However, the surveys we have included in the analysis will reveal that sexual harassment is a widespread problem across both the public and private sector. (Ibid.)

3. HARASSERS ARE MOSTLY CITIZENS, CLIENTS OR PATIENTS

The last point the book makes in addressing the methodological issues with the NFA survey, before addressing and going deeper into the legal aspects, is a point referring to who the harasser is. The conclusion from NFA, and as pointed out by the authors of this book, is that it is predominantly citizens, clients and patients who engage in sexual harassment. However this is skewed in relation to the union analyses, where managers and coworkers take up far more space in the measure. Research also suggest that sexual harassment from coworkers or superiors has greater implications for mental health symptoms, where two previous Danish studies found no statistically significant association between sexual harassment from clients and customers and long-term sickness absence. (Friborg et al., 2017; Borchorst and Rolandsen, 2017)

2.2 SEXUAL HARASSMENT: METHODOLOGICAL CRITIQUES

Lengnick-Hall (1995) has previously published a methodological critique on sexual harassment research. In the paper, Lengnick-Hall identifies seven prevalent methodological issues associated with conducting sexual harassment research. While some of the critiques are related to legal definitions, others are directed at methodological considerations.

1) LACK OF ATTENTION TO CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

The first issue is related to the failure to specify the sexual harassment construct. The author here directs attention to the objective and subjective conceptualization of sexual harassment. The first shows stronger relationship with legal outcomes and provides more boundary to the
construct, making it easier to determine what is not included and which behaviors that by legal
definition, are not considered sexual harassment. From this perspective, this does not entail that
the victim does not still perceive it as sexual harassment and might suffer negative
consequences, however, it exemplifies how subtler types of sexual harassment, such as jokes
and coarse language, are more difficult to uphold to the legal definition. (Lengnick-Hall, 1995)
An alternative conceptualization of sexual harassment as a subjective phenomenon, a great
amount of behavior is perceived to the harassing, because harassment is treated as a subjective
construct and in the eye of the beholder, but also makes it more difficult to define the
construct’s boundaries. Thus, there lies great difficulty in studying a variable that can mean so
many different things according to who you are asking, moreover, generalize findings that
produce knowledge useful for interventions and policy measures. (Ibid.)
The Danish definition, however, is one that has a more subjective nature and encapsulates
everything that you as an individual perceive as undesirable and boundary-crossing.
Research on sexual harassment will suffer from such construct validity issues, if the purpose
of the research is not clearly defined and where there is no appropriate construct specification.
Although most of the studies used in the analysis accounts for their purpose in their previews,
many of them fail to include an account of the construct specification. This in turn, makes it
difficult to assess the frequency with which sexual harassment occurs. (Ibid.)

(2) SURVEY RESEARCH
For sexual harassment research to advance knowledge, there needs to be directed more
attention to the methodological weaknesses. Traditionally, sexual harassment surveys provides
data on overall incidence levels, sometimes data on what types of harassment, who the offender
was (client, colleague, etc.) and so forth.
The methods most commonly used for surveys that investigate sexual harassment is the direct
query methods and the behavioral experiences method. The query method directly asks
respondents whether they have been sexual harassed in a work setting, which allows the
respondent to subjectively define sexual harassment and makes it a more perceptual construct
vis-a-vis the NFA survey. However, it may be a misleading indicator to the extent of the
problem, because reported percentages do not allow us to say anything about the severity or
pervasiveness of the interaction. The behavioral experiences method asks respondents to
whether they have experienced a number of sexual harassment behaviors, which identifies
behaviors that can be presumed to be illegal. The surveys conducted by HK and FH/Epinion
use a method that resonates more with the behavioral experiences method, as they ask more
explicit and intrinsic questions to the types of harassment experienced, of which respondents can check off if they have experienced one or more. The analysis will highlight how these two methods of inquiry produce very different results and understandings of sexual harassment, among other methodological points of analysis. (Lengnick-Hall, 1995; HK, 2017; FH/Epinion, 2019)

(3) EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH
Experimental research on sexual harassment typically provides subjects with a scenario of vignette, and are then asked to respond to a survey, stating whether the incident represents sexual harassment, e.g. according to gender. However, a select number of studies have argued for how men and women differ in their perception of what constitutes sexual harassment. (Abbey, 1982; Gutek, Morasch & Cohen, 1983; Jensen & Gutek, 1982; Hartnett, Robinson & Singh, 1989)

This line of research assumes that the scenarios include all relevant variables that otherwise would be salient in a real situation, which makes it difficult to achieve experimental realism, when using scenarios. Hence a respondent’s reaction to descriptive stimuli i.e. a scenario, are more likely to be stronger than their reactions to real life situations. (Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

(4) CROSS-SECTIONAL AND STATIC APPROACHES
Another methodological critique that Lengnick-Hall points out, is the lack of longitudinal or process perspective that can reflect and highlight the unfolding process of sexual harassment. This is especially relevant when we want to investigate severity and pervasiveness, as recurrence is oftentimes a factor when considering these two. Although NFA and FOA, among others, have conducted surveys for years; since they are cross-sectional data and only show a snapshot at a specific point in time, it is impossible to understand the dynamics of sexual harassment and infer any tendencies, nor developments, over the years. If they instead had invited the same respondents back in after second year, we would be able to make inferences about the development. (FOA, 2019; NFA, 2018; Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

(5) SAMPLING STRATEGIES
Although with few exceptions, survey research makes use of random samples in a population of individuals e.g. workplaces, industries etc., which makes it problematic to generalize findings to a whole population i.e. only make inferences about these individuals. This is the case of the surveys from among others FOA, HK and 3F, which use members of their labor
union to harness data on sexual harassment. This in turn, makes it difficult to generalize their findings to the whole population, however, it highlights the existence of relationships in some populations, such as care work being one of the sectors with most cases of experienced sexual harassment. (FOA, 2019; 3F, 2015; HK, 2017; Lengnick-Hall, 1995)
Nevertheless, if results and findings can only be generalized to the population of individuals, although randomly selected, it may make it too limited to yield insight into the general problem. (Gillespie & Leffler, 1987)

2.3 METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEMS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS IN SEXUAL HARASSMENT RESEARCH
Sexual harassment is drawing attention from social scientists and is increasingly becoming a more important research topic, of which a number of theoretical and empirical studies have been published by several Danish organizations. The incidence rates, severity, types of harassment among other parameters are diligently researched and accounted for in statistical terms. Furthermore, these studies encompass a great variety of samples, categorizations of harassment and data collections methods. However, there exists some underlying differences and gaps in the way the phenomenon is measured, especially with regards to the types of harassment incidents Danish women and men experience. Another factor worth considering, with regards to the types of harassment experienced, is the changing perceptions of sexual harassment and that certain types of acts are more apt to be defined as sexually harassing than others. This is especially relevant to assess the severity of the acts, by looking at the contextual information and factors in research that affect severity. (Gruber, 1990)

2.4 DIVERGING METHODS OF OPERATIONALIZATION
In a research conducted by James E. Gruber (1990), an investigation of possible methodological problems in previous sexual harassment research are highlighted. He presents three central methodological problems in the research literature as, “Different terms are used to describe a similar phenomenon (or, conversely, similar terms are used to denote somewhat different phenomena); harassment categories are not exhaustive and mutually exclusive; and the categories are not treated in a way that reveals variations in severity of harassment” (Ibid., p. 244)
According to Gruber, the differences in the incidence of sexual harassment among studies are more closely related to the divergent methods of operationalizing conceptions of sexual harassment, and not so much contributable to divergent conceptualizations of sexual harassment. We will look deeper into these three central methodological problems. (Ibid.)

1) **DIFFERENT TERMS DESCRIBING THE SAME EXPERIENCE**

The first one is related to the lack of consistent usage of terms e.g. different terms are used to describe similar sexual harassment experiences. In HK (2017) and Epinion’s survey (2019), they use quite similar wordings and phrases to define several sexual harassment experiences, although HK use more categories. For example, they both ask “whether you have experienced any comments or jokes that had sexual undertones, which you considered to be offensive?”, however they differ in terms of time period. (HK, 2017, p. 5; Gruber, 1990)

HKs time frame reference is a function of time, more narrowly 12 months, while Epinion uses job as a time frame reference, asking them whether they have experienced it in their current or previous workplace. (Epinion, 2019) On the other hand, FOA used to include a question where respondents could check of the experiences they have had up until their 2018 survey, but the 2019 survey does not contain the possibility to check off sexual harassment experience categories, as respondents used to do. The one conducted by 3F uses a different method when trying to divide the experiences into categories. Unlike the others, they ask “how the sexual harassment is expressed” and use categories that are less specific, such as “verbal comments”, “through touches” etc. “Verbal comments” in this case would refer to and most likely have the same meaning as “any comments or jokes that had sexual undertones”, as used in the HK/Epinion surveys. (FOA, 2019: 3F, 2015, p. 11) The lack of consistent usage of terms is a predictable problem in new and evolving research areas (Coleman & Salamon, 1988), however, the research field has been studied intensively since the 70’s, hence the research techniques should have gradually become more standardized and there should have been developed a more consistent labelling of harassment experiences. (Gruber, 1990)

2) **MUTUALLY EXCLUSIVE AND EXHAUSTIVE CATEGORIZATION**

Another methodological issue pointed out by Gruber is the examination of categories made available for respondents to check off and the problems associated with comparing harassment studies. According to Gruber, it is categories and terms like these that become too broad and because of that, do not specify the content of the message and/or action. Broad categories have an advantage in that they encompass nearly all possible types of harassment, thereby solving
the problem with exhaustiveness of categories. On the other hand, a major disadvantage of such typologies is that they underspecify the variation of harassment types. Hence as we increase the number of categories and subcategories used in these studies, a boundary problem at a more refined level is created. This problem can be solved when more detailed information about the content and context of a harassing interaction is included. (Ibid.)

3) SEVERITY VS. OCCURRENCE
A final methodological problem with the categorization of sexual harassment is that many studies do no give consideration to the severity of the harassing interaction. None of the studies included in the analysis have used a variable to explore differences in the incidence and responses to sexual harassment, other than HK. The survey “UNDER THE SURFACE” (“UNDER OVERFLADEN”) included both statistical measures of incidence levels and types of harassment, along with 26 interviews, in which respondents detail their experience and response to the interaction. (HK, 2017) Gruber emphasizes how important that the severity of the harassment is considered when conducting research in the field. First, studies that fail to consider severity as a variable, will predict which persons that continuously are targeted, and therefore, are more likely to be subject to frequent harassment. However, the very same factors do not predict who is more likely to be subjected to severe harassment. (Ibid.)

2.5 SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH
Social science research plays an important role in public debate with concerns to the nature of a problem, furthermore possible solutions. Science provides the documentation that legitimates definitions on and about social problems, and so scientific credentials are important in establishing the legitimacy of a definition. Hence methodological issues bearing on the validity and reliability of social scientific research becomes a political issue, especially if these are the very same institutions that we draw inferences and sources of knowledge from. Gillespie and Leffler (1987) contribute to this notion in literature, in their paper “The Politics of Research Methodology in Claims-Making Activities: Social Science and Sexual Harassment”. They raise awareness to the challenges social science researchers meet, when constructing research on emergent social problems, such as methodological issues similar to the ones addressed earlier. Moreover, they address the clash that emerges between accepted definitions and new definitions of a social problem, such as sexual harassment. Social science researchers play an instrumental role in defining and promoting certain claims on social problems, however, these very same researchers can find it difficult to obtain funds to study
the condition adequately. The NFA survey investigates many aspects of both physical and mental work environment, which is perhaps why it is difficult to include more questions in the sexual harassment category, while a study on sexual harassment only, might not receive funds from The Ministry of Labor ("Beskæftigelsesministeriet") and is virtually not the task of the NFA. Nevertheless, it is in this way, that social science plays a supporting role in authorizing competing definitions in the public arena, especially status quo definitions and preconceptions. This in turn, leads claim-makers to challenge status quo definitions, which tend to have more political, scientific-legitimacy and organizational advantages over new competing definitions and preconceptions. Whereas sexual harassment has previously been defined as “office romance” and alike, it is the research and work of social researchers that has altered definitions and conceptions of such behaviors, finally deeming them inappropriate and harassing. (Gillespie & Leffler, 1987)

2.6 RACIALIZED FORMS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

What could be worth considering and exploring for future harassment studies is if there are any differences or other factors among the targeted men and women that result in a different type or more/less severe harassing interaction e.g. minority women or men, queers etc. Researchers, such as Buchanan, have investigated how sexual harassment is perceived differently across races and ethnicity, suggesting that women of color experience a more racialized form of sexual harassment. (Buchanan and Ormerod, 2002; Texeira, 2002)

In current Danish studies, respondents are generically divided by gender and age. However, research suggests that some subgroups may experience types of sexual harassment that are rooted or conditioned in other factors, than age and gender. Hence if these studies allowed respondents to identify themselves in terms of their ethnicity and sexual orientation, although not a requirement, would permit these surveys to harness data that somewhat can explore both how severity and prevalence is different according to not only age and gender, but other characteristics of the person as well. As we go deeper into the analysis, we will address this point and more narrowly exemplify how differences in the personal attributes of the person in some cases lead to a type of and experience with harassment, that is different from other experiences. (Ibid.)
2.7 THE PREVALENCE AND NATURE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE WORKPLACE: A MODEL FOR EARLY IDENTIFICATION AND EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT THEREOF

Human capital plays an essential role in increasing organizational effectiveness and growth, yet human capital is often encumbered by sexual harassment (Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007) which greatly affects the interpersonal relationships required for productive human capital. For the purpose of this paper, this perception of sexual harassment as detrimental to organizational effectivity plays a key role in emphasizing the importance of studying workplace sexual harassment in international business.

In their paper, Ramsaroop and Parumasur (2007), define sexual harassment as any form of unwelcomed sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct that is, as aforementioned, unwelcomed. This definition falls in line with the legal framework in Denmark, and indeed resembles the definition put forth by the Danish Equal Treatment Act. We adopt this definition of sexual harassment put forth by both Ramsaroop & Parumasur (2007) in addition to the Danish Equal Treatment Act.

However, sexual harassment can take many forms such as either quid pro quo sexual harassment and hostile environment sexual harassment (Ibid.) with the latter being the most common type.

Quid pro quo sexual harassment occurs when a supervisor, or manager, approaches a subordinate for sexual favors in exchange for employment benefits such as promotions.

Hostile environment sexual harassment, is, as the name implies, a hostile work environment in which sexual harassment frequently occurs. Victims in such environments are frequently subjugated to sexual harassment, whether it be verbal, non-verbal or physical, and are, as a result, impeded in the workplace, feeling either threatened or humiliated (Ibid.)

SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND EFFECTIVENESS

However, feeling threatened or humiliated is simply scratching the surface of the massive impact sexual harassment may have on victims’ mental wellness. Indeed, victims of sexual harassment may feel threatened or humiliated, yet such incidents may have a severe impact on victim’s mental health. Such repercussions on a victim's mental health may lead to self-doubt, loss of self-confidence, anger and severe depression (Ibid.) and this may impede their work productivity. As such, it is important, when researching sexual harassment, not to understand the incident itself, but perhaps research and understand the subsequent impact it may have on its victims. However, sexual harassment impedes not only individual productivity, but it may
very well impede organizational productivity and efficiency as well. Therefore, it is crucial that organizations must take action in order to decrease, and eliminate, sexual harassment, in order to increase organizational efficiency and productivity, which is dependent on individual productivity and efficiency as well. Workplace sexual harassment therefore becomes, not only a matter of individual well-being, but organizational health and productivity as well. To sum up everything stated so far, studying workplace sexual harassment may contribute to organizational effectiveness in the future as well, providing leaders with frameworks that can alleviate or prevent the phenomenon.

Ramsaroop and Parumasur (2007) advise organizations to put in place effective sexual harassment policies that present organizational members with clear procedures for prevention and management of sexual harassment. In order to tackle the issue of identifying and managing sexual harassment, Ramsaroop and Parumasur (2007) have developed a model for preventing and managing sexual harassment. The study considers supervisory relations, levels of interaction, appearance and personality, and types of behavior as four key dimensions that can impact the prevalence of sexual harassment in the workplace. (Ibid.)

**SUPERVISORY RELATIONS**

Supervisory relations is a key dimension due to the fact that supervisors and managers may be prime harassers, such as cases of the aforementioned quid pro quo sexual harassment. Assessing the level of power and control used by supervisors in relation to sexual harassment is based on whether supervisors engage in any form of sexual harassment, either verbal such as comments with sexual undertones, sexual teasing, gender-related comments or non-verbal or physical, such as groping and unwanted touching. (Ibid)

Levels of interaction between genders, and types of interaction, may play an essential role in the prevalence of sexual harassment. As such, their study aims at uncovering inter-gender relations and interactions in the workplace, and whether there is a social pressure in the workplace for men and women to flirt with each other and, or, present themselves in a sexual or suggestive way.

Additionally, appearances and personality is identified as a key dimension and the study subsequently aims at identifying whether or not there is a correlation between level of physical attractiveness and sexual harassment. Lastly, fourteen types of behavior were accounted for in their spectrum of sociosexual behavior such as gender-related insults, dirty/sexual jokes, unwanted touching or sexual propositioning. (Ibid.)
PHYSICAL APPEARANCE IN PREVIOUS RESEARCH

As aforementioned, respondents perceived physical appearance to play a major role in the occurrence and prevalence of sexual harassment, and indeed, previous research has shown that when a job commodifies sex, those who have the job are more likely to be victims of sexual harassment. (Defour, 1990, cited in Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007) Additionally, according to Crouch (2001) as cited by Ramsaroop & Parumasur (2007), men desired women who are, not only, attractive, but single or divorced in addition to being young. Thus, physical attractiveness plays a role in the occurrence and prevalence of sexual harassment but the prevalence and occurrence is increased when other factors such as marital status and age are accounted for as well.

Furthermore, single women do indeed experience sexual harassment more than married women. (Skaine, 1996, cited in Ramsaroop and Parumasur, 2007)

In a similar vein, sex and sexual behavior can be incorporated in a work group’s routine and in such cases, sexual harassment is more likely to occur as well. (Renzetti et al., 2001, cited in Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007) This incorporation of sex and sexual behavior into a work group’s routine can lead to a hostile and demeaning work environment with a lack of trust towards men. However, according to Renzetti et al. (2001) as cited in Ramsaroop & Parumasur (2007), women who enter male-dominated workplaces and professions are dependent on male supervisors, and in order to obtain their own organizational authority, they must be able to manage sexual harassment from both supervisors and subordinates. Additionally, as argued by Renzetti et al. (2001), women who enter workplaces where sex and sexual harassment is normalized and incorporated into the organizational culture, may feel pressured into engaging in such a culture and may have difficulty imagining their jobs without it. More alarmingly, however, is the fact that women remain segregated in stereotypical female occupations (Jackson & Newman, 2004, cited in Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007) and women remain employed in positions under male supervisors and managers. (Unit for Research and Gender Studies, 1998, cited in Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007)

2.8 WORKPLACE SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND DEPRESSIVE SYMPTOMS: A CROSS-SECTIONAL MULTILEVEL ANALYSIS

As mentioned in Ramsaroop and Parumasur’s work (2007), workplace sexual harassment can lead to self-doubt and even severe depression. However, employees who are victims of workplace sexual harassment may not only be victims of sexual harassment by their colleagues
but by customers and/or clients as well. Indeed, examining sexual harassment from customers and clients is highly relevant, especially in work related to customer service where employees may be met with an expectation that ‘difficult customers’ are simply part of the job, which subsequently fosters a normalization of workplace sexual harassment. (Friborg et al., 2017) An example of this can be found in waitresses who may be required to wear seductive or suggestive uniforms and trained to flirt with customers and in terms of her job function, have a higher risk of experiencing sexual harassment by colleagues and customers as well. (Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007)

ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN CLIENTS AND CUSTOMERS
The association between sexual harassment from the latter abuser, i.e. customers or clients, and depression remains uncharted and it is this unexplored association that Friborg et al. (2017) have sought out to examine in their cross-sectional multilevel analysis. This analysis consists of 7.603 employees from 1.041 organizations and data was collected from the Work Environment and Health in Denmark (“National Forskningscenter for Arbejdsmiljø”) cohort study and the Work Environment Activities in Danish Workplaces Study (WEADW). The former, NFA, is based on a random sample of employees aged between 18-64 and is designed to document developments related to work environment and health amongst the Danish workforce with data being collected every second year from 2012-2020. (Friborg et al., 2017) The aforementioned 7.603 employees were derived from the NFA employees within 1.041 organizations participating in the NFA survey. (Friborg et al., 2017)

ASSESSING SEVERITY WITH KNOWLEDGE OF THE HARASSER
Measuring workplace sexual harassment was done with the question: “Have you been exposed to sexual harassment in the workplace during the last 12 months?” with the following response categories: “Yes, daily”, “Yes, weekly”, “Yes monthly”, “Yes, rarely” or “Never”. (Friborg et al., 2017) Subsequently, respondents were asked to report who the perpetrator was, i.e. a colleague, supervisor, subordinate or someone who is not employed at the respondent’s workplace, i.e. a customer or client (Ibid.)
In order to properly examine and identify the association between sexual harassment and depressive symptoms, the Major Depression Inventory (MDI) was used in their study to assess depressive symptoms. The Major Depression Inventory includes 10 items (12 questions) that cover the International Classification of Diseases 10th revision (ICD-10) in addition to the
Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders fifth edition’s (DSM-IV) symptoms of depression, both major and minor. (Ibid.)

Of the 7,603 respondents, 2.4% were exposed to sexual harassment from clients and customers, while women were more likely to be victims of sexual harassment (4.1%) as opposed to 0.1% of men. In terms of colleagues and supervisors, 1.0% of respondents reported exposure to sexual harassment from their colleagues and/or supervisors, and similarly to sexual harassment from clients and customers, women reported a higher degree of exposure (1.2%) compared to men (0.9%). (Ibid.)

PRECARIOUS FIELDS OF WORK

As aforementioned, employees working in specific fields of work may be more likely to be victims of sexual harassment, both from colleagues/supervisors and customers/clients, such as waitresses (Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007) and the comparative analysis by Friborg et al. (2017) indeed supports the idea that some fields of work may increase exposure to sexual harassment. This offers an explanation to why sexual harassment is highly alive in some specific populations; a point we will extend in the analysis, especially with regards to the experienced severity of the interaction. As aforementioned, 2.4% of respondents were exposed to sexual harassment from clients and customers, yet when accounting for field of work, the analysis shows that respondents employed in care work were far more exposed to sexual harassment from customers (6.9%) than participants employed in other fields. (Friborg et al., 2017)

Furthermore, young employees were more likely to be exposed to sexual harassment than their older colleagues, which happens to coincide with the findings by Crouch (2001) who found that young women were more likely to be victims of sexual harassment. (Crouch, 2001, as cited in Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007) In terms of the effect sexual harassment has on mental health, two previous Danish studies found no statistically significant association between sexual harassment from clients and customers and long-term sickness absence. (Friborg et al., 2017)

Yet, the findings from Friborg et al. (2017) have shown that exposure to sexual harassment from clients or customers was associated with a higher mean level of mental health symptoms, when compared to no exposure. As such, sexual harassment from clients and customers, although not having as severe an effect on respondents as sexual harassment from colleagues, remains a threat to mental wellbeing and must be identified and prevented.
When comparing sexual harassment from clients and customers to sexual harassment from colleagues, supervisors and subordinates, Friborg et al. (2017) found that the latter was associated with a higher mean level of depression than the former. Subsequently, Friborg proposes that the two must be investigated as two distinct types of sexual harassment, that ultimately affects employees differently. This was further supported when the statistical analysis changed the outcome to clinical depression, which showed a statistically significant risk of developing clinical depression with an odds ratio of 3.30(1.62–6.73), p = 0.001 when it came to sexual harassment from colleagues, supervisors or subordinates. This further illuminates that by investigating who the harasser was in the surveys, one can more narrowly identify effects and assess severity as a variable.

III. METHODS

3.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This thesis offers a literature review of contemporary Danish surveys on workplace sexual harassment. The purpose of the research is to descriptively assess and compare pre-selected Danish surveys in the field of sexual harassment at the workplace, with more focus on the results derived from the NFA. We review how these studies have defined and operationalized sexual harassment, moreover, how they have measured the phenomenon. We will attempt to elucidate what is distinctive about each of these methodological approaches and try to convey potential limitations in given measurement strategies. Moreover, we will briefly assess the shortcomings and merits of both quantitative and qualitative research designs to the measurement of sexual harassment at the workplace.

We use the NFA (“National Forskningscenter for Arbejdsmiljø”) data as a point of reference due to the greater sample size which inherently allows a greater generalizability of their results, the fact that their study has been conducted for years, but also due to the premise that their research is subsidized by the Ministry of Labor. Hence the results and conclusions they reach are used to guide and inform politicians and political institutions about the current physical and psychological state of Danish workplaces. In the NFA survey, sexual harassment is measured alongside other parameters and items capturing the physical and psychological aspects of the workplace.
3.2 RELEVANCE: PREVALENCE AND TRENDS

Sexual harassment is now recognized as a potential problem for most organizations, although the phenomenon is still relatively taboo, which emphasizes why we need to start having the tough conservations about the pervasiveness and prevalence of this problem. Whether the target is a woman or a man, sexual harassment at the workplace has negative consequences both for the individual and the organization, in which he or she is employed. Sexual harassment negatively impacts individuals physical and mental health, career trajectories and future aspirations. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1995)

Moreover, companies stand to lose human and economic capital, as studies show that workplace sexual harassment undermines employee morale, causes declines in productivity and job satisfaction, while additionally increasing job turnover and absenteeism. While it can affect anyone, hence why it is important to acknowledge that men also can experience sexual harassment at their workplace, sexual harassment particularly affects women and reinforces stereotypes about their abilities, roles and position at a given workplace. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1997)

Our analysis will showcase evidence, that sexual harassment in the workplace, was and still remains, a seriously underreported, pervasive and troubling unresolved phenomenon across occupations and sectors. Moreover, current survey instruments differ in design from study to study, and so we identified a contemporary gap in literature on how this affects survey reports on sexual harassment. Thus, it is important and highly relevant to assess current survey evidence, as the efficacy of the law and political initiatives depend on the accurate measurement of workers and others affected by workplace sexual harassment. Hence, the promulgation and enforcement of sexual harassment laws and policies rely on reporting, and so underreporting ultimately decreases the chances of developing effective policy measures.

3.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

After further consideration and restriction of our subject of interest, we formulated this research question:

**RQ: How do Danish surveys measure workplace sexual harassment and what are the possible limitations?**

Inherently in the question, we selected some of the most prominent survey studies on workplace sexual harassment to assess how they measure the phenomenon and what some of the
shortcomings in current practices and methodologies might be. This topic and the accompanying research question was selected, as we identified that surveys on workplace sexual harassment report very distinct prevalence levels when we align them comparatively. Moreover, current techniques with regards to the way we ask individuals whether they have been harassed or not yields very limited insight into the character of the interaction, the severity, how it was expressed etc. Hence when asking more narrowly and formulating scenarios with which respondents can identify one or multiple harassing behaviors, prevalence levels rampantly increase. This suggests that when faced with the general question, respondents have a hard time labelling and seeing their uncomfortable interactions as sexual harassment, but when in detail and in the presence of other behaviors, they report higher prevalence levels. At the same time, it elucidates the idea that the phenomenon is underreported, which limits the efficacy of political measures and our knowledge on the topic.

Hence how they measure it, and what we will review, is with regards to sampling strategies and composition, response rates, errors and biases, question formulations, variables, prevalence levels and gender distribution, among other things.

We are also interested in the possible limitations of these surveys that are somewhat related and dependent on the design of the study, but certainly also the quantitative discipline. Limitations should be understood in two ways:

1. We mostly emphasize the shortcomings of these surveys to capture a realistic picture on the scope of the phenomenon and measure it adequately. As such, it should also be understood in terms how the design of the studies poses limitations to the knowledge harnessed about the phenomenon and what use can be made of the data.

2. We also assess the limitations of quantitative inquiry in relation to qualitative inquiry, to harness rich and detailed accounts of these interactions, which can provide us with more intrinsic knowledge about the incident and the individuals involved. Noteworthy is that we briefly review how qualitative data can be used to strengthen the design of surveys, more specifically, the question formulations.

Hence the research question and this paper will set the stage for how these surveys can be improved for future research on workplace sexual harassment and more accurately assess the phenomenon.
3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN: A LITERATURE REVIEW

The thesis, first and foremost, offers a literature review of contemporary surveys on workplace sexual harassment. The selected surveys are addressed below this paragraph. According to Arlene (2004) and Hart (1998), the literature review, as a discipline, consists of a summary of key sources e.g. scholarly articles, books and other sources relevant to specific areas of research, issue or theory. It provides descriptions, critical evaluations and summaries of the investigated research problem.

Moreover, it offers an overview of explored sources within a particular topic, and so it demonstrates to its readers, how one's research positions itself within a greater field of study. In our case, the area of research is surveys on workplace sexual harassment, while the larger field of study is workplace sexual harassment. However, as there exist different types of literature reviews, it is important to highlight that ours is a methodological review. Hence our literature review will serve as a basis for knowledge development and illuminate new directions for current research techniques on workplace sexual harassment. (Arlene, 2004; Hart, 1998)

METHODOLOGICAL REVIEW

The methodological review places focus on how researchers came about saying what they are saying i.e. the method of analysis, rather than only focusing on what someone has developed and concurred on findings and results. This type of review allows researchers to develop a framework and understanding of methods of analysis in terms of data collection, analysis techniques and research approaches.

According to Hart (1998), this approach allows researchers to draw upon the ways we derive knowledge and helps highlight shortcomings in past and current research techniques, furthermore, evaluate the state of knowledge on a particular topic. It is drawn upon practical documents and contributes to the growing literature on how to approach research topics and research them adequately in terms of quantitative and qualitative research designs, interviewing, data collection, data analysis and sampling. In our case, we review the methodological limitations of contemporary Danish surveys on workplace sexual harassment in order to address how they measure the prevalence and the miscellaneous nature of the phenomenon insufficiently. (Hart, 1998) Hence this type of review was seen as best fit for our own thesis, as we are more interested in how these surveys investigate and approach workplace sexual harassment research, but to a certain degree, also how these methodologies affect the
reliability and accuracy of the data. Thus a methodological approach to this topic focuses on
the methods adopted and utilized by the researchers in question.
Finally, by investigating the methodologies on workplace sexual harassment surveys, we
develop arguments with precedent for why these need to be altered in a way or ways that are
better in capturing the phenomenon and more narrowly reflect realities on Danish workplaces,
than they do now. (Hart, 1998)

3.5 DATA SOURCES AND SAMPLING
We selected five surveys, which we assessed descriptively both in their own terms and
comparatively. The selected surveys are as follows:

2. HK “UNDER OVERFLADEN” (2017)
3. FOA “Seksuel chikane på arbejdsplassen” (2019)
4. Fagbevægelsens Hovedorganisation/Epinion “BALANCE OG LIGESTILLING
   RAPPORT” (2019)
5. 3F “Seksuel chikane inden for Privat Service, Hotel og Restauration” (2015)
We selected these surveys and their accompanying reports for several reasons. More generally,
one reason is that these are some of the most timely survey studies on workplace sexual
harassment, hence we did not want to use studies that dated too far back in time. Moreover, we
choose them to include findings from as many sectors and occupations as possible. We use the
NFA’s as a point of reference due to, as mentioned earlier, the greater generalizability of the
findings but more importantly because they report back to the Ministry of Labor, suggesting
that their findings ultimately steer future political initiatives in this area.

THE SELECTED SURVEYS
We chose HK’s, because their study yields insights into the ways questions are formulated in
the surveys, furthermore, how this affects prevalence levels. Additionally, they included
interviews as the only ones, which we found particularly interesting and we felt could be of
great use and would add sustenance to our thesis, beyond numbers only. Also, it is one of a few
surveys conducted among respondents that are largely employed in the private sector. We chose FOA’s as they particularly look deeper into workplace sexual harassment in the public sector and among professions in the public sector, for us to gain more insight into prevalence in this area of occupation specifically. Also, according to the NFA, it is consistently a sector where sexual harassment is exceptionally prevalent, when reviewing the data. In the analysis, we address the job function as a factor for prevalence and severity, as to demonstrate how sexual harassment interactions at these workplaces are experienced differently, and to which degree the relationship between the offender and the offended affects how severe it felt to the victim.

We selected the one conducted by The Trade Unions Main Organization (“Fagbevægelsens Hovedorganisation”) on the basis of having another study vis-a-vis the NFAs that surveyed nationwide.

Lastly, we included the survey conducted by 3F, as their purpose is to look into sexual harassment from customers aimed at employees in the workplace. This is again, to investigate how the relationship between the offender and the offended can be used to assess severity in surveys, by applying theories that highlight how these relationships affect the harassed.

3.6 OPERATIONALIZATION ISSUES IN SEXUAL HARASSMENT SURVEYS
The analysis is intended to set the stage for discussing the operationalization and definitional issues with regards to current studies on sexual harassment. However, the analysis will also reveal that there exists discrepancies among the surveys published in the field, contributable to the depth of the investigation, incongruence among the data and conclusions, furthermore differences among the methodological approaches to the phenomenon. This in turn makes it harder to define the scope and incidence of sexual harassment at Danish workplaces. A more in-depth quantitative measurement through the use of more specific and intrinsic questions about the incidence would harness data that could generate accounts of the experience that designates the severity of the transgression, how it was expressed, differences among the women interviewed with regards to ethnicity and sexual orientation, among other things. It would help to develop a more nuanced picture of who is targeted, the character of the sexual harassment and the scope, which up until now has been hard to define and where surveys report very different levels of incidence. Finally, it suggests that sexual harassment is underreported when surveying on the occurrence of the phenomenon and that current research techniques are not refined enough to capture accurate estimates of prevalence. At the same time, this reduces the efficacy of legislation and workplace policies prohibiting it, as these policies depend on
reporting to discourage sexual harassment. Thus, survey evidence documenting that sexual harassment is widespread has been important in the development of sexual harassment law, and for the time being, are instrumental in raising public awareness about the extent of the phenomenon.

3.7 CHALLENGES WITH CONTEMPORARY SURVEYS
This study will offer a literature review of survey methodologies in the field of sexual harassment. However, the subject of interest can be methodologically challenging to define and assess due to several reasons:

**UNDERREPORTING**
First, it is a phenomenon that is significantly underreported to the police and other public authorities, such as the courts. The public records made available do not provide a statistically representative picture of the prevalence of sexual harassment.

**“RARE” PHENOMENON**
Second, from a statistical point of view, this is a relatively rare phenomenon according to the published surveys, which places demands on the sample size. According to Law (2009), an insufficiently large sample size offers an indistinct picture of reality, which is connected with greater statistical uncertainty, thereby increasing the risk of overcoming actual differences and correlations. On the other hand, smaller sample sizes are associated with greater statistical error, than large ones vis-a-vis the NFAs and FOAs. Thus the NFA possess strength in their findings, in that their sample size is large enough to generalize across the population, but at the same time, it elucidates the idea that sexual harassment is only alive in certain populations, and not a general problem across sectors, occupations and personal characteristics. The other surveys however suggests that, sexual harassment is more widespread and thus more prevalent, than the NFA points it out to be. Hence the findings developed by the NFA report the lowest levels of incidence than the other surveys, which raises some questions regarding whether their results depict a reality that applies to the whole population or simply realities that are high and alive in very specific places. (Law, 2009)
MEASUREMENT ISSUES

Finally, the field generally struggles with measurement issues are contributable to, among other issues, lack of precision in definitions and measurement tools. Hence the goal of this study is to compare commonly used measures of sexual harassment. The comparisons drawn of the different measures from the same construct can be useful in examining how differences in the measurement strategies can lead to different rate estimates. Even within similar occupations and sectors, prevalence estimates vary substantially. It is not clear whether these differences represent true variations in exposure and incidence, or more probably, variations in how the exposure was actually measured. Most Danish studies of sexual harassment have been descriptive in nature, a few actually testing causal hypotheses. Hence to better grasp the scope and nuances of sexual harassment at the workplace, research that informs the accurate measurement of sexual harassment is greatly needed, in order to understand the extent of the problem and direct efforts to reduce the impact this widespread phenomenon has on public health. (Gruber, 1990)

3.8 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS

To highlight the limitations and strengths of Danish surveys to adequately measure workplace sexual harassment, we included a brief review in the analysis of three selected interviews out of the 26 interviews conducted by HK. In their report, they both include a quantitative and a qualitative measurement of sexual harassment, among members of their labor union. Hence they account for both incidence levels according to types of harassment, but also conducted interviews, where respondents reflect over the time they were harassed, complemented by their own advice to how sexual harassment at workplaces can be remediated. (HK, 2017)

DETAILED DESCRIPTIONS

We use the interviews comparatively to the surveys, as to assess how other nuances and types of sexual harassment are not captured in the selected surveys, moreover, are difficult to identify through quantitative inquiry. According to Atieno (2009), Creswell (1994) and Gephart (2004), one cannot understand human behavior without understanding the setting in which it occurs. Hence we used the interviews to better understand how people attribute meaning to sexual harassment and their interactions with sexually harasssing behavior. Thus by reviewing the literature on the subject, we recognize that the prevalence and occurrence of sexual harassment is influenced by an array of contextual, organizational and biological factors, as demonstrated
in our academic review. These include, though not limited to, internalized notions of norms, roles, traditions, organizational culture and ways of doing gender, which has manifested itself and currently operate in the labor market.

Moreover, it has become increasingly harder to define what constitutes sexual harassment, beyond the definitions provided by academic literature and the law. Hence if we want to understand this phenomenon deeply and in detail, moreover how individuals make sense of sexual harassment at the workplace, qualitative research designs are excellent in highlighting these perspectives. (Atieno, 2009; Creswell, 1994; Gephart 2004)

**QUID PRO QUO**
For example, through the interviews, we identified that in cases of quid pro quo sexual harassment, there exists no such survey questions which addresses this type of sexual harassment. Hence qualitative analysis allows for fine distinctions to be drawn, which is not based on assigning frequencies to the linguistic features and where it is not necessary to imbed the data into a number of classifications. However, according to Creswell, the main disadvantage of qualitative approaches is that their findings cannot be extended to wider populations, as these findings are not held to the same standards of statistical significance as quantitative research designs, and so findings cannot be extended to the same degree of certainty that quantitative analyses can. (Atieno, 2009; Creswell, 1994; Gephart, 2004)

3.9 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS
Comparatively to the interviews, we also briefly assess the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative research when investigating sexual harassment at the workplace, more narrowly the adoption of survey techniques in the research field.

The goal of quantitative research designs is to determine the relationship between an independent and dependent variable within a population. They are either descriptive i.e. subjects of interest are measured at one point in time and withholds to establish associations between variables, or experimental, by which subjects are measured before and after a treatment e.g. clinical trials, which allows researchers to establish causality.

**SURVEY RESEARCH**
Survey research is one of the most fundamental techniques in quantitative research designs. It is a process whereby researchers collect information from a pool of respondents by asking
multiple questions. According to Singh (2007), surveys are excellent in gathering lots of information from many people by which one can infer generalizations and tendencies across populations, depending on the methods applied. Moreover, they are cost effective and contrary to qualitative research designs, offer more consistency, versatility and reliability when producing results. This does not suggest that all surveys are reliable, for example, a poorly phrased question can cause respondents to attribute different meanings to the question, thereby reducing the question’s reliability. However, well-constructed questions and survey designs have the potential to produce reliable results. We will demonstrate how this virtually affects results and findings in practice, as the purpose of our study is to review and interpret how survey findings are affected by the methodologies applied and questions asked. Thus surveys are valuable when we investigate workplace sexual harassment, by capturing prevalence among populations and the general public. (Singh, 2007; Babbie, 2010)

**INFLEXIBILITY AND ISSUES WITH DEPTH**

Surveys are in many ways rather inflexible, in that the questions usually are standardized and after being sent out, it is impossible to conduct any changes, if the results reveal that questions seemed to be misunderstood or have left the respondents confused. According to Babbie (2010), interviews can provide respondents with further explanation and tweak their question, if they indeed become confused by a question, in a way that surveys cannot. According to Singh (2007), an even greater shortcoming of surveys is that they cannot capture the depths of responses, in the same way that qualitative inquiry can. Thus it is difficult to ask anything but general questions, which a broad range of people will understand, which on the same token does not provide researchers with the thoughts and meanings behind their answers. Through our analysis, we will attempt to highlight how some questions can be formulated better and in ways that can reveal some depths and nuances in the answers that are not captured otherwise.

3.10 PHILOSOPHY OF SCIENCE

In order for us to understand both workplace sexual harassment and how Danish studies have studied workplace sexual harassment, we must recognize and emphasize the scientific, epistemological and ontological starting point that forms the basis for the philosophy of science, from which we will understand the aforementioned phenomenon and objects.
THE UNITY OF SCIENCE

Unity of science is a term used to describe the idea that all forms of science take objective empirical studies as a starting point, in order to generate theories about the world around us, which can be based on either ontological reduction or methodological reduction. (Egholm, 2014) According to ontological reduction, all objects are essentially the same, whereas methodological reduction assumes that objects are substantially different from one another (Ibid.), yet both argue that scientific knowledge must be generated by studying objects the same way. However, Wilhelm Dilthey (1883) argues that the natural sciences and the human sciences are ontologically different and can therefore not be studied in the same way. Similarly, we reject both the ontological and methodological reduction. Instead, we recognize that phenomena studied in the natural and human sciences, respectively, must be understood differently from one another, and most importantly, studied differently from one another. As such, we recognize the inherent dualistic division of sciences in the academic landscape in which each science differs from the other.

The soft human sciences, interested in understanding, evaluating and gaining insight into human artifacts such as meaningful actions, experiences and texts, often through qualitative means, stands in stark contrast to the hard natural sciences, which aim at describing or uncovering universal rules, facts and laws using quantitative methods of research. (Ibid.) Thus, we denote the aforementioned ontological and methodological reductions and acknowledge the traditional dualistic divisions of sciences as a means to understand objects and phenomena differently from one another, and most importantly, studying them differently from one another. Therefore, we consider workplace sexual harassment, a human phenomenon, to be ontologically different from natural phenomena in which rules and laws can be established through replicable quantifications. Additionally, this conception of science entails that human sciences must be studied differently, and we therefore expect Danish studies on workplace sexual harassment to reflect this accommodation methodologically.

ONTLOGICAL STARTING POINT

Ontology is a key concept in philosophy of science and begs the question of what the fundamental nature of certain phenomena is. Thus, ontology lays the foundation for our perspective on the basic assumptions about the nature of both workplace sexual harassment and Danish studies of sexual harassment. (Egholm, 2014)
Initially, however, we must distinguish between the main ontological distinctions and subsequently delineate ourselves to certain ontological starting points. Several distinctions of ontology can be made, such as realism, constructivism, materialism, idealism, universalism, context and processes. (Ibid.)

For the sake and goal of the paper and the phenomenon and objects, which we seek to understand, realism and constructivism in addition to universalism, context and process are the ontological distinctions that we have taken into consideration, yet through a necessary process of delineation we have arrived at an accurate ontological understanding of the phenomenon and objects of interests.

The two former ontological distinctions, i.e. realism and constructivism, stand in opposition to one another in their assumption of the relationship between the existence of objects and phenomena in relation to our own understanding. Whereas ontological realism posits that certain phenomena exist in the world independently of our own understanding of them, ontological constructivism assumes the opposite (Ibid.) and more specifically, that we can only study our own understanding of certain phenomena. These two distinctions form an ontological intersection in which we, as researchers, must recognize and acknowledge how we perceive the relationship between our phenomenon and objects of interest in relation to our own understanding.

**ONToloGICAL REALISM**

As mentioned above, ontological realism assumes that phenomena exist independently of our own research and similarly, our ontological assumption is that sexual harassment and Danish research of sexual harassment exist independently of our own understanding of the two phenomena/objects. First, we treat workplace sexual harassment as the phenomenon of interest and Danish studies on the phenomenon as the object, the two of which we seek to understand. However, the latter, i.e. Danish studies of workplace sexual harassment, lays the foundation for our research and ultimate understanding of both the phenomenon and the object of interest, both of which we have neither observed nor created. As such, all empirical data on the matter, whether qualitative or quantitative, are neither observed nor our own creation, and as a result, have occurred and exist independently of our own research and will continue to do so as well. Thus, ontological realism forms the basic assumption of the relationship between our understanding in relation to the phenomenon (workplace sexual harassment) and the objects (Danish studies on workplace sexual harassment).
However, we must also distinguish between the universality or contextuality of the phenomenon and objects respectively in such a way that we understand them as either universal across time and space, or contextually bound. (Ibid.) Indeed, we may consider sexual harassment to be universal, i.e. that sexual harassment is a phenomenon that exists across time and space. However, our perception of sexual harassment is not universal, meaning that we presuppose sexual harassment to be different across time and space. Perceptions of sexual harassment has changed throughout the years and with movements such as #MeToo, sexual harassment has gained worldwide momentum, but certainly also altered what constitutes sexual harassment. Additionally, perception on sexual harassment in addition to gender norms and traditions that may influence the occurrence of sexual harassment depends, not only on temporal differences, but spatial differences as well, being different from country to country.

**SEXUAL HARASSMENT AS UNIVERSALLY AND CONTEXTUALLY BOUND**

Thus, our ontological understanding distinguishes between a phenomenon (workplace sexual harassment) and an object related to the phenomenon (Danish studies on workplace sexual harassment). Yet, we assume our own understanding to exist independently of both object and phenomenon, two of which we have been unable to create nor observe, thereby assuming a realistic ontological assumption. Lastly, we consider sexual harassment to be a universally occurring issue across time and space yet acknowledge that the perception of sexual harassment is contextually bound to time and space. Thus, we consider sexual harassment, whether inside or outside the workplace, to be a universal phenomenon that transcends time and space, meaning that it is a universal phenomenon that occurs across the world, societies, cultures, institutions and organizations. In addition, we see it to permeate through time, meaning that the phenomenon has been occurring throughout history and will likely continue to do so as well. Our understanding of sexual harassment, however, is not universal, and although we consider the phenomenon itself to be universal both temporally and spatially, we recognize that how we perceive and talk about sexual harassment has changed, and this perception is not only temporally bound, i.e. different across time, but spatially as well, meaning that how the phenomenon is perceived is dependent on the country, society, culture, organization and even individual as well. Hence, ontological universalism forms our assumption about the nature of the phenomenon, i.e. sexual harassment, yet contextual ontology forms our assumption about the perception of the phenomenon.

Similarly, our ontological understanding of the objects (Danish studies on workplace sexual harassment) is contextual, meaning that we must understand them in their temporal, spatial and
cultural context. Similar to perceptions, research is ever-changing and ever-evolving and we must therefore understand research on the phenomenon from their spatial, temporal and cultural context.

Thus, we have delineated ourselves and our study to specific ontological key assumptions, and these assumptions have in turn delineated our phenomenon and objects of choice to be both spatially, temporally and culturally specific to workplace sexual harassment in Denmark and recently published Danish studies on the matter.

**EPISTEMOLOGY**

Epistemology, another key concept in philosophy of science, is about the nature of knowledge (Ibid.), how and why we know something in addition to how knowledge is produced. A key epistemological distinction can be made between objectivity and subjectivity, both dependent on the inclusion of human cognition or lack thereof. Therefore, we distinguish between methodological subjectivity and methodological objectivity. In order to achieve the latter, researchers must completely detach themselves methodologically from the object which is observed or studied. The former, i.e. methodological subjectivity, posits that the researcher cannot be completely detached from that which is observed. (Ibid.)

Our research aims at detaching ourselves from both phenomena and objects studied in our paper, thereby refraining ourselves from the subjectivity of our own human cognition in order to achieve complete objectivity. However, the inclusion of previous qualitative research on workplace sexual harassment in Denmark necessitates our own interpretation of the qualitative data provided, thereby limiting our methodological objectivity.

However, as aforementioned, we recognize the necessary distinction between sciences and acknowledge dualistic distinction between the natural and human sciences respectively. As such, we consider it necessary to interpret qualitative data regarding workplace sexual harassment in Denmark as well. With this in mind, we recognize both methodological objectivity and subjectivity as legitimate methodologies of generating knowledge. However, despite our limitations in achieving complete objectivity and our inclusion of methodological subjectivity, we do not consider our research to be intersubjective.

3.11 STRUCTURALISM (PHILOSOPHY OF SCIENCE)

With our ontological and epistemological starting point in mind, we must arrive at an accurate philosophy of science that accurately represents, both our worldview, and the philosophy of scientific research that will shape our paper.
Thus, with our scientific, epistemological and ontological understanding of the phenomenon and objects, which we seek to understand, structuralism and critical realism appeared to be the most fitting philosophies of science that corresponded with our scientific, theoretical and methodological understanding and worldview.

Initially, however, we must acknowledge the two divides in sociological theory and their assumption of the relationship between the individual and society. The Weberian model, i.e. Voluntarism, regards society and social objects as established by meaningful human behavior, whereas the Durkheimian Reification model argues that society coerces the individual, thereby influencing individual actions. (Bhaskar, 1998) Yet, we reject both of these aforementioned models and instead partially recognize Berger’s Dialectical conception of society, which argues that society forms the individuals who then create society. (Bhaskar, 1998) We partially recognize this model due to the fact that we consider the logic somewhat flawed and instead accept Bhaskar’s (1998) argument that society is neither made, nor created, by individuals, but instead exists only in the virtue of human activity, which reproduces or transforms society. Additionally, society must be viewed as a constitution of structures that are reproduced or transformed by individuals, and these structures would fail to exist without them. (Ibid. It is this understanding of the relationship between society, the individual, and most importantly, the structures that constitute society and guide the actions of individuals and the collective, which makes structuralism and critical realism pertinent philosophies of science. As mentioned previously we distinguish between a phenomenon, i.e. workplace sexual harassment in Denmark, and objects, which are the Danish studies on workplace sexual harassment, and we consider adopting Bhaskar’s (1998) assumption about societies and individuals to be beneficial for understanding both the phenomenon and objects of interest. To begin with, we consider this assumption to be beneficial to understand sexual harassment, by recognizing sexual harassment as a consequence of the reproduction of patriarchal power structures that have enabled men to dominate women for much of human history. As such, society consists of structures, and these structures have created a power imbalance between the two genders, and sexual harassment is a behavior by both individuals and collectives, which reproduces these power structures between the genders. Therefore, although these power structures have created a power relationship between the genders, it exists only by virtue of those who continually reproduce it.

Secondly, we must also recognize how knowledge on the phenomenon is both created and reproduced. Similar to the phenomenon, we consider structures to be dominant throughout the scientific landscape as well, presenting clear guidelines for means of conducting research and
knowledge creation as well. Although there exists multiple philosophies of science, ontological and epistemological starting points, in addition to theories of truth, each provides, although different to varying degrees, clear guidelines and structures for scientific knowledge creation. Thus, by generating knowledge according to these aforementioned scientific structures, researchers simultaneously reproduce them as well. Additionally, we must also consider how the aforementioned societal structures, that have created power imbalances between the genders, have influenced the scientific landscape as well, thereby limiting knowledge creation concerning workplace sexual harassment. (Bhaskar, 1998)

3.12 PRAGMATIC THEORY OF TRUTH
Lastly, and most importantly, we must also recognize our contribution to the scientific discussion regarding workplace sexual harassment and the limitations of current studies on the matter as well. We distinguish between three theories of truth, i.e. correspondence theory, coherence theory, and lastly, pragmatic theory of truth. According to the correspondence theory of truth, a scientific statement is true if it corresponds with the real world, meaning that we must formulate scientific questions and propositions that we are able to test in order to identify whether or not they correspond with the real world. The real world in research, however, consists of numbers and percentages, and similarly, our scientific claims must represent the numbers and percentages, which we can identify in the real world. However, such theory of truth assumes that we, as researchers, have unlimited access to the empirical world and that we are able to determine, once and for all, whether our scientific claims are true or not. As such, we consider the correspondence theory of truth to be problematic for our research purposes due to the fact that, although we study contemporary quantitative studies on workplace sexual harassment, consider this to be a subject that cannot be reduced to numbers and percentages. The results in these studies consist of numbers and percentages, yet the validity of the studies, in addition to their limitations and overall contribution to research on workplace sexual harassment in Denmark, cannot be judged on numbers or percentages only. Instead, it is a matter of meticulously reviewing the methodological and theoretical framework that constitutes the contemporary studies on workplace sexual harassment in Denmark. Additionally, adopting a correspondence theory of truth implies complete objectivity, yet we recognize that our results and interpretations of the contemporary studies on workplace sexual harassment in Denmark, is a matter of, as abovementioned, interpretation and to some extent, subjective judgement as well.
The second theory of truth, the coherence theory of truth, implies that a scientific statement is true if it is coherent with a set of related propositions. Adopting such a theory of truth entails that our claims are measured on their validity, not in relation to their consistency with empirical data, but by their coherence with other propositions that are true to the empirical data. However, similar to the correspondence theory of truth, we reject this one as well and consider it flawed in its contribution to the scientific discussion. The question then becomes, if our propositions regarding studies on workplace sexual harassment in Denmark are only true by virtue of their coherence with previous propositions, which are considered to be true, then what is our ultimate contribution, if anything but obsolete?

Instead, the goal of our study is to contribute to the scientific discussion concerning workplace sexual harassment in Denmark, by reviewing the contemporary studies on the phenomenon and identifying their limitations for future research and studies going forward. Ultimately, our goal is to develop propositions that are practical and beneficial in scientific life, and as such, we consider the pragmatic theory of truth to be the most beneficial theory of truth for the purpose of our study. According to this theory of truth, a scientific statement is true if it is beneficial for practical and scientific life, and as such, truth becomes ever-changing and can never be final nor imputable. Therefore, our aim and goal is to provide propositions that can help improve future research on workplace sexual harassment in Denmark, and these propositions may be considered true or relevant at this point in time, yet our results may become irrelevant in time and we have, as researchers, a responsibility towards exposing our own findings and continuously doubt their contribution to scientific life.

IV. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SELECTED SURVEYS

THE NATIONAL RESEARCH CENTER FOR WORK ENVIRONMENT (2018)

4.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The National Research Center for Work Environment (“Det Nationale Forskningscenter for Arbejdsmiljø”) has developed and launched a questionnaire labeled “Work Environment and Health in Denmark”9 (“Arbejdsmiljø og Helbred i Danmark”).


The questionnaire investigation began in 2012 and since then, there have been five publications in 2012, 2014, 2016, 2018 and the latest one in 2020. The purpose of the questionnaire is to continuously obtain knowledge about how employees themselves assess their physical and mental work environment, while also tracking developments in their health from 2012 to 2020. The investigations and results from the questionnaires have been collected in the database “Numbers and facts on the work environment” (“Tal og fakta om arbejdsmiljøet”). The purpose of the database is to:

1. Describe the occurrence and distribution of various indicators for work environment, both physical and mental

2. Describe the development in the various indicators for work environment, both physical and mental

3. Accumulate and publish publicly available data concerning the work environment in Denmark for anyone with an interest in the field

4.2 POPULATION OF THE DATA

The participants in the “Work Environment and Health” questionnaire are Danish employees between the ages of 18-64 years. In 2018, the age limit was 69 years, but only participants between 18 and 64 are accounted for in the survey. The sample size has been as follows:

2012, N = 50,806 participants
2014, N = 50,875 participants
2016, N = 65,741 participants
2018, N = 65,000 participants

The participants were selected randomly. They received a postal letter which contained a link to the electronic questionnaire. The questionnaire contains 164 questions on the physical and mental work environment, including health and work ability. Those who did not answer the first invitation would receive one or multiple reminders, ultimately a paper questionnaire in a stamped envelope. Every year, more than 50% of the invited would answer the questionnaire and up until 2018, the response rate has been growing. The response rates were as follows:

2012: 51.5% response rate
2014: 57.3% response rate  
2016: 52.9% response rate  
2018: 60.2% response rate

The results are shown as average scores or portions (in percentage %) of the employees that are exposed to a given work environment indicator. The results are controlled for by these seven variables: (1) gender, (2) age, (3) job groups, (4) industries, (5) sectors, (6) regions and (7) year. For all work environment indicators, confidence intervals have been calculated using standard methods at a 5-percent significance level.

All numbers in the database are cross-sectional data i.e. the participants were asked to assess various aspects of their work environment at only one point in time. Hence it will reveal current tendencies, however, this static approach cannot establish tendencies and developments over time, although the NFA suggests that they do so. (The National Research Center for Working Environment10, 2018; Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

HK: “UNDER OVERFLADEN” (2017)

4.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

HK have, in conjunction with Epinion, developed a questionnaire survey for 1.936 members of HK Union. HK Union can be divided into four branches, namely HK Trade, HK Private, HK Municipal, HK State and these branches of HK Union each cover a variety of different industries, such as administration, HR, communication and marketing, economics and health, among others. Some of the most common job titles and education among members of HK Union include office and IT staff, laboratory and environmental personnel, correspondents, postal workers and employees within communications.11

As of February 1st 2021 there are a total of 225.670 members of HK Denmark, with 163.106 active members and 62.564 members categorized as “other members”12. Of 163.106 active members, the majority (65.929) are part of HK Private. The three remaining branches of HK Denmark each are composed of 44.289 (HK Communal), 32.233 (HK Trade) and 20.655 (HK State) members. When it comes to the gender distribution of the 1.936 members who

---

participated in the questionnaire survey, 1,597 of them were female respondents and the rest (339) were men. Thus, women make up 82.49% of survey respondents while male respondents make up 17.51% of all respondents. Women are therefore overrepresented in the survey while men are underrepresented, nonetheless, this has been weighted for. Results and data from the survey were collected in week 43 and 44 in 2016.

4.4 FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS

The questionnaire conducted by HK combines questions from the aforementioned survey conducted by Det Nationale Forskningscenter for Arbejdsmiljø (NFA) and the study conducted by the European Union “Violence against women: an EU-survey”\(^\text{13}\) (“Vold mod kvinder: en EU-undersøgelse”) in order to better understand the various ways sexual harassment is expressed.

Table 1. Overview over questions regarding types of harassment (in percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months been exposed to sexual harassment?</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your experienced unwanted touches, hugs or kisses?</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced comments or jokes with sexual undertones, which you considered offensive?</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced inappropriate invitations to dates?</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced pervasive questions about your privacy that you considered offensive?</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced intrusive comments about your appearance that you considered offensive?</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you experienced within the last 12 months at your workplace inappropriate glances or stares that were unpleasant to you?</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced receiving or shown sexually explicit pictures, photos or gifts that you considered offensive? | 1.2 | 1.8 | 1.3
---|---|---|---
Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced that someone exposed themselves to you?* | 0.7 | 1.2 | 0.8
---|---|---|---
Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced receiving unwanted sexually explicit emails or text messages that were offensive to you? | 1.6 | 0.3 | 1.3
---|---|---|---
Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced inappropriate approaches that were offensive to you, on social networking sites like Facebook or in chat rooms on the Internet? | 1.6 | 0.9 | 1.4
---|---|---|---
Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced being forced to watch porn against your will? | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.2
---|---|---|---


*exposed their body parts

4.5 VERBAL, NON-VERBAL AND PHYSICAL CLASSIFICATIONS

12 of the 13 survey questions can be grouped into three different categories, namely the three aforementioned dimensions. The only question that cannot be categorized as either verbal, non-verbal or physical is the survey’s first question, “Have you within the past 12 months been exposed to sexual harassment?” due to the fact that the question does not inquire into any specific situation or incident and therefore remains very general and encapsulates all three dimensions. (“Promulgation of the law on equal treatment of men and women with regard to employment, etc., 2011”14)

We characterize the verbal dimension as any action that involves spoken language, as opposed to written language. Thus, this dimension includes questions that inquire into situations where the harassment is characterized by something spoken, such as invitations to dates, pervasive questions or offensive comments about one’s appearance.

Non-verbal, however, can include language, but not spoken, such as e-mails, texts or offensive interactions on social media, both in the form of comments or sexually explicit pictures. In addition to written language and sexually explicit pictures, this dimension also includes bodily behavior, besides touches, such as stares or glances which are perceived to be offensive. Lastly, the physical dimension includes all questions that entail touching or physical force, such as the

question regarding unwanted touches, kisses and hugs. The second question included in this dimension is regarding being forced to watch porn against one’s own will, and although this question does not include any description of what is meant by force, we assume it includes a physical element whereby victims have been unable to escape due to physical restraint. In addition to the quantitative measurement, i.e. the questionnaire survey, HK has also conducted 26 qualitative interviews with selected survey respondents who have agreed to participate in an interview.

Figure 2. Categorization of questions according to types of harassment (physical, verbal and non-verbal)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Non-verbal</th>
<th>Physical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced comments or jokes, with sexual undertones, which you considered offensive?</td>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced inappropriate glances or stares that were unpleasant to you?</td>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced unwanted touches, hugs or kisses?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced inappropriate invitations to dates?</td>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced to be sent or shown sexually explicit pictures, photos or gifts that you considered offensive?</td>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced being forced to watch porn against your will?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced pervasive questions about your privacy that you considered offensive?</td>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced receiving sexually explicit emails or text messages that were offensive to you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced intrusive comments about your appearance that you considered offensive?</td>
<td>Have you within the past 12 months at your workplace experienced inappropriate approaches what were offensive to you, on social networking sites like Facebook or in chat rooms on the internet?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Conclusively, HK’s survey makes use of questions that are written in more behavioral terms. The qualitative part of the study includes short extracts from the interviews and finally, a recommendation from the interviewees about workplace initiatives that can reduce or combat sexual harassment. We will attempt to briefly highlight these interviews, to assess what can be harnessed of data from both qualitative and quantitative measurements of sexual harassment, furthermore how interviews can assist surveys in the measurement.
FOA, “SEKSUEL CHIKANE PÅ ARBEJDSPLADSEN” (2019)

4.6 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
FOA (“FAG OG ARBEJDE”) is the third-largest labor union in Denmark with almost 189,000 members. They have conducted multiple surveys by asking members of their union about sexual harassment experiences at their workplaces. The survey “Sexual harassment in the workplace” (“Seksuel chikane på arbejdspladsen”) has taken place since 2015 and has been conducted every year since then, most recently in 2019.15

FOA, as a union, specifically addresses public employees in municipal and county municipal work. Members of this union are, among others, home helpers, educators, pedagogues, bus drivers and kitchen staff, the majority of whom are employed in the public sector. There is a minority of the members that are occupied in the private sector, but their tasks are typically in the public domain, whereby they provide services to the public sector. FOA belongs to the main organization of Danish workers unions LO (“Landsorganisationen”) and is also entitled to be consulted in political negotiations on wages and working conditions.16

4.7 POPULATION OF THE DATA
We will use the most recently published survey, from 2019, as a point of departure to analyze the differences from their approach and results from this survey, compared to the one performed by NFA.

The survey was conducted between the 4th of June to the 17th of June. The data was extracted from surveys sent out to FOA’s electronical member panel. The target group of the survey is FOA’s active members. In total, 10,505 active members were invited to complete the survey. 97 of those had inactive email addresses, so the real number of invitees was 10,408. Of those, 3,813 members completed the survey either fully or in partial, equivalent to a response rate of 37 percent, of which 35 percent completed all the questions and the last two percent completed it partially. Hence 3,583 active members of the Danish workers union FOA participated in the survey “Seksuel chikane på arbejdspladsen” by answering all of the questions regarding their experiences, if any, of sexual harassment at their workplaces.

The data are weighted for sector and age, as some sectors and age groups are overrepresented as well as underrepresented in the sample. The food and service sector, as well as the pedagogical sector are underrepresented, while the social and health sector vis-a-vis the technology and services sector are overrepresented. Moreover, younger people under the age of 30 and members of age 30-39 years old are underrepresented, while members in the age groups 50-59 years old, 60 years old as well as the derivatives, are overrepresented. The sample is representative of members aged between 40-49 years old. Members with positions of trust i.e. shop stewards (“tillidsrepræsentanter”), joint shop stewards (“fællestillidsrepræsentanter”) and working environment representatives (“arbejdsmiljørepræsentanter”) are overrepresented in the sample, while members without positions of trust are underrepresented. However, as mentioned at the beginning, these differences are weighted for in the final data.17

4.8 FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS

The first question posed in the survey, illustrated in Figure 1, is “Have you yourself within the last 12 months been exposed to sexual harassment?”. The respondents can choose between six categories: “Yes, daily”, “Yes, weekly”, “Yes, monthly”, “Yes, rarely”, “No, never” and lastly “Do not know/cannot remember”. (FOA, fig. 1, 2019) The question is being reused in the following six figures, where they control for, among other things, gender, age, sectors in the public sector etc.18

Figure 2 compares the incidence levels reached in FOAs survey (15 percent), compared to the incidence levels as posited by the NFA in 2018 i.e. four percent. (FOA, fig. 2, 2019)

Figure 3 in the survey illustrates differences in the incidence levels across the surveys conducted by FOA, respectively conducted in 2015, 2017 and 2019. This table shows that the share that have experienced sexual harassment was 11 percent in 2015 and 15 percent by 2019. (FOA, fig. 3, 2019)

Figure 4 addresses differences between men and women in the incidence levels. This table shows that 17 percent of the women have been sexually harassed compared to six percent of the men. (FOA, fig. 4, 2019)

Figure 5 illustrates incidence levels across four different sectors within the public sector, these being: food and service sector, educational (pedagogical) sector, social and health sector, as well as the technology and services sector. This table shows that workers from the social and 

---


18 Source: Ibid.
health sector experience sexual harassment more often than workers from the other aforementioned sectors. (FOA, fig. 5, 2019)

Figure 6 illustrates incidence levels across workplaces identified through six categories: home care (“hjemmeplejen”), nursing homes, hospital and rehabilitation services, psychiatric facilities, the special and disability area and lastly “other areas”, of which workers in nursing homes and in the psychiatric facilities report higher incidence levels of sexual harassment. (FOA, fig. 6, 2019)

Figure 7 poses a new question, namely “who the perpetrator was”, of which the response items proceeds as follows: next of kin, a citizen/patient/child or similar, superior, coworkers/employees and finally a “do not know” rubric. Respondents are allowed to check off more than one category, but 87 percent reported that the perpetrator was a citizen, child or patient. (FOA, fig. 7, 2019)

Figure 8 shows the incidence levels across four age groups: below 40, 40-49, 50-59 and above 60, where the below 40 age group report the highest incidence levels. (FOA, fig. 8, 2019)

Figure 9 asks respondents “how much they agree or disagree with the following statement: I am considering seeking away from my current workplace” on a Likert scale (completely agree, partially agree, partially disagree, completely disagree, do not know), according to whether they have been harassed or not. For the ones who have been subjected to sexual harassment, 51 percent either completely or partially agree with the statement, while 41 percent of the respondents who have not been subjected to sexual harassment, agree with this statement. Hence regardless of whether they have experienced sexual harassment or not, many are considering to seek other employment opportunities in this particular sector. Thus one can wonder if it is a general pattern in the sector, not attributable to factors such as sexual harassment, or that sexual harassment is a factor in itself or in confluence with other factors, causing them to seek other employment opportunities. (FOA, fig. 9, 2019)

The final figure, figure 10, shows the degree to which they believe that their workplace prioritizes prevention of work environment problems, among the respondents who have experienced sexual harassment at their workplace. This is illustrated on a Likert scale ranging from “to a high degree” (13 percent), “to some degree” (16 percent), “to a low degree/not at all” (22 percent) and finally “do not know” (10 percent) i.e. 22 percent of the respondents who have been sexually harassed do not feel that their workplace is prioritizing work environment-related issues. (FOA, fig. 10, 2019)

---

FH/EPINION “BALANCE OG LIGESTILLING RAPPORT” (2019)

4.9 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The fourth survey we will consider is the one conducted by The Main Organization of the Trade Union Movement, namely FH (“Fagbevægelsens Hovedorganisation”) in collaboration with Epinion from 2019. The study is called “Balance and equality report” (“Balance og ligestilling rapport”) (2019).

FH is Denmark’s largest interdisciplinary community. FH organizes trade unions, representing more than 64 member organizations and 1.3 million employees in the public and private sector. FH’s mission is to secure jobs and education for everyone, furthermore a safe and healthy working environment. At the same time, Epinion produces polls on Danes opinions and party choice, of which they also deliver data to Denmark’s Statistics (“Danmarks Statistik”).

The purpose of this collaborative survey is to conduct a broad study of family-work-life balance and gender equality among employees aged approximately 18-65 years. The report provides in-depth insight into attitudes and experiences with a number of aspects of this overall topic.

The report is structured according to these five following themes: (1) family and work life, (2) pregnancy, maternity and parental leave, (3) sexual harassment in the workplace, (4) gender distribution in the workplace and (5) gender equality. (FH, 2019)

4.10 POPULATION OF THE DATA
The report is conducted on the basis of 3.231 web-based interviews of Danish employees aged 18-68, where Epinion has helped to ensure that a large proportion of the target audience are employees with children living at home. This is probably due to the fact that they investigate several aspects of work-life balance and how Danes manage their everyday lives, hence perhaps why they are mostly interested in people with kids. The data collection was completed in the period 5th of December to 7th of January. Through the report, they use significance tests to compare shares for different age groups, gender and the like. (FH, 2019)

4.11 FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS
The first question they ask in the report is “Have you at your current or previous workplace been exposed to sexual harassment?“, controlling for both age and gender, where a total of 10

percent of the women and five percent of the men report that they have experienced such. However in the following question, when they ask whether they have experienced any of the offensive events listed, a total of 34 percent of the women report that they have, along with 25 percent of the men. The figure shows the proportion of respondents who experienced at least one of the offensive episodes. As we dwell deeper into the analysis, we will discuss and illustrate how differences in questions and measures, results in completely different answers and incidence levels. (FH, 2019)

The aforementioned offensive episodes in the next table vis-a-vis HKs survey, where respondents can check off one or more episodes, if they have experienced more than one, is as follows:

Table 2. Overview over questions regarding types of harassment (in percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace been exposed to sexual harassment?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you experienced one or more of the following offensive episodes?</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced comments or jokes with sexual undertones, which you considered offensive?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced intrusive comments about your appearance that you considered offensive?</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced inappropriate glances or stares that were unpleasant to you?</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced any unwanted touches, embraces or kiss?</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced invasive questions about your private life and/or sex life, which you considered to be offensive?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced inappropriate invitations on dates?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced that someone exposed themselves to you?</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced receiving unwanted sexually explicit emails or text messages</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
that were offensive to you?

| Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced inappropriate approaches that were offensive to you, on social networking sites like Facebook or in chat rooms on the Internet? | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced being forced to watch porn? | 2 | 5 | 3 |


Results from their study suggests that, when asking into explicit episodes compared to asking whether they have been harassed or not, reports of sexual harassment rise substantially. Here, a third of the women have experienced at least one of the following scenarios, while a fourth of the males report having experienced such behaviors. The research conducted by HK pointed results in the same direction i.e. when asking more narrow and close-ended questions regarding specific harassing behaviors and scenarios, respondents report higher exposure levels, than when asking whether they have been harassed or not. (HK, 2017; FH/Epinion, 2019) However, this study uses a quite large frame of reference, as a function of job (“current or previous workplace”), hence respondents can include events that go relatively far back. Others, such as NFA, ask respondents to reflect back over 12 months, thus according to Gruber, sexual harassment studies that ask respondents to reflect back over a long period of time risk response biases in the results harnessed, caused by differences in the accuracy of recalling events retrospectively. (Gruber, 1990)

They continue their survey by asking who the harasser is, of which most of the respondents have experienced it from coworkers (55 percent) or superiors (23 percent). Moreover, and differently from the other studies, they also ask respondents about the consequences they have suffered from the harassment and control it by age. Most of the respondents (21 percent) report having lost the urge to go to work, experienced psychological consequences e.g. stress, depression, discomfort etc. (14 percent), however, most of them report having experienced no such consequences (56 percent). When controlling for age, it shows that younger respondents (18-29 years old) report suffering consequences from the harassment (66 percent) to a higher degree than any of the other age groups. (FH/Epinion, 2019)

The final question in the survey asks respondents to which degree that their workplace has brought attention to the fact, that sexual harassment is unacceptable, where 31 percent of the respondents report that they do so, to a high degree. (FH/Epinion, 2019)
4.12 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The study “Seksuel chikane inden for Privat Service, Hotel og Restauration” (2015)\(^{21}\) was conducted by Analyse Danmark on behalf of 3F, Denmark’s largest workers union. 3F is a Danish trade union and unemployment insurance fund and they have three distinct memberships; one for workers, one for students and apprentices and lastly, one for leisure workers as well. These members are divided into six groups: construction, green solutions, public sector, industrial, private service/hotel/restaurant and transportation, however the survey compromises members from the private service/hotel/restaurant group and investigates sexual harassment from customers among these specifically.\(^{22}\)
As of January 1st 2020, they had 269.763 members. Of these 269.763 members, 71.275 of them were women meaning that 198.488 of them are men. Thus, 73.58 percent of the members were males, while the remaining 26.42 percent were female, meaning there is a gender ratio of 73.58/26.42, in which women make up approximately 1/4 of all the members.
The investigation is carried out for the purpose of focusing on sexual harassment from customers, aimed at employees in the workplace. The study sheds light on various aspects and themes regarding sexual harassment in the workplace, and provides answers to how, among other things, this type of sexual harassment is experienced and expressed. The study also provides answers to how often sexual harassment occurs, as well as to what extent experiences with sexual harassment is articulated in the workplace.

4.13 POPULATION OF THE DATA
Data was collected in the period January/February 2015, based on a sample of 1.650 of 3Fs Private service, hotel and restaurant members. The sample was provided by 3F and the survey was conducted among members who have daily customer contact i.e. waiters, waitresses, receptionists etc. All respondents who were not at work or did not have customer contact at the time of collection, were screened off. The data collection was done partially by telephone and partially via a questionnaire sent out with e-mail. Respondents have either been invited to

---

\(^{21}\) Source: 3F “Seksuel chikane inden for Privat Service, Hotel og Restauration” (2015)
Visited 21st of January 2021

\(^{22}\) Source: “3F kort fortalt”, visited 28th of January 2021,
https://www.3f.dk/om-3f/3f-kort-fortalt
participate by telephone or by email, to avoid duplicates. Answers have been collected from 500 respondents in the target group, of which 249 are answers collected by telephone and 251 collected by email. If we compare these numbers with the sample size, the response rate is accounted to 30.3 percent. The data is not weighted in relation to the distribution of members by gender, age or position of trust for this specific 3F group. Most of the respondents are women (65 percent versus 35 percent of men), moreover waiters (46%) and occupied in the restaurant industry. (3F, fig. 1, 2015) Most of the respondents have been in this occupation and particular position for approx. 1-5 years. (3F, fig. 2, 2015)23

4.14 FORMULATION OF QUESTIONS
The first question in this study asks whether the respondents “experience or have experienced, that guests behave in a way that you consider to be sexual harassment?”, to which 27 percent of the women and 19 percent of the men report having experienced it. The results furthermore shows that waitresses and waiters report experiencing it the most (37 percent). Moreover, the results show that the respondents between 30-39 year experience it the most (36 percent). While women report that they have experienced it more often (11 percent on a weekly, 28 percent on a monthly and 12 percent on a semi-annually basis), figure 2 in the study shows that men tend to report it to happen to them more rarely (45 percent) (3F, fig. 2, 2015).24
Most of the respondents have experienced verbal comments (84 percent) or inappropriate touches (53 percent) when asked about how the sexual harassment was expressed. (3F, fig. 3, 2015). Figure 4 illustrates to which degree they find the sexual harassment harassing, where 64 percent of the women experience it to be so to a high or some degree, while 52 percent of the men experience it to be harassing, to a lesser degree. (3F, fig. 4, 2015)
Thus according to Singer, women more generally consider harassing behaviors and actions more annoying and harassing, than their male counterparts. Hence they would be “harsher” when deeming or labelling a behavior as sexual harassment. It illustrates the differences among men and women when perceiving sexual harassment. 49 percent of the respondents report that they tell the guest or customer off (3F, fig. 5, 2015; Singer, 1989) and 88 percent of the respondents talk with their coworkers about the incidents. (3F, fig. 6, 2015).
When coworkers assess their fellow colleagues and report answers to which harassing behaviors they experience most frequently, verbal comments rank the highest (96 percent).

23 Source: 3F “Seksuel chikane inden for Privat Service, Hotel og Restauration” (2015)
Visited 21st of January 2021
24 Source: Ibid.
Moreover, 56 percent of the respondents report the misconduct to their immediate boss, although men report it far more often (70 percent of the time) than women (51 percent). (3F, fig. 8, 2015) Most of those who do not report, do not do so, due to the fact that they simply did not feel harassed (3F, fig. 9, 2015) 37 percent of the times, the boss has reacted towards the offending guest. (3F, fig. 10, 2015) Among the times the boss did not react, 41 percent respond that he did not respond because he was not present at the time while 21 percent of the respondents report he did not respond, because the customer or guest was not accessible after it happened. (3F, fig. 11, 2015)

The final question is whether the respondents, in their personnel handbook or in other instructions, have a guide for how staff should react when experiencing sexual harassment from a guest, distributed by industry. 23 percent of all of the included industries (hotel, restaurant and others) report having such a guide in place, while 27 percent report not having such measures set in action. (3F, fig. 12, 2015)

4.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

- All of the studies capture incidence levels and the prevalence of sexual harassment, controlling for, among other things, age, gender, occupation, industry, sector etc. by asking whether respondents have been exposed to sexual harassment or not. However, they all vary distinctively in terms of the question formulations, variables, items, sample sizes, sample compositions and frame of references. These variations, and their implications for the findings, will be interpreted later in the analysis.
- 3F, Epinion and FOA also investigate whether respondents are aware of the sexual harassment guidelines at their place of work, whether they have suffered consequences as a result and to which degree they believe their workplaces prioritize preventive measures.
- HK and Epinion, as the only ones, manage to capture both prevalence in terms of whether they have been harassed and how the harassment was expressed.
- HK also conducted 26 qualitative interviews, making them the only study that combines qualitative and quantitative methods. Henceforth, we will briefly address both the strengths and weaknesses of these disciplines, but also the strengths and weaknesses of their applied methodologies.
V. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE NFA

5.1 AGE AND GENDER

Across the age and gender category, women and men between 18 and 24 years old are the two groups in the sample that consistently have experienced the highest levels of sexual harassment from years 2012 till 2018. Women generally, though more regularly for the younger ones in the sample, are the most prevailing victims of sexual harassment at their workplace.

Introductory, we analyze the data derived from NFA\textsuperscript{25} by controlling for gender and age to unveil increases and decreases in the experience of sexual harassment, furthermore which gender and age group(s) that experience it more often than others.

The question is phrased in the survey as such: “Have you within a 12-months’ time period experienced sexual harassment at your workplace?”, to which the respondents can choose between five subcategories:


The results represent the shares (in percentage) that have chosen between categories 2-5. The question is followed up by a sub-question asking whether the harasser was a colleague, superior, subordinate or patient/client/citizen.

5.2 CATEGORY 1A: WOMEN (18-24 YEARS)

The table shows that out of 736 respondents in 2012, approximately 11.4 percent of the women had experienced sexual harassment while at work within the last 12 months. In 2014, this number decreased to 9.5 percent while the number of female respondents in this category also fell to 564 women.\textsuperscript{26}


\textsuperscript{26} Source: Ibid.
By 2016, more women in this age group had experienced sexual harassment, equivalent to 11.1 percent; hence there is an increase of 1.6 percentage points from 2014 to 2016. In 2018, 10.5 percent of female respondents between 18-24 years had experienced sexual harassment at their workplace, thus there is a 0.6 percentage point fall from 2016 to 2018.

Hence overall, there have been non-significant increases and decreases in the incidence levels of sexual harassment for young women in the age category of 18-24 years old. The greatest decrease was 1.9 percentage points from 2012 to 2014 and the largest increase was 1.6 percentage points from 2014 to 2016. More significantly, the numbers of respondents seem to decrease over time while the prevalence of sexual harassment towards this group of women keeps increasing over the years. the incidence of sexual harassment was higher in 2012 than any other year, and lowest in 2014.

5.3 CATEGORY 2A: WOMEN (25-34 YEARS)

At the different age levels, there are significant decreases in the prevalence of sexual harassment towards women i.e. the older they grow; the less they experience sexual harassment at their workplace vis-a-vis Ramsaroop & Parumasur’s findings (2007).

The next category is the women between 25-34 years. In 2012, 6.5 percent out of 1,590 females claim to have experienced sexual harassment. By 2014, the number rose to 8.2 percent, which is an increase of 1.7 percentage points, thus more women contending to have experienced sexual harassment. The prevalence of sexual harassment among these women rose again in 2016 to 9.6 percent out of 1,982 women, but in 2018, it decreases by 1.9 percentage points to 7.7 percent out of 2,389 respondents. Over the years, the percentage of women who have experienced sexual harassment is steadily increasing from 2012 to 2016, whereas in 2018, there is a decrease, although not to the same level as it was in the first year. Differently from the group of women from 18-24 years where we saw a decrease from the first year (2012) to the last year (2018), the percentage of women in this particular group that have experienced sexual harassment in year 2012 is lower than in 2018.
5.4 CATEGORY 3A: WOMEN (35-44 YEARS)

As for the women in this third category, the incidence levels of experienced harassment are consistently rising.

In 2012, 3.8 percent out of 3.247 women had experienced sexual harassment at their workplace. This number rose in 2014 by 1.4 percentage points, to 5.2 percent. By 2018, this number was 5.5 percent out of 4.380 respondents, which is 1.7 percentage points more than at the initial levels in 2012. Hence this is the only category in the female categories where the prevalence of sexual harassment is increasing throughout all the years. However, this group has had lower incidence levels of sexual harassment than the two previous groups. There are some decreases in the percentage of women that have experienced sexual harassment when we consider category 1 and 2 compared to this category of women. Hence, as according to Ramsaroop and Paramasur (2007) we detect as reflected in the data as well, that women younger than 35 are more prone to be victims of sexual harassment at their workplace than women above 35.

5.5 CATEGORY 4A: (45-54 YEARS)

This category summarizes the prevalence among women aged 45-54 years. As suggested before, this group of women tend to experience less sexual harassment at their workplace than the previous groups. In 2012, 3.9 percent of the 4.311 respondents reported that they had experienced sexual harassment. In 2014 and 2016, this number decreased and yet again increased to 4.5 percent, i.e. 0.6 percentage points. By 2018, this number fell to 4.1 percent, which is a decrease very similar to the increase from 2014-2016.
Overall, we see a small increase of 0.2 percentage points from initial levels in 2012 to the levels of 2018, thus still a bit higher.

5.6 CATEGORY 5A: (55-64 YEARS)
This group of women is the one that has had the lowest incidence levels of sexual harassment. In 2012, 2.6 percent of a total of 3.053 women had experienced sexual harassment. This number rose by 0.3 percentage points to 2.9 percent by 2018. Hence of all the previously presented groups and categories, this group of women has experienced sexual harassment at significantly lower levels than the women that are younger of age. Once again, the initial level of experienced sexual harassment in 2012 is very similar to the level in 2018, although still slightly higher.

5.7 CATEGORY 1B: (18-24 YEARS)
Among the men in this survey, we see similar developments in prevalence of sexual harassment according to age distribution vis-a-vis the women in the samples. For this category of men from 18-24 years, 1.4 percent out of 621 men had experienced sexual harassment in 2012. If we compare it to the women in the same category, there is a 10 percentage points difference between the men in this age category compared to women in the same age category. However by 2018, this number rose to 5.2 percent of the males, which is a 3.8 percentage point increase compared to the levels in 2012. Hence younger men are more prone to experience sexual harassment vis-à-vis the women from 18-24 years old, but regardless, experience it less, as inferred from the data.
5.8 CATEGORY 2B: (25-34 YEARS)

For the men in this particular category, the prevalence of sexual harassment is less than the men in the previous category. In 2012, 1.3 percent of the 1364 men in this category had experienced sexual harassment. Likewise the aforementioned group of men, these percentages are increasing and have more than doubled by 2018.

5.9 CATEGORY 3B: (35-44 YEARS)

In this category, the distribution over the years bear the same form i.e. there are no increases nor decreases from year 2014 and onwards. In 2012, 1 percent of the 2.603 men in this category have experienced sexual harassment at the work place. In 2014, this number rose to 1.3 and stayed on that level for the remaining years. Likewise the tendencies we saw for the female respondents, the prevalence and incidence of sexual harassment for men is decreasing, as they grow older. Hence we infer, as previously, that there exists a negative correlation, similar to the women in the samples, but also in line with previous theory on the nature and prevalence of sexual harassment. (Ramsaroop & Paramasur, 2007)
5.10 CATEGORY 4B: (45-54 YEARS)

In 2012, 0.8 percent of the 3,512 respondents aged between 45-54 years had experienced sexual harassment. Additionally, the incidence level of men continued to increase until 2016, with an increase of 0.2 percent in 2014 and the incidence level rose by 0.5 percent in 2016 when compared to 2012. Afterwards, however, incidence levels decreased and in 2018, incidence levels among men in category 4B fell by the same percentage, i.e. 0.5 percent and had fallen to 1.0 percent.

5.11 CATEGORY 5B: (55-64 YEARS)

In 2012, 0.7 percent of the 2,982 respondents in this category have experienced sexual harassment at their workplace. This incidence level of sexual harassment, i.e. 0.7 percent, remains constant throughout the subsequent years and continues up until 2018, where we detect a 0.1 percentage point increase. Notably is the difference between this group and the same age group for women, where sexual harassment is experienced three times as much as men in this category. As the group before this one, sexual harassment is fairly experienced. Regardless of age, women experience sexual harassment to a much higher degree than males.

5.12 EVOLVEMENT OVER TIME AND RESPONSE DISTRIBUTION

Danish employees reports of sexual harassment at the workplace have been nearly the same levels each year. The evolvement of sexual harassment derived from the dataset shows that there are most reports in 2016 and the least in 2012. In 2012, 2.8 percent against 97.2 percent of the respondents had experienced sexual harassment. This number grew marginally bigger
by 2014, where we see an increase of 0.3 percentage points. However, from 2014 to 2016, there is a greater increase of 0.6 percentage points. In 2016 and 2018, there are almost similar levels of experience with sexual harassment.

When looking at workplace sexual harassment it is important to distinguish between sectors, fields and jobs in order to better understand the nature of the sexual harassment.

5.13 SECTOR, FIELD AND JOB

Analyzing sexual harassment broadly, beginning with sectors shows that there is a difference between incidence levels of sexual harassment according to sector.

What can be surmised from the graph is that employees working in the public sector experience higher levels of sexual harassment as opposed to employees working in the private sector. Additionally, the difference between the two saw an increase from 2012-2014. Public sector employees who have been victims of sexual harassment amount for more than double the amount of private sector employees, who were victims of sexual harassment.

The difference between the two, however, decreased in 2016, a year where both sectors saw an increase in reports of sexual harassment, yet sexual harassment experienced by public sector employees still accounted for two thirds of reported sexual harassment in 2016.

Furthermore, the decrease between the two sectors in terms of reports of sexual harassment continued, and in 2018, the gap between them was even smaller. Looking at each sector individually, however, gives a greater insight into its development over time from 2012-2018.
5.14 PUBLIC SECTOR

Beginning with the public sector, we can see that the sexual harassment experienced by public sector employees is at its lowest in 2012. However, incidence levels of sexual harassment saw an increase from 2012-2016 with each subsequent year seeing an increase from the previous year. In its lowest point, i.e. 2012, 4.1 percent of public sector employees reported having experienced sexual harassment and this figure increased to 4.8 percent in 2014. However, it was yet to reach its highest point. In 2016, incidence levels of sexual harassment from public sector employees increased by 0.5 percent points from 2014 and an increase of 1.2 percentage points from 2012 and had therefore reached its highest point. In 2018, however, the reports saw a decrease of 0.7 percentage points from 2016 and 0.2 percentage points from 2014, but remained higher than 2012.

5.15 PRIVATE SECTOR

Looking at the private sector shows a different picture, in terms of the level of experienced sexual harassment.

Here we can see that incidence levels of sexual harassment from private sector employees was at the lowest at 2 percent in the first two consecutive years (2012-2014). In a similar fashion to the public sector, the private sector saw an increase in 2016 as well an increase of 0.8 percentage points from both 2014 and so 2.8 percent of private sector employees reported experiencing sexual harassment. Yet the private and public differ in 2018, a year where the public sector saw a decrease in incidence levels of sexual harassment whereas the private sector
saw an increase of 0.1 percentage points in 2018 in contrast to the public sector’s decrease of 0.7 percentage points.

An important detail, however, is the pattern of the reports with an increase in reports of sexual harassment in both private and public sector and the subsequent development in 2018; here, fewer public sector employees reported experiencing sexual harassment compared to the previous year, a difference of -0.7 percentage points to be more specific, and therefore even lower than 2016 and 2014.

On the other hand, reports of sexual harassment by private sector employees saw a slight increase from 2016 to 2018 and although it is only an increase of 0.1 percentage points, it may be of worry should they increase in 2020 as well.

5.16 FIELDS

However, narrowing the data down from sectors to fields shows a pattern in which employees working in residential institutions and homecare experience sexual harassment the most often and have, throughout the surveys conducted between 2012-2018, topped that list.27

Looking at the development related to reports of sexual harassment by employees working in the field of residential institutions and homecare shows that there has been a decrease in these reports from 2016-2018. In 2016, reports within this field reached its highest point, notwithstanding data from 2020 that is yet to be made public, and came about after a consistent increase from 2012-2016.

---

Additionally, other fields that appear frequently include hospitals, restaurants and bars, and in recent years, hotel and camping as well. The latter, i.e. hotel and camping, appears as the field with the second most reports of sexual harassment in 2018 with restaurant and bars on a third place and hospitals on a fourth place. An additional pattern becomes evident when looking at the fields who have reported sexual harassment most often, and that pattern that connects the field is the fact, that they are all fields that requires a lot of either customer or patient contact, i.e. interactions between caretakers or healthcare professionals and patients in addition to interaction between employees and customers.

What this indicates is that it is important to distinguish between sexual harassment from colleagues and supervisors to sexual harassment from clients and patients. These findings elucidate that close customer or patient relations play a significant role in the prevalence of sexual harassment and so fosters certain “precarious” fields of work. It is important to distinguish and assess according to who the harasser is, furthermore to consider the nature and prevalence of each, which we will show later, has implications for the severity and pervasiveness of the interaction between offender and offended.

5.17 OCCUPATIONS

However, before delving deeper into the nature and prevalence of sexual harassment from either customers/patients or colleagues and, or, supervisors, we must narrow the data down further to gather an overview of the jobs where sexual harassment is most prevalent.

When looking at sexual harassment experienced by job types one thing remains stable and clear throughout the years 2012-2020: social and health assistants most often experience sexual harassment among all job groups. Additionally, only in 2016, social and health assistants were in 2nd place, with hospital porters taking the first place.28

Sexual harassment is, as abovementioned, most often experienced by social and health assistants with an exception in 2016, where incidence levels among hospital porters were higher. As can be seen above, incidence

---

28 Source: “Arbejdsmiljø og helbred i Danmark” (2016) [https://at.dk/media/5988/spoergeskema-2016.pdf](https://at.dk/media/5988/spoergeskema-2016.pdf)
levels of sexual harassment experienced by social and health assistants spiked in 2014 with 16.5 percent of social and health assistants experiencing sexual harassment. However, reports of sexual harassment among social and health workers have since then decreased to 15 percent in 2016 and 14.8 percent in 2018. Although fewer social and health assistants report experiencing sexual harassment, there still remains a large percentage of social and health assistants who are victims of sexual harassment.

Other jobs who appear frequently throughout the years of 2012-2018 include special educators/pedagogues and nurses to name a few. Nurses, who appear frequently as one of the professions most vulnerable to sexual harassment, follow a development over time similar to the overall development over time in which we can see a consistent increase in reports of sexual harassment that reaches its peak in 2016 and subsequently decreases in 2018.

Special educators/pedagogues, similarly to social and health assistants and nurses, work in the field of residential institutions, i.e. the field most vulnerable to sexual harassment, and as such, special educators/pedagogues are one of the professions most vulnerable to sexual harassment. Here, we can see that sexual harassment experienced by special educators/pedagogues reached its peak in 2016 similarly to nurses and following the same pattern, 2018 marked a decrease in reports as well. However, special educators/pedagogues experienced sexual harassment to a higher degree than nurses. On the other end, i.e. jobs with the lowest incidence levels of sexual harassment still experience some amount of sexual harassment. These occupations include leadership positions, IT-consultants, engineers and architects.
Previously, we found that employees working in the public sector experience sexual harassment far more than private sector employees, and when we narrowed the data down to fields we found that fields in the public sector experienced sexual harassment the most. Additionally, when narrowing the data down even further to jobs, we found that jobs, fields and sectors in the public sector reported highest incidence levels of sexual harassment, thus it is more prevalent in these populations.

Most interestingly, however, is not necessarily related to neither the private or public sector but instead related to customer/client contact. What we are able to gather from narrowing the data down to fields and subsequently jobs is how prevalent fields and jobs with a lot of client and customer contact are and how vulnerable they appear to be to sexual harassment.

Previous research has shown the need to distinguish between sexual harassment carried out by fellow coworkers, from sexual harassment carried out by customers or clients. Research conducted by Friborg et al., (2017) highlighted, not only the need to distinguish between the two forms of sexual harassment, but the need to differentiate and understand them differently and their effect on victims. Their results showed the effect on mental health of victims, with sexual harassment carried out by fellow coworkers having more severe consequences for victims’ mental health than sexual harassment carried out by customers and clients. However, sexual harassment from customers and clients still affected the mental health of victims more compared to zero exposure levels to sexual harassment. The aggregated results from NFA clearly indicate that sexual harassment from customers and clients appears to be far more prevalent, which begs the need for even further research.

5.18 CHAPTER SUMMARY

- Conclusively, across the age and gender category, women and men between 18 and 24 years old are the two groups that consistently have the highest reported prevalence levels of sexual harassment. Also, women report being sexually harassed at their workplace to a higher degree, than their male counterparts.
- Sexual harassment is more prevalent in the public sector, than in the private sector. Fields and occupations with close contact to customers and patients, such as social and health assistants, nurses and special educators/pedagogues, consistently report higher incidence levels than other fields, sectors and occupations.
- The younger the respondents (<30), the more report having experienced sexual harassment at their workplaces and vice versa. There is a negative correlation between
age and sexual harassment i.e. as age increases, the possibility of experiencing it decreases.

VI. HK, “UNDER OVERFLADEN”

6.1 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS
As aforementioned, the questionnaire survey includes several questions regarding specific incidents of sexual harassment, which stands in contrast to the NFA who dedicated only two questions to sexual harassment - whether individuals were harassed or not and by whom. Following the Equal Treatment Act’s definition of sexual harassment as any unwanted form of verbal, non-verbal or physical with sexual undertones, even pervasive questions about other’s privacy and private life can function as sexual harassment and be perceived as sexual harassment. Additionally, unwanted touching such as hugs and kisses can, due to being unwanted, function and be perceived as sexual harassment as well. As such, it must be reiterated that sexual harassment can take a variety of forms and it is therefore important, whenever researching sexual harassment, to be mindful of all the different forms sexual harassment can take and to be careful of individual perception of what constitutes sexual harassment.

This is evident specifically in the results from HK’s questionnaire survey that has shown that when asking broadly about sexual harassment without any elaboration, definition or description of sexual harassment, very few will answer “Yes”. Comparatively, the results have also shown the opposite - when asking about specific incidents and situations of sexual harassment, such as unwanted touches, hugs and kisses, or pervasive comments, reports increase, which gives indications of underreporting. Thus, lack of any definitions, elaborations or inquiries into specific situations/incidents may only show the tip of the iceberg.

6.2 SPECIFICATION OF QUESTIONS
When asking the general question, “Have you, within the past 12 months, been exposed to sexual harassment in your workplace?”, 2.1 percent of female respondents and 0.3 percent of male respondents responded “Yes”. Thus, 1.8 percent of all respondents have, according to the first question, been exposed to sexual harassment within the last 12 months.
However, when delving into specific situations and asking questions about specific incidents, a different picture is painted, where incidence levels increase dramatically. The second question, “Have you, within the last 12 months at your workplace, experienced unwanted touches, hugs or kisses?” shows that 4.5 percent of female respondents and 2.9 percent of male respondents have experienced unwanted touches, hugs or kisses, totaling 4.2 percent of all respondents. Subsequently, the third question “Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced comments or jokes with sexual undertones, which you considered offensive?” shows that 10.1 percent of female respondents and 9.4 percent of male respondents had experienced offensive comments and jokes with sexual undertones that they were offended by. To take another question as an example, responses to question five “Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced pervasive questions about your privacy that you considered offensive?” showed that 7.7 percent of female respondents and 7.4 percent of male respondents received pervasive questions about their private life, which they regarded as offensive. As aforementioned, when asked the general and broad question “Have you, within the past 12 months, been exposed to sexual harassment in your workplace?”, 1.8 percent of all respondents answered yes, but by comparison, more than double the amount had experienced unwanted touching and 8.3 percent had received comments about their looks, which they considered offensive.

6.3 HARASSING BEHAVIORS

Thus, when accounting for all the specific situations inquired into the questionnaire, 26.5 percent of female and 25.7 percent of male respondents had been exposed to one or more harassing behaviors within the past 12 months, totaling 26.4 percent of all respondents. By comparison, only 2.1 percent of female respondents had answered yes, when asked broadly about sexual harassment, which shows an increase of 24.4 percent when accounting for all the specific incidents of harassment inquired about in the survey. 25.7 percent of all male respondents had been exposed to one or more types of harassment when all questions were accounted for. This shows a 25.4 percent increase compared to only 0.3 percent answering “Yes” when asked broadly about whether or not they have been exposed to sexual harassment within the past 12 months. (HK, 2017) The questionnaire survey has, surprisingly, shown that men may be victims of offensive behavior to the same degree as women. Thus, male respondents seemingly experienced sexual
harassment, to an almost equal degree as the female respondents. Additionally, it must be noted that, despite the difference in sample size between men (339) and women (1.597), all results are weighted for. (HK, 2017)

6.4 INTERVIEWS
Paragraph 6 in the Equal Treatment Act defines sexual harassment as:

“There is sexual harassment, when there is expelled any form of unwanted verbal, nonverbal or physical behavior with sexual undertones with the purpose or the effect to violate a person’s dignity, namely by creating a threatening, hostile, degrading, humiliating or unpleasant climate.”

Therefore, it is important to be mindful of the different forms sexual harassment can take and how the definition of sexual harassment differs from individual to individual, in addition to understanding that boundaries are perceived differently by each individual. With paragraph 6 in the Equal Treatment Act in mind, HK’s questionnaire survey includes several questions that ask about specific situations.

Each individual has their own boundaries and definitions of sexual harassment and their perception of experiences differ and by exploring what each of the 26 interviewees experienced and how they perceived the incident, interviews are excellent in highlighting some of the perspectives that are difficult to capture in surveys. By analyzing the interviews, we will briefly highlight the strengths and weaknesses of studying sexual harassment by using qualitative measures. Moreover, we can determine some of the limitations of survey research and how qualitative data can be used to strengthen the methodological framework of surveys.

6.5 INTERVIEWEE 1: JANNI
The 26 interviewees help highlight and emphasize the nuances of experiences of sexual harassment from both men and women’s perspective.

A female interviewee, Janni29, recounts two separate occasions of sexual harassment from her colleagues; the first experience recounted is an incident after a workplace Christmas dinner where the employees stayed the night at a hotel and the interviewee recounts being awoken by

---

one of her male supervisors who had gained access to a key to her bedroom and proceeded to intrude. The female interviewee, Janni, uncovered that her supervisor had lied about being her husband to the hotel staff in order to gain access to the key to her room and subsequently intruded into her private space. However, she decided to take action and inform her director about the incident, and more positively is the fact that the director took further action which had several consequences for the supervisor who lost several posts and could no longer be in the same space as the female interviewee.

6.6 INTERVENTIONS FROM MANAGEMENT

In the guide, From #metoo to we do\textsuperscript{30}, nine pieces of advice were put forth to business leaders in order to create a framework of advice that can help them deal with incidents of sexual harassment and the prevention thereof. A key pillar of the nine pieces of advice is the fact that organizations must put forth clear guidelines that condemn sexual harassment, but most importantly, however, is that leaders must take actions should any incidents of sexual harassment occur. Leaders must therefore lead and set an example, which the supervisor in Janni’s case did.

Additionally, according to piece of advice #5 of the guide, business leaders must listen to victims of sexual harassment and take them seriously, and although Janni does not provide any further information about her conversation with the director, it can be surmised that the director did indeed listen and took her seriously.

Furthermore, the director defended Janni once again when she was sexually harassed by another colleague at another workplace Christmas event where one of her coworkers had grabbed her on her butt after a 500 kr. bet with a colleague about whether or not he dared. However, the harassment did not stop there, and the colleague proceeded to ask her if she was interested in earning 250 kr. in turn for, what is assumed to be, a sexual favor.

6.7 SURVEY LIMITATIONS

In relation to the results of the questionnaire survey, none of the questions describe Janni’s first incident, meaning that there are no questions in the survey that account for intrusion of private space. This goes to further highlight the many forms sexual harassment can take, and by conducting an interview, nuances of incidents and experiences can paint a picture that surveys may be unable to do.

Her latter incident, i.e. the unwanted touching and the offer of 250 kr. can fit three questions in the survey; the latter incident, i.e. her colleague grabbing her butt, is a case of unwanted touching, and the survey question, “Have you, within the last 12 months at your workplace, experienced unwanted touches, hugs or kisses?”, therefore applies to the incident. The results from this question have shown that 4.5% of all the female respondents have experienced unwanted touches within the past 12 months, including Janni.

The last incident with the colleague offering 250 kr. can apply to one of two questions, or both, depending on the true intentions that remain unknown:

“Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced comments or jokes with sexual undertones, which you considered offensive?”

or:

“Have you, within the past 12 months at your workplace, experienced inappropriate invitations to dates?”

However, none of the survey questions account for incidents where harassers ask for sexual favors nor questions that account for monetary offers in return for sexual favors, whether the harasser is a peer, subordinate or supervisor. The incident can be regarded as a very offensive joke by the male colleague with sexual undertones, thereby making the former question applicable and the latter remains applicable depending on whether or not the respondent/interviewee considered it to be an invitation to a date. Yet, there are sexual undertones and his offer suggests an exchange for sexual favors but the survey lacks any question that takes into account resource-based offers in exchange for sexual favors i.e. quid pro quo.

6.8 IMPLICATIONS

An implication that is subsequently uncovered is the pros and cons of both qualitative and quantitative studies of sexual harassment; on one hand, quantitative research of sexual harassment can include a large number of respondents and establish generalizations across a variety of variables, thus entails greater representativeness. However, according to Creswell (1994) and Atieno (2009) the downside to these quantitative studies of sexual harassment is the lack of questions that can account for every facet, dimension or incident of sexual harassment and as a result, they are only able to capture part of the truth. Qualitative research can capture the nuances of incidents of sexual harassment and interviewees can go in-depth with their own, individual experiences, thereby thoroughly explaining specific incidents, describe intimate feelings and the subsequent consequences.
In the case of the aforementioned interviewee, Janni, she describes instances of sexual harassment that none of the questions in the questionnaire survey capture i.e. intrusion of private space and quid pro quo sexual harassment in which victims are offered something, such as money, in return for sexual favors. However, interviews, although able to capture and provide detailed and personal experiences of sexual harassment, fail to provide results that allows for generalizability across a population. Inherently, interviews are very time consuming and cost-intensive as well. (Creswell, 1994)

Finally, Janni’s response to the incident, is a rare response by women in general. According to Fitzgerald, many women only take legal action, by filing complaints or reporting the harasser, as a final resort. It shows that there also exists limitations in the way sexual harassment is reported, because such measures and response strategies are associated with more negative outcomes for the individual. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1995)

6.9 MENTAL HEALTH OUTCOMES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Luckily, however, Janni’s director listened, took action and set an example, thereby enforcing and fostering a healthy work environment that punishes toxicity and harassment. However, listening is important as sexual harassment can be a traumatic experience, and indeed, Janni, was hurt and traumatized by the events. Thus, sexual harassment can truly hurt and traumatize its victims and according to Ramsaroop & Parumasur (2007), sexual harassment can lead to both self-doubt and severe depression, and the cross-sectional study conducted by Friborg et al., (2017) has shown the impact sexual harassment can have on victims’ mental health. Additionally, their study distinguishes between workplace sexual harassment as sexual harassment from either individuals employed in the same workplace, i.e. colleagues and supervisors, and sexual harassment from people not employed in the workplace, such as customers and clients, and in their study, it is recommended to distinguish between the two. HK’s study includes interviews from members who have experienced sexual harassment from customers as well. (Friborg et. al., 2017)

6.10 INTERVIEWEE 2: EVA

Another female interviewee, Eva, considers transgressive behavior from clients as part of the job due to the fact that her work includes contact with citizens who may suffer from mental

31 Source: HK “UNDER OVERFLADEN” (2017), p. 19
https://www.ft.dk/samling/20161/almndel/LIU/bilag/46/1730046.pdf
disorders. However, she recounts specific incidents as worse than others with a specific citizen who pulls up female employees’ shirts while proceeding to grab his crotch followed by offensive comments. Although the survey includes a question regarding unwanted touches, no question specifically addresses incidents of being unwillfully undressed.

According to Friborg et al. (2017) sexual harassment by clients and customers occurs most often in person-related occupations and Eva is therefore very much susceptible to the exposure of sexual harassment from citizens. However, individuals working in person-related occupations may have to navigate between their own definition of unacceptable behavior and the organization’s definition of unacceptable behavior. The latter, however, may not be clearly defined and in some instances there is an organizational expectation that difficult clients, customers, and in Eva’s case, citizens, are simply part of the job and part of one’s professional competency is to manage harassing individuals. (Friborg et al., 2017).

Luckily, there are strict procedures, according to Eva, and with their internal reporting system they always have an opportunity to talk an episode through with a personal psychologist in addition to police reports if necessary. Thus, there are measures put in place in Eva’s workplace that may alleviate some of the harm dealt by harassing citizens, whether of sexual nature or not.

6.11 RECURRENCE AS A VARIABLE

All of the surveys follows up on respondents who have been exposed to sexual harassment with the question “If yes, who exposed you to sexual harassment?” and respondents can choose between colleagues, subordinates, supervisors and lastly, patients/clients/customers grouped into a single category. Yet NFAs online database does not provide any way or means of controlling for perpetrators of sexual harassment. Instead, the online database simply shows the percentage of respondents within a given age group, field, sector or job type etc., who report having been exposed to sexual harassment.

More importantly is the fact that only FOA and NFAs surveys also consider recurrence. HK, 3F and FH/Epinion only estimate who said yes or no to whether they have been harassed, while FOA and NFA asks respondents to report whether they have experienced sexual harassment on a daily, weekly, monthly or yearly basis. According to Gruber (1990), studies of sexual harassment yield limited insight into the pervasiveness and severity of the sexual harassment, when they do not consider recurrence, reflected in how often it happened to the victim.
6.12 FACTORS: PHYSICAL APPEARANCE AND AGE

Young, attractive and single or divorced women are desirable characteristics men look for in women for long or short term sexual relations (Crouch, 2001 as cited in Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007) and in their study, Ramsaroop & Parumasur (2007) found that respondents believed appearances and personality to be a key dimension in the occurrence and prevalence of sexual harassment. Indeed, this is the case as well for Eva, who implies that her physical appearance and her age are some of the key factors in her exposure to sexual harassment, stating that she is one of the youngest women in her workplace and she has therefore been through several episodes where she has received comments about her appearance. However, for Eva, it is important to have supportive colleagues to talk with, yet this is not to say that all colleagues are supporting, and Eva herself has seen unsupportive colleagues. According to the guide developed by dkmetoo.dk32, fostering a healthy work environment and culture that is equipped to prevent sexism, and should such incidents occur, management can deal with it properly, which hinges on creating a work environment that allows employees to stand up for themselves and say no. Hence it is crucial to develop and foster a healthy workplace and environment that, not only supports individuals standing up for themselves, but also, according to piece of advice #3, encourages employees to stand up for others. Collegial relations are therefore important and Eva recognizes the importance of having supportive colleagues and recounts the experience of an unsupportive colleague, who possesses traditional views of gender in which women must not overssexualize their body and instead dress modestly in order to prevent the arousal of men. Katherine Franke (1997) emphasizes how sexual harassment functions, not only as means of subordinating women but also of enforcing gender norms as well, which her colleague seems to be doing. It elucidates the impression that their way of dressing themselves is overssexualized and as such, they are putting themselves in harm’s way and making themselves targets of sexual harassment. In this case, were they to dress more modestly, according to the colleague, they would not be as susceptible to sexual harassment. However, Eva’s experience brings to attention another point of interest for future research that none of the aforementioned studies neither study nor account for; self-blaming. Ramsaroop & Parumasur emphasize that sexual harassment affects victims’ mental health and may lead to both self-doubt and self-blaming, which reveals the limitations of current surveys, that do not control for such variables that investigate the consequences of being sexually harassed.

6.13 INTERVIEWEE 3: KLAUS

Preceding Katherine Franke’s (1997) theory of gender propositions is Connell’s (1987) theory of hegemonic masculinity, sexual harassment functions as a tool of penalizing gender non-conformity among both men and women thereby achieving acceptable and appropriate ways of doing gender. Following the theory of hegemonic masculinity in addition to theories of gender propositions, sexual harassment may therefore function as a suppressant that aims at preserving gender conformity in accordance with acceptable gender norms. This affects men as well, and one of the male respondents namely Klaus, who is homosexual, specifically recalls how the term ‘gay’ is often used as a slur at the workplace, and although it is not aimed at him, he still finds it offensive and as sexually harassing behavior. For him, simply using sexuality as a degrading term and slur is offensive and it feels degrading for him as well. In this case, using ‘gay’ as a slur can perhaps function as a way to penalize gender non-conformity among and between men and that the word is used as a slur can be attributed to the fact that some men regard homosexuality as going against acceptable gender norms. We must therefore understand that sexual harassment, and any other form of harassment for that matter, may even occur when not specifically targeted at an individual. Verbal harassment that is degrading towards a minority but directed at the majority is still perceived to be offensive by the minority despite the fact that the harassment is not targeted towards them. Moreover, this incidents captured by the interviews highlight the subjective element when individuals make a judgement about what constitutes sexual harassment. Also, that minorities may experience a different kind of harassment, conditioned in other factors such as race, ethnicity and sexual orientation, which surveys yet have been limited in capturing. Future surveys could perhaps make use of accounting for other personal characteristics of the respondent, than traditional information such as age, gender and such. This would yield insight into how often minorities are targeted, but by also asking into specific incidents, will give an idea about how they are targeted. Lastly, we must not forget that men are victims of sexual harassment as well; 25.7% of the male respondents in HK’s survey experienced sexual harassment within the past 12 months of answering the survey, only 0.8% less than the female respondents. As such, it is important to not disregard men’s account or experience of sexual harassment. Instead, it must be looked at equally to women, but perhaps understood and treated differently if necessary. HK’s survey also elucidates that men may be more reluctant to label a

33 Source: HK “UNDER OVERFLADEN” (2017), p. 11
https://www.ft.dk/samling/20161/almndel/LIU/bilag/46/1730046.pdf
behavior or incident as sexual harassment, and the previous analysis of the interviews highlights that their perception of sexual harassment, and how they experience it, may differ from women’s.

6.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

- In summary, although NFA has a much larger sample size (65,000) than HK (1,936), the latter study researches workplace sexual harassment more thoroughly and presents respondents with a questionnaire survey that inquires broadly into sexual harassment followed by several questions that inquire into specific incidents and situations, followed up by interviews.
- The interviews reveal that physical appearance, age and civil status plays a significant role as to who among the women that become a target.
- Surveys have not been able to capture incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment or incidents of intrusion, which was captured by the interviews.
- All of the surveys account for who the harasser was, however, only the NFA and FOA also account for recurrence in their surveys, hence the other studies provide limited insight into the pervasiveness of the sexual harassment.
- That sexual harassment not directed at someone specifically might still be sexual harassment to an individual.
- All of the surveys provide very limited insight into how sexual harassment is experienced by minority groups.
- Combining quantitative disciplines and data with qualitative ones as well provides researchers with detailed experiences and accounts of sexual harassment that are otherwise difficult to capture in surveys. These harassing behaviors and incidents harnessed from the interviews can in turn guide the categories and questions developed for future surveys.

VII. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SURVEYS

7.1 DESIGN OF STUDY

Table 1. Studies of sexual harassment classified by design of study

N= No applicable answer
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample size</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>10,408</td>
<td>1,936</td>
<td>1,650</td>
<td>3,231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample composition</td>
<td>Nationwide</td>
<td>Social workers</td>
<td>Professionals in administrative jobs</td>
<td>Hotel and restaurant workers</td>
<td>Nationwide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response rate (number of respondents)</td>
<td>60.2% (39,000)</td>
<td>37% (3,583)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>30.3% (500)</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harassment frame of reference (time vs. job)</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Time/job*</td>
<td>Job*</td>
<td>Job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of explicit categories**</td>
<td>&lt;5</td>
<td>&lt;5</td>
<td>&gt;6</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>&gt;6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: [https://www.ft.dk/samling/20161/almdel/LIU/bilag/46/1730046.pdf](https://www.ft.dk/samling/20161/almdel/LIU/bilag/46/1730046.pdf)  
[https://at.dk/arbejdsmiljo-i-tal/arbejdsmiljo-og-helbred-2012-2018/](https://at.dk/arbejdsmiljo-i-tal/arbejdsmiljo-og-helbred-2012-2018/)  

* The survey conducted by HK uses both job and time as a frame of reference, “Have you within the last 12 months been subject to sexual harassment at your workplace?” (“Har du inden for de sidste 12 måneder været udsat for seksuel chikane på din arbejdsplads?”), [https://www.ft.dk/samling/20161/almdel/LIU/bilag/46/1730046.pdf](https://www.ft.dk/samling/20161/almdel/LIU/bilag/46/1730046.pdf)

* The survey conducted by 3F uses job as a time reference, however, the question differs largely from the ones published by other studies, question as follows “Do you experience or have you experienced, that guests behaves in a way you consider to be sexual harassment? (“Oplever du, eller har du oplevet, at gæster optræder på en måde du opfatter som seksuel chikane?”), [https://fiu-ligestilling.temporary.dk/wp-content/uploads/2020/11/Seksuel-chikane-inden-for-Privat-Service-Hotel-og-Restauration.pdf](https://fiu-ligestilling.temporary.dk/wp-content/uploads/2020/11/Seksuel-chikane-inden-for-Privat-Service-Hotel-og-Restauration.pdf)

** Number of categories respondents can check off when asked explicit question as to the type of harassment experienced

### 7.2 TEMPORAL AND SPATIAL FRAMES OF REFERENCE

We have identified two key frames of reference for sexual harassment that are prevalent throughout the different studies and forms the basis for their methodological starting point. These two key frames of reference, as can be seen in Table 1, are namely time and job with each study, except one (HK), using a single frame of reference.

Both NFA and FOA base their questions on time as a frame of reference for sexual harassment, and all questions in their surveys inquire about sexual harassment within a specific time period, i.e. 12 months. FOA asks the question, “*Have you been sexually harassed in the last 12 months?*” and NFA asks a similar question. Thus, both FOA and NFA ask respondents a
question regarding sexual harassment with a frame of reference within the past 12 months of participating in the survey that excludes job as a reference. Therefore, respondents participating in FOA and NFA’s surveys are not directly asked to consider the job as a frame of reference, i.e. a specific place of reference where they have been exposed to sexual harassment.

On the other hand, both 3F and FH/Epinion use job as the sole frame of reference that forms the basis for the questions in their respective surveys, yet they do it in two distinct ways. Firstly, FH/Epinion uses job as a place of reference, i.e. a place in which respondents have experienced sexual harassment, which is, in this case, the workplace. However, the study by FH/Epinion make inquiries into, not only the current workplace but the previous workplace as well, with no time of reference provided.

Secondly, 3F uses job as a frame of reference as well, but unlike FH/Epinion, guests, co-workers and managers form the basis of the frame of reference here. The questions throughout the survey make inquiries into sexual harassment experienced in the workplace from guests and how this experience is shared with colleagues and managers, or lack thereof. However, using job as a sole frame of reference and excluding time as an additional frame of reference creates questions that force respondents to possibly take their experiences over several years into account. On the contrary, using time as a frame of reference puts a limit on the time which respondents have to take into consideration when recalling incidents of sexual harassment, allowing them to recount incidents more clearly and provide more accurate answers as well, thus decreases the possibility of recall biases. Excluding job as a frame of reference when researching workplace sexual harassment can be counterproductive and lead to respondents including incidents of sexual harassment outside the workplace in their answers as well.

In summary, it is ideal to include both frames of references when researching workplace sexual harassment in order to obtain the most accurate data by clearly defining spatial and temporal frames of references for respondents. HK, in contrast to the four aforementioned studies, includes both spatial and temporal frames of references, focusing their survey questions on incidents of sexual harassment occurring in the workplace (job/spatial) within the past 12 months (time/temporal).

7.3 THE NUMBER OF EXPLICIT CATEGORIES

The number of explicit categories that inquire into sexual harassment has a significant impact when researching the phenomenon. As mentioned previously, Gruber (1990) argues that broad categorization of sexual harassment is likely to encompass nearly all types of sexual harassment
and is therefore advantageous in that regard. However, Gruber argues that there is a downside to broadening categorization of sexual harassment as well, due to the fact that broad categories can be too broad as well and therefore lack the necessary specification of the phenomenon or incident.

HK address this issue in their study by pointing out NFA’s inclusion of one very broad category dedicated to sexual harassment that lacks any specification of sexual harassment nor various types of sexual harassment. Both HK and FH/Epinion include more than six explicit categories of sexual harassment that inquire into different incidents and aspects of sexual harassment, which provides respondents with variations of the phenomenon, moreover, enables them to clarify how it was expressed. This way of studying the phenomenon affects the results as well, with both HK and FH/Epinion detecting a significant increase in the prevalence of sexual harassment when inquiring into the harassment by presenting respondents with multiple categories that each encompass a variation of sexual harassment. Moreover, it helps set the basis for what sexual harassment could look like, as we would expect some respondents to not identify or label their experience as sexual harassment.

7.4 BIAS IN SAMPLE COMPOSITION

Another methodological limitation in some of the surveys are the sampling strategies adopted. HK, 3F and FOA collected data from random samples in specified populations and industries, while the NFA and Epinion surveyed nationwide through random sampling. According to Lengnick-Hall, the latter harnesses data that provides insight and knowledge about the general problem, while random samples in specific industries might be too narrow to generalize findings and make relevant inferences to the whole population. On the other hand, they can yield insight and highlight the existence of relationships in some populations, such as sexual harassment being especially prevalent in sectors and industries such as the public sector, care work, the service sector and alike. (Lengnick-Hall, 1995; Gillespie & Leffler, 1987)

Although these findings do not suggest that sexual harassment does not exist among other industries and occupations, however, it highlights that there are certain, and in some cases, inherent factors at place in some work flows and job positions that facilitate a culture and work environment where sexual harassment has become normalized in the workplace and in the particular job. According to Ramsaroop and Parumasur, close contact with patients and citizens in care work makes employees in these occupations more exposed to sexual harassment. This offers an explanation to why FOA respondents report some of the highest incidence levels among the selected surveys, since most of the respondents are social workers, where close
contact to patients is an inherent part of the work flows. At the same time, such sample compositions can cause biases in how the results should be understood and make it harder to pertain the findings to other populations, when compared to the studies that surveyed nationwide. (FOA, 2019; Unit for Research and Gender Studies, 1998, cited in Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007)

7.5 OVERALL SAMPLE SIZE
Finally, we will assess the sample sizes and sample errors in each of the selected studies. Firstly, there is a range of 1.650-65.000 with 3F having the smallest sample size (1.650) and NFA having the largest (65.000). In between these two we find HK (1.936), FH/Epinion (3.231) and FOA (10.408).

Going hand in hand with sample size is the sample composition which ranges from a more narrow sample composition to a much wider and larger sample composition that focuses nationwide. Both FH/Epinion and NFA have a sample composition that consists of nationwide respondents whereas FOA, HK and 3F have narrowed down the sample composition to consist of social workers (FOA), professionals in administrative jobs (HK) and lastly, hotel and restaurant workers (3F). Most importantly, however, is the fact that the FOA, HK and 3F are all trade unions and unemployment insurance funds and that the sample composition in their studies includes members only.

According to De Vaus (2002) the fundamental goal of research is to be able to infer generalizations about the larger population on the basis of findings in a particular study, and sample size plays a crucial role in enabling generalization. From this, researchers must be able to generalize on the basis of a sample - what is observed in the sample must hold in the population as well. In order to achieve the desired level of accuracy it is important to obtain a sample that is both representative and has a substantial sample size. Therefore, sample size plays a role, both in degrees of sampling error, degrees of sample accuracy in terms of generalization and the confidence levels. From the sampling error, we are able to identify the statistical accuracy of the data provided. As an example, we will use 3F.

In 3F’s study, we can see that due to its sampling size (1.650) it has a sampling error that is slightly smaller than 2.5%, which means that we would expect prevalence levels, i.e. the results, to fall within a range of 2.5% +/-, compared to the original prevalence levels. As such, we can be 95% confident that 3F’s total prevalence levels range from approximately 21.5-26.5% from the original total average prevalence level of 24%. The second smallest sample size (HK) with a sample size of 1.936 has a smaller sampling error
smaller than 2.5% but higher than 2% and therefore has a sampling error between 2-2.5, where prevalence levels will range between -0.7-4.3%.

On the other hand, due to the larger sample size (3.231) in FH/Epinion’s we expect a sampling error of 1.5-2% at a 95% confidence interval.

Lastly, we expect a sampling error of 1% or less in both NFA and FOA’s studies due to their sample sizes both exceeding 10,000 respondents, with NFA having the largest sample size. (65,000)

Table 2. Accumulated sampling errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample size</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>10,408</td>
<td>1,936</td>
<td>1,650</td>
<td>3,231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling error</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2.5-2%</td>
<td>&lt;2.5%</td>
<td>2-1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response rate</td>
<td>60.2% (39,000)</td>
<td>37% (3,583)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>30.3% (500)</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling error</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>2-1.5%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female respondents</td>
<td>19,688</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1,597</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling error</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male respondents</td>
<td>16,909</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling error</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: https://www.ft.dk/samling/2016/altned/LIU/bilag/46/170046.pdf
https://at.dk/arbejdsmiljoe-i-tal/arbejdsmiljoe-og-helbred-2012-2018/
https://www.foa.dk/forbund/presse/rapporter-undersoegelser/medlemmer/2019

7.6 RESPONSE RATE SAMPLING ERROR

However, although the sample size plays a major role in the degrees of accuracy and sampling error, the response rate of a survey can lead to reduction of sample size and in some cases unacceptable reduction of sample size, (De Vaus, 2002) and it this therefore important to control for response rate and to subsequently reevaluate sampling errors.
In the case of HK and FH/Epinion, the sample size given is the number of respondents who have completed the survey and as a result, the sampling error remains the same for both HK and FH/Epinion due to the fact that only the number of respondents that participated is provided for, as opposed to an overall sample size. On the other hand, NFA, FOA and 3F have provided both sample size and response rates and we must therefore control for the response rate in order to identify a sampling error that reflects the number of respondents. NFA has the largest response rate by far (60.2%) compared to FOA (37%) and 3F (30.3%). With a response rate of 60.2%, NFA has 39,000 respondents out of 65,000 whereas FOA had 3,583 respondents compared to a sample size of 10,408. This means that the sample error of NFA remains at 1% whereas FOA’s sample error increases 1% to 1.5-2%. 3F, however, sees the biggest increase in sampling error when accounting for response rates; With a sample size of 1,650 respondents, 3F acquired a sampling error that was slightly smaller than 2.5% but when accounting for the response rate of 30.3%, there were only 500 respondents compared to the sample size of 1,650. This means that the sample error of 3F almost doubled and thus, when controlling for the response rate, 3F’s study has a sample error of approximately 4.5%.

To illustrate how this affects the results, with 500 respondents, 3F found that 24 percent of respondents reported that they have experienced sexual harassment, we would be 95% confident that 24% of the Danish population have experienced sexual harassment, +/− 4.5% due to the 4.5% sampling error. Thus, we can be 95% certain that incidence levels of sexual harassment among the Danish population, when accounting for the sampling error, range between 19.5-28.5%. Therefore, as sampling error increases, statistical accuracy decreases.

7.7 GENDERED SUBGROUP SAMPLING ERROR

Additionally, the subgroups of a sample are equally important to understand both degrees of accuracy and sampling error. What this entails is that the overall sample size may have a specific sampling error, but when broken into the subgroups, each subgroup can have a different sampling error than the ones derived from the total sample size. The first two subgroups we can identify in all studies come in the form of gender, i.e. male and female respondents, and when accounting for gender, we are accounting for respondents as well, i.e. excluding non-responders.

In terms of gender subgroups, there is no applicable answer to both FOA and FH/Epinion who have not provided any percentages or numbers in terms of gender distribution of the respondents.
3F with the lowest number of respondents (500) had a sampling error of approximately 4.5%, yet when distinguishing between gender subgroups, the sampling error increases for each gender subgroup respectively. Out of the 500 respondents, 175 of them were male while female respondents were almost double the size of male respondents (325), thereby having a lower sampling error (5.5%) than male respondents (7.5%).

HK’s study, on the other hand, has a larger number of respondents (1.936) and similar to 3F, the sampling error increases when looked at respondents gender sub groups; similar to 3F, HK has an unequal gender distribution in which female respondents (1.957) make up the majority of the sample, while male respondents make up the minority (339). Thus, the female subgroup has a sampling error of approximately 2.5% while the male subgroup has a higher sampling error that is almost more than double that of female respondents (5.5%).

NFA, despite having the largest sample group (65.000) and the largest response rate (60.2%) not all of the 39.000 responded to every question; the number of respondents who responded to the question “Have you within the past 12 months been exposed to sexual harassment at your workplace?” is ‘only’ 36.597 responses out of the overall 39.000 respondents. Out of the 36.597 who responded to the question regarding workplace sexual harassment, 16.909 of them were male and 19.688 of them were female. However, the sampling error of 1% remains the same when looking at the gender subgroups, yet NFA, due to their sample composition consisting of nationwide respondents, has multiple subgroups across sectors, fields and jobs. The largest of these three additional subgroups, sector, has a 1% sampling error similar to the overall sample size across the private (19.560) and public sector (17.037). Yet this subgroup consists of only two categories whereas both fields and jobs consist of multiple categories, each in which the sampling error varies wildly.

Therefore, for most of the studies, the sampling error increases when distinguishing between respondents and non-respondents, in addition to further increases when dividing respondents into gender subgroups, which consequently decreases the statistical accuracy as well. However, this is particularly relevant among the studies in which female respondents make up the majority of the respondents i.e. HK and 3F, which allows us to deem the responses from the women in these surveys to be more statistically accurate due to their smaller sampling error, than their male counterparts who often make up the minority in these samples. Hence we associate larger sampling errors to the male respondents in these surveys when they make up the minority.
7.8 PREVALENCE AMONG THE STUDIES

Table 3. Incidence levels and ranges of sexual harassment from the selected studies according to gender. In percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.8-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women (total)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.1-27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men (total)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.3-19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources:
- https://www.foa.dk/forbund/presse/undersoegelser/medlemmer/2019

7.9 PREVALENCE IN THE SAMPLES

Table 2 summarizes both total incidence levels, incidence levels among men and women separately, and ranges, which illustrate the range of the incidence levels e.g. the studies show that women report incidence levels going from 2.1 percent to 27 percent, according to which survey one looks at. According to this table, it appears at first glance that women more frequently become a target of sexual harassment, which many theories underscore. (MacKinnon, 1979) However, these prevalence levels, to some extent, also counterargue the assumption that men experience little to no sexual harassment in their workplaces. On the contrary, it seems as if men experience sexual harassment more often, than otherwise assumed and addressed in studies and political debates.

7.10 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN PREVALENCE

First, while FOA, 3F, HK and Epinion differentiate according to average total incidence levels, but also average incidence levels for men and women separately, NFA’s survey only reports incidence levels. However, they report average incidence levels for each age group of men and women, but not overall incidence levels for the two sexes. This in turn makes it difficult to
assess incidence levels among men and women, as to how many men and women that, on average, experience it at their workplace. Thus NFA survey predicts overall incidence levels, however, fail to account for how frequently men and women are targeted and as of that, are more likely to be subject to both sexual harassment in general, but certainly also more frequent harassment. Hence the NFA survey provides insight into the general problem, but not the significantly large gender difference in the scope, which Borchorst and Agustin also highlight in their book. (Gruber, 1990; Borchorst & Agustin, 2017)

The gender difference in the scope also has implications for how men and women differ in their perception of what constitutes sexual harassment, (Gruber, 1990) namely that women are more inclined to label an act as sexual harassment, compared to their male counterpart, but also are frequently more targeted than them. Hence if NFA inferred average incidence levels for all men and women in their sample would provide us with an even more clear idea about prevalence among men and women. Thus controlling for gender when inferring average incidence levels is a must, when conducting sexual harassment surveys.

7.11 BROAD AND NARROW CATEGORIZATION

Also, according to Gruber, one is more likely to underestimate and underreport harassment, when respondents have few response categories, which offers an explanation to why NFAs incidence levels are among the lowest detected. On the other hand, this is a methodological strength of the other surveys published, such as the ones conducted by HK and 3F. The methodological challenge here lies in the examination of the categories made available to respondents. On one hand, Gruber suggests that too broad categories do not specify the content of the message or action. Hence it becomes challenging to analyze prevalence among certain types of harassing behavior, when such questions have not been made available to the respondents. (Gruber, 1990)

While the NFA simply asks respondents to answer whether they have been harassed within the last 12 months, which will provide data that details prevalence among gender, age and groups among others, other surveys, such as the one conducted by HK and 3F, ask respondents to check off to whether they have experienced certain types of harassing behavior, as provided by the researchers who conducted the survey. The latter has the advantage in providing us with the most prevalent types of harassment among groups, and not just overall incidence levels, thus provides us with an intricate knowledge about how the sexual harassment was expressed. (Gruber, 1990)
For one, a major disadvantage of a single typology vis-a-vis NFA, is the risk of not capturing all the variation that exists within the phenomenon and between harassment types. Hence NFAs question is too broad to capture any variations in types of harassment, but works in the way that it encompasses nearly all possible types of harassment. On the other hand, HK and 3F’s survey may encounter boundary problems at a more refined level, when they increase the number of categories and subcategories used in these studies. However, this can be solved by providing detailed information about the construct, such as specifying the content of the harassing interaction e.g. “Have you within the last 12 months at your workplace experienced intrusive questions about your looks, which you considered to be harassing?” (Gruber, 1990; HK, 2017, p. 5)

The difference in the mode of query is very evident in the study conducted by HK. Their prevalence estimates are lower than NFAs, however, when they ask respondents whether they have experienced a variety of harassing behavior, prevalence increases dramatically. Incidence levels for men and women are respectively 0.3 percent and 2.1 percent, but when accounting and accumulating for the respondents who have experienced one or more types of harassing behavior on their list, prevalence among men increases to 25.7 percent and for women, it increases to 26.5 percent. We will dwell deeper into this point under table 5. (HK, 2017, table 2)

This suggests that, when specifying the content and context of the sexual harassment construct, by detailing a number of assumingly harassing behaviors, prevalence increases. This does not entail that this will happen all the time, however, its suggestive towards whether the phenomenon is appropriately measured and captured, when only asking whether they have experienced sexual harassment or not. (Gruber, 1990)

7.12 INQUIRY MODES

The query method, as proposed by Lengnick-Hall, asks respondents directly whether they have been sexual harassed at their workplace, which allows the respondent to subjectively define whether they have experienced sexual harassment or not, hence assess the character of the interaction as, or not as, sexual harassment. The NFA make use of such approach, which makes sexual harassment a more perceptual construct. However, this may be a misleading indicator to the extent of the problem, because reported percentages do not allow us to know anything about the expression nor the pervasiveness of the interaction. (Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

Although it is an advantage that the question is open-ended and so respondents self-report on the basis of their own perceptual standpoint, it only allows us to assess prevalence and provides
us with limited knowledge about the phenomenon. On the other hand, when using the behavioral methods approach, where respondents are allowed to infer whether they have experienced certain types of harassing behavior and measures are written in more behavioral terms, can yield insight to the types of harassment that occur more frequently e.g. verbal sexual harassment. (Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

As an instrument and measure, including a list of harassing behaviors allows us to assess the occurrence of each behavior descriptively. It allows us both to assess overall sexual harassment rates (as a dichotomous variable) in the population and to compare rates of sexual harassment subtypes (verbal vs. physical). It would also allow researchers to yield insight to what people consider to be harassment in the presence of other harassing behaviors. According to Lengnick-Hall, this differs considerably from what respondents will consider to be sexual harassment, in the absence of other sexual harassing behavior e.g. people may report sexual joking to be sexual harassment to a lesser degree, than for example unwanted hugs and kissess. (McGovern & Murdoch, 1998; Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

7.13 IMPLICATIONS FOR POLITICAL DEBATES
These prevalence rates become particularly problematic, when most political debates refer back to these average figures of incidence provided by the NFA, which in turn guides political action towards the phenomenon. Simply put, the incidence levels which NFA have captured is only tenable to conclude where sexual harassment is most prevalent. However, items reflecting different types of harassing behavior will provide us with more knowledge about the occurrence rates of the subgroups and how respondents may perceive sexual harassment, according to contemporary understandings. According to Gillespie and Leffler, including new understandings of what people perceive to be sexual harassment could yield new status quo definitions and claims on social problems, that can challenge current status quo definitions. Finally, where the phenomenon seems to be considerably small if one looks at the occurrence levels, it is considerably more widespread and multi-faceted when assessing occurrence across harassing behaviors. (Gillespie & Leffler, 1987)

7.14 PREVALENCE BY GENDER AND AGE GROUPS
Table 4. Incidence levels of sexual harassment from the selected studies according to age. In percentage (women)
N= No applicable answer
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>&lt;40*</td>
<td>22*</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>18-29*</td>
<td>31*</td>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>40-49*</td>
<td>15*</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>30-39*</td>
<td>36*</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>50-59*</td>
<td>12*</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>30-39*</td>
<td>20*</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>&gt;60*</td>
<td>10*</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>40-49*</td>
<td>10*</td>
<td>&gt;50</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>50-59*</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Range: 10.5-31

Range: 7.7-36

Range: 5.5-20

Range: 4.1-10

Range: 2.9-7


* Variable was not controlled for gender, only for age.

7.15 INCIDENCE LEVELS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT ACCORDING TO AGE (WOMEN)

Table 4 summarizes incidence levels of sexual harassment according to age for female respondents. However, it must be emphasized that FOA does not control for gender and as such, their variable includes both men and women. Likewise, HK does not control for age in their study thereby making the three aforementioned studies fundamentally non applicable for the purpose of Table 4, 5 and 6. With this, we must call attention to the age groups in FOA due
to the unspecified age of their youngest age group that encompass every respondent below the age of 40 and the subsequent age groups above 40. Previous research has demonstrated that age influences occurrence and prevalence of sexual harassment and as a consequence, young females were more likely to be victims of sexual harassment, antithetical to their older colleagues. (Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007) Therefore, excluding young respondents or failing to apply a nominal scale that accurately controls and specifies age groups in order to better control for young and old age groups, can lead to precarious results.

Nonetheless, Table 4 shows a pattern in which sexual harassment appears to function as a variable that is dependent on age and decreases when the variable, age, increases. With this, we must call attention to the age groups present in NFA and FH/Epinion’s studies. FH/Epinion have included three age categories with a range from 18-49 and a fourth and last category that includes every respondent above 50 whereas NFA’s age categories range from 18-64 across five groups.

When we exclude 3F, FOA and HK in order to include the two remaining studies that control for incidence levels of sexual harassment according to age and gender, we get the following table:

Table 5. Incidence levels of sexual harassment studies that control for both age and gender (women)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>NFA</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>FH/Epinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Range: 10.5-16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Range: 7.7-10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Range: 5.5-9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>&gt;50</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Range: 4.1-9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

102 of 138
As aforesaid, previous research has demonstrated a relationship between age and prevalence and occurrence of sexual harassment and according to Ramsaroop & Parumasur (2007) young employees are more likely to be victims of sexual harassment than their older colleagues, which coincides with research by Crouch (2001) whose findings showed a similar pattern between age and prevalence of sexual harassment.

By looking at the youngest age category, we can see incidence levels ranging from 10.5 (NFA) to 16 (FH/Epinion). Taking into account what aforementioned previous research has demonstrated, we would expect incidence levels of sexual harassment to decrease as age increases, and indeed such pattern is observable in the data. The oldest age category for each respective study has an incidence level of sexual harassment ranging from 2.9 (NFA) to 9 (FH/Epinion). In the case of NFA, incidence levels have consistently been decreasing throughout age categories yet the incidence levels of FH/Epinion remained at 9 across the last two age categories, i.e. 40-49 and >50.

Table 6. Incidence levels of sexual harassment from the selected studies according to age (men)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>&lt;40*</td>
<td>22*</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>18-29*</td>
<td>31*</td>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>40-49*</td>
<td>15*</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>30-39*</td>
<td>36*</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>50-59*</td>
<td>12*</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>30-39*</td>
<td>20*</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Range: 5.1-31

Range: 2.8-36
Table 6, similar to Table 4, summarizes incidence levels of sexual harassment according to age but in this instance controls for men as opposed to women. Additionally, Table 6 shows a similar pattern in which incidence levels of sexual harassment decrease as age of respondents increase.

Table 7. Incidence levels of sexual harassment studies that control for both age and gender (men)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>NFA</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>FH/Epinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Range: 5.2-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Range: 2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Range: 1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>&gt;50</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Range: 1.0-2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


* Variable was not controlled for gender, only for age
However, men’s incidence levels in NFA’s study are considerably lower than that of their female counterparts, yet men in FH/Epinion’s study appear to be exposed to similar incidence levels of sexual harassment as the female respondents, which concurs with HK’s findings as well.

Thus, what can be elucidated from looking at incidence levels according to age is that high incidence levels of sexual harassment appears to be a causality between the two variables in which incidence levels are dependent on age - when age increases, incidence levels decrease. However, when controlling for gender we are able to identify the universality of this pattern across both men and women. Although NFA’s study has shown considerably lower incidence levels among men, other studies, including FH/Epinion and HK have shown incidence levels of sexual harassment among men similar to that of women.

7.16 PERPETRATOR CHARACTERISTICS

Table 8. Overview over who the harasser was (in percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Next of kin</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A citizen/patient</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superior</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coworker</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinate</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 illustrates who the harasser is, of which FOA and Epinion, are among those who raise questions regarding who the offender is. According to FOA, a citizen or a patient was the
offender in 87 percent of the cases, while the nationwide survey conducted by Epinion suggests that in most of the cases, the offender is a colleague from work. NFA also asks about who the harasser was, however, these numbers are not published. These results and especially the ones obtained from FOA, should be considered with caution. This is due to the that the results from FOA are biased by the fact that their survey investigates sexual harassment prevalence among social workers and public employees in the care work field, where close contact to citizens and patients is an inherent part of the job. Hence as shown, results will be highly skewed in one direction and suggests that there exists high exposure levels to sexual harassment by a citizen in care professions. Figure 6 in FOA’s survey shows that employees at nursing homes and in the psychiatric field are among those public employees in care professions, that are most exposed to workplace sexual harassment. (FOA, 2019, fig. 6, p. 8)

7.17 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN HARASSER AND THE HARASSED

However, it feels less severe from the victim’s point of view, because citizens in many of these cases are people with cognitive and physical disabilities, and so sexual harassment in these interactions per se are considered “unintended actions” and also because there exists a great amount of physical contact in these professions. However, more importantly, the results elucidate that sexual harassment from citizens becomes an inherent part of the job and as such, workplace sexual harassment becomes “normalized” and “expected”, which in turn harnesses an organizational climate that communicates tolerance of sexual harassment. Paragraph 5 in the Danish Equal Treatment Act highlights that the action must be done with “purpose or the effect to violate a person’s dignity and create a threatening, hostile, degrading, humiliating or unpleasant climate” (Bekendtgørelse af lov om ligebehandling af mænd og kvinder med hensyn til beskæftigelse m.v., 2011) Once again, because sexual harassment from these citizens is often done unintended, although it may have an effect on the offended, sexual harassment in these workplaces is sometimes considered harmless. According to Fitzgerald, Ramsaroop and Parumasur, such situational and individual factors permeates sexual harassment and therefore it is normalized and incorporated into the organizational culture, where women and men may feel pressured to engage in such a culture or may not imagine their jobs without it. (Fitzgerald et. al., 1997; Ramsaroop & Parumasur, 2007)

On the other hand, Friborg suggests that sexual harassment from citizens and alike has far less severe impact on mental health symptoms, than in an interaction, where the offender is a colleague or a superior. Thus sexual harassment from colleagues and superiors is felt more
severely and has far greater implications for mental health symptoms such as depression and anxiety. (Friborg et al., 2017)

Thus the results from FOA elucidate the idea there is a strong relationship between working as a public employee in care work occupation and being harassed by a patient, citizen etc. For the purposes of methodology, results from a homogeneous subgroup or population limits the ability of researchers to yield insight into the general extent of the problem. (Gillespie & Leffler, 1987; Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

7.18 EXPERIENCED SEVERITY

Epinions results elucidates the idea that across fields and occupations, colleagues tend to be the offenders in most of the cases, followed up by superiors and clients/patients/citizens. According to Friborg et. al. (2017), sexual harassment from colleagues, superiors and subordinates is associated with a higher mean level of depression than from the former. (Friborg et.al., 2017) These findings suggest that other factors are in place, when addressing sexual harassment between superiors, subordinates and colleagues. For example, MacKinnon (1979) considers the power differentials between a superior and a subordinate to be potent facilitators of sexual harassment, while according to Fitzgerald, skewed gender ratios are potent in fostering sexual harassment or at least permeating workplace sexual harassment. (MacKinnon, 1979; Fitzgerald et. al., 1997) Thus, other factors are at stake when assessing sexual harassment form coworkers, superior etc. across fields and occupations, which can only be identified, with a more qualitative investigation of their experiences.

To sum up everything that has been stated so far, by asking who the harasser was in the surveys, one can more accurately assess severity and more narrowly identify, with the help of past research, the implications for the workplace environment and the individual e.g. care professions have to some degree normalized sexual harassment from citizens and clients. Although the NFA includes this category, results are not published. What could be more interesting for NFA to include in their survey, beyond the relationship of the harasser contra the harassed, is looking at the gender of the harasser, to draw inferences about whether women are targeted more frequently by their colleagues than men, whether a female supervisor target both men and women, or men only, etc. It will provide us with more knowledge about the person behind the action or the person whom it happened to, which could yield insight into the relationships that exist between the harasser and the harassed in the workplace. This in turn, will foster findings whereby researchers can assess severity of the interaction, and not just prevalence, which current surveys stick to doing. A general critical point here is that future
sexual harassment surveys and studies should consider the severity of the offense, as well as its overall occurrence, by: Assessing the relationship between the victim and offender, by which theory has shown that its felt less severe when expressed by a client/citizen i.e. link data collection with a conceptual framework. Another factor worth considering for severity is recurrence i.e. how often it happened. According to Fitzgerald, sexual harassment that occurs more frequently, such as every day or every week, is also felt more severe, than if the interaction had happened more rarely such as once a year. (Fitzgerald, Shullman et. al., 1988; Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

7.19 INQUIRY INTO THE INTERACTION
Table 9. Overview over incidence levels among men and women according to specific episodes with one or more of the prescribed harassing behaviors (in percentage)

N= No applicable answer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>FH/Epinion</th>
<th>HK</th>
<th>NFA</th>
<th>FOA</th>
<th>3F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total incidence levels</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you experienced one or more of the following offensive episodes?</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced comments or jokes with sexual undertones, which you considered offensive?*</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

108 of 138
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>N1</th>
<th>N2</th>
<th>N3</th>
<th>N4</th>
<th>N5</th>
<th>N6</th>
<th>N7</th>
<th>N8</th>
<th>N9</th>
<th>N10</th>
<th>N11</th>
<th>N12</th>
<th>N13</th>
<th>N14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced intrusive comments about your appearance that you considered offensive?*</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced inappropriate glances or stares that were unpleasant to you?*</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced any unwanted touches, embraces or kiss?*</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced invasive questions about your private life and/or sex life, which you considered to be offensive?*</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced that someone exposed themselves to you?*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced receiving unwanted sexually explicit emails or text messages that were offensive to you?*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced inappropriate approaches that were offensive to you, on social networking sites like Facebook or in chat rooms on the Internet?*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced being forced to watch porn?*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.20 SEXUAL HARASSMENT BEHAVIORS

Table 9 accumulates all answers to which respondents have had the opportunity to check off whether they have experienced one or more types of sexual harassment. Preliminary, we will assess which harassing behaviors are the most common. Hereafter, and more importantly, this table will highlight how, when including more categories and asking more narrowly, occurrence and prevalence increases dramatically, suggesting that when only asking whether they have been sexually harassed, induces underreported prevalence levels.

7.21 FORMULATION OF THE QUESTIONS

To begin with, the only surveys who make use of such a format to investigate sexual harassment at the workplace, is Epinion, HK and to some degree, 3F as well. Epinion and HK follow the same format of questions and also use very similar, if not completely the same wordings. However, the reference frame for these two are different, Epinions as a function of jobs (“have you at your current or previous job experienced ....” and HK’s as a function of time and job (“have you within the last 12 months experienced ..... at your workplace”). (3F, 2015; HK, 2017; Epinion, 2019)

3F on the other hand, asks the respondents about the character of the offensive episode(s), namely “how the sexual harassment was expressed”, where respondents can check off according to whether it was a “verbal comment”, “through touches”, “through mimics” or “other ways”, which they then can write down. While HK and Epinion consider harassment from anyone at work e.g. superiors, colleagues etc., 3Fs survey highlights sexual harassment from guests directed towards staff, and not sexual harassment from coworkers, superiors or others at the workplace. (3F, 2015; HK, 2017; Epinion, 2019)

7.22 MEASURING SEXUAL HARASSMENT ACCORDING TO TYPES

First, they tabulate how many that answered to whether they have been sexually harassed and secondly, they summarize the sum of the responses to whether they have experienced one or more of the following offensive episodes listed above.

Table 10. Overview over incidence levels among men and women according to whether they
have been sexually harassed versus whether they have experienced one or more of types of sexual harassment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>FH/Epinion</th>
<th>HK</th>
<th>NFA</th>
<th>FOA</th>
<th>3F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incidence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>levels</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experienced</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one or</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>following</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offensive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>episodes?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HK had incidence levels of 1.8 percent, when we look at the first question. However, when summarizing all of the responses to the different episodes, a total of 26.4 percent of the respondents have experienced such behaviors. Similarly, when asking whether they have experienced sexual harassment, 15 percent of Epinions respondents said yes, but when summarizing the different offensive episodes, a total of 29 percent of the respondents checked off one or more of the offensive episodes. This way of asking into sexual harassment experiences suggests two important things about the methodology adopted when surveying on sexual harassment:

(1) Direct approach vs. episodes

These findings suggest that there is a need for research that informs the accurate measurement of sexual harassment, in order to understand the extent of the problem. More accurate measurement can be attained when asking about one or more offensive episodes, which has proven to increase occurrence levels and prevalence, suggesting that when asked about whether they have been sexually harassed only, as the NFA does, generates deflated and unvarnished prevalence outcomes. The episodes, on the other hand, identifies behaviors that can be presumed to be illegal according to Danish legislation on discrimination and sexual harassment and as such, can reveal how subtler and more direct types of harassment are expressed. Thus
the approach with having a list of episodes is more accurate in capturing prevalence levels that reflect reality, strengthens the quantitative measurement of sexual harassment and provides more nuances to which type of harassment is more prevalent. It also aids in highlighting how men and women share or do not share, similar experiences of sexual harassment. Moreover, by revealing which types of sexual harassment that are most prevalent, will aid in producing more intricate knowledge and guide political action more accurately towards e.g. how verbal harassment can be upheld in a court of law, how workplaces can deal with subtler types of sexual harassment etc.

(2) Categorizing experiences
Some respondents might and might not categorize and deem what has happened to them, as sexual harassment, when asking whether they have been sexually harassed. Because there lies great difficulty in studying a variable that can mean so many different things and can be perceived in multiple ways, asking more narrowly will aid the respondents in defining their own experiences e.g. a respondent might not answer “yes” to whether they have been sexual harassed, because it was expressed in the form of a joke, however, when asking whether they have felt offended by a joke, might answer yes. Hence the importance here is having items written in behavioral terms with sufficient detail to ensure that they are interpreted similarly, as sexual harassment as a word in its itself, have very different meanings for individuals. Extremely brief items, such as “insulting comments” invite a variety of interpretations, hence why the questions need to be written in enough detail. (McGovern & Murdoch, 1998; Lengnick-Hall, 1995)

7.23 PREVELANCE AMONG TYPES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT
When we look at the table, the most prevalent types of harassment as declared by the respondents, are found at the top of the aforementioned table.

Table 11. The most prevalent types of sexual harassment according to the selected surveys

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The most prevalent types of sexual harassment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

113 of 138
Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced comments or jokes with sexual undertones, which you considered offensive?  

Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced intrusive comments about your appearance that you considered offensive?  

Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced inappropriate glances or stares that were unpleasant to you?  

Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced any unwanted touches, embraces or kiss?  

Have you at your current or previous workplace experienced invasive questions about your private life and/or sex life, which you considered to be offensive?

According to Table 11, the most prevalent expressions of sexual harassment at the workplace, according to HK and Epinion’s respondents, are these five harassing behaviors/episodes. Three of those are of verbal character, one of non-verbal character and one of physical character. Hence we can elucidate that the most common type of sexual harassment is of verbal character, which according to a paper published by 3F on sexual harassment and the judicial system, is the most common type generally. (HK, 2017; Epinion, 2019; 3F, “Seksuel Chikane og retssystemet”, 2015) Hence we would not have known of the character of the interaction, if not questions like these were posed to the respondents. This clearly illustrates the shortcomings of the NFA survey, that by asking more narrowly, it is easier to identify what behaviors are the most prevalent. In the discussion, we will more thoroughly investigate what a possible revised survey questionnaire would contain and whether it is possible.

7.24 VERBAL HARASSMENT IN A COURT OF LAW

This also has several implications for the aftermath of the sexual harassment i.e. why victims rarely report to courts when sexual harassment at their workplace occurs. By knowing more about the character of the behavior, it can also address some shortcomings in the way sexual harassment is remediated at the workplace or in a court of law. Hence if NFA included such items-lists and surveyed about the expression of the interaction, it would be easier to identify how the sexual harassment is expressed in general and among populations. This in turn could guide political action towards how to alleviate verbal sexual harassment at Danish workplaces, as it is the most prevalent. (3F, “Seksuel Chikane og retssystemet”, 2015) Although these behaviors are legally prohibited for one to conduct per the Equal Treatment Act definition, sentencing almost always requires that the incident has some character of physical assault, thus
offering an explanation as to why these cases often fall through when it comes to conviction and remediation. Despite the clear formulation of the law, convictions within the realm are rare; especially for verbal sexual harassment, although it is the most common type of sexual harassment. Assumingly, there is some reluctance towards raising convictions for verbal sexual harassment, despite the legal authority prescribed in the law. Hence the importance of the methodologies and the findings harnessed from these surveys not only has implications for the political action targeting sexual harassment, but also the legal authority of the courts to prosecute. (3F, “Seksuel chikane og retssystemet”, 2015)

7.25 CHAPTER SUMMARY:

- Frames of references can induce recall biases, especially if job is used as a frame of reference as opposed to, or in combination with, time.
- Studies, whose samples consist of specified populations, risk not being able to generalize their findings across the larger population.
- As sampling error increases, statistical accuracy decreases.
- Men experience sexual harassment more often than otherwise reflected in studies.
- To re-emphasize a point previously made, a negative relationship between age and incidence levels of sexual harassment can be identified, in which the decrease of age results in an increase of the prevalence of sexual harassment.
- It is a limitation that surveys do not consider the severity of the offense expressed in terms of the relationship between the harasser and the victim, and recurrence.
- Asking generally, as opposed to inquiring into specific episodes or incidents, is likely to result in lower incidence levels of sexual harassment.
- Verbal harassment is the most common expression of sexual harassment in Danish workplaces.

VIII. CONCLUSION

To sum up everything stated so far, there are some inherent limitations in the way sexual harassment is measured, which has diluted the accuracy of the conclusions drawn from Danish contemporary studies on workplace sexual harassment. Our methodological review of five studies from several labor unions and the Danish Ministry of Labor suggests that underreporting of sexual harassment can indeed be attributed to how these studies on the
subject matter fail to adequately measure the phenomenon, specifically in the questions provided to the respondents.

Ultimately, all of the studies capture varying degrees of prevalence levels and account for differences across age groups, gender and job functions. The results of the studies suggest that sexual harassment is highly evident at workplaces in the public sector, among employees with close customer and, or, patient contact; moreover, the data elucidates the impression that young women are among the most frequently targeted victims.

First, all of the studies vary distinctively in terms of sample composition, frames of references, variables and question formulations, which has several implications for the results harnessed. We detect a bias in the frame of reference; when asking about events dating far back, studies risk recall biases among the respondents. Also, when sample size decreases, the probability of sampling errors increases. Additionally, by sampling very homogenous groups, such as workers in the public sector, studies risk highlighting the existence of relationships in populations, which limits the generalizability of their findings to the greater population.

Secondly, the question formulation has profound implications for the prevalence outcomes. We identified that studies that ask the general question “have you been sexually harassed or not” yield very limited insight into the nature of the interaction and results in very low prevalence levels. On the other hand, studies that asks respondents whether they have experienced a number of harassing behaviors offset a better understanding of how the sexual harassment was expressed; moreover, it causes prevalence levels to increase dramatically. This gives off the impression that by asking more narrowly and providing respondents with preformulated scenarios harnesses prevalence levels that are more realistic and accurate.

We categorized these harassing behaviors according to three classifications: verbal, non-verbal and physical. The data suggests that the most frequently experienced type of harassment is verbal harassment, followed closely by physical interactions. This is also the type of harassment that is most difficult to prosecute in a court of law, although it goes under the legal definition of sexual harassment. Hence this offers an explanation to why the phenomenon is severely underreported statistically and in public records, but also emphasizes the need for future researchers to classify these scenarios into these categories when the research has been conducted. This will allow them to categorize their results in accordance with the Danish legal definition of sexual harassment, but more importantly, asking in behavioral terms provides more accurate estimates of prevalence.

Additionally, none of the studies assess the severity of the interaction, nor the subsequent consequences of the actions either, with the exception of FH/Epinion. In their study, they
account for the severity of the incident in addition to how the incidents affected respondents’ afterwards with regards to their mental well-being, health and even economic situation as well. Hence studies that fail to consider severity as a variable, will predict which persons that continuously are targeted, and therefore, are more likely to experience sexual harassment. In prolongation, studies that do not account for severity as a variable are simultaneously limited in predicting who is more likely to be subjected to severe and frequent harassment. Finally, studies that do not take into account who the harasser was will also fail in adequately measuring the severity of the incident as well and the subsequent consequences it may have on victims, as research has shown, that the victim is affected more severely when sexually harassed by somebody working within the organization.

IX. DISCUSSION

9.1 CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD

Lastly, we must also consider our contribution to the discussion of workplace sexual harassment, specifically in terms of the validity, or truth, of our scientific claims. As aforementioned, we distinguish between correspondence theory, coherence theory and pragmatic theory of truth, and for our research purposes, we recognized the latter as the fitting theory of truth. As such, we considered something to be true, in this case our research and scientific claims regarding workplace sexual harassment in Denmark and studies of this phenomenon, to be true if they are useful or practical in scientific life. Indeed, we do consider our claims and findings to be beneficial to the scientific discussion regarding sexual harassment and future research going forward. However, a downfall of adopting a pragmatic theory of truth is the fact that the truth put forward may not be a fixed, universal truth that is replicable by others, and can therefore not be tested nor replicated in order to prove the unbiased scientific truth of the claim(s). Therefore, the truth becomes a matter of subjective judgement as opposed to objective, value-free and unbiased scientific methods. Similarly, although we recognize our findings and claims as beneficial, we acknowledge the fact that these findings are not the result of hard, scientific methods that are easily replicated, nor completely objective as well. Additionally, the scientific landscape is ever-changing and evolving as well, and although our findings may be beneficial to current and future research concerned with workplace sexual harassment in Denmark, it may very well become futile at some point and therefore lack any truth at all. (Egholm, 2014)
9.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE TENDENCIES

The last couple of years, the MeToo debate seems to have shifted attitudes among female employees. In a new study conducted by YouGov for “The Leaders” (“Lederne”)34, which is Denmark’s largest professional organization for managers, 38 percent of the female employees who were surveyed contend that the past year’s MeToo debate has made it easier to stand up and say no, if they experience workplace sexual harassment. The study sampled 1.470 full-time employees.

A similar study in the field, conducted by YouGov35 in 2018 containing 1.011 respondents, suggest some of the same tendencies. The study investigates Danish men and women’s opinions about the effects of the MeToo campaign, asking whether the movement enables better working conditions for women, if public allegations of individuals has gone too far and whether the movement can prevent sexual harassment in the workplace and public spaces. Respondents can answer that they agree to a large extent, to a certain extent, a little bit or not at all. Approximately 43 percent or 2 out of 5 believe that the MeToo campaign to a certain or very large extent contributes to women getting better working conditions. Finally, almost 49 percent of the respondents believe, either to a certain or very large extent, that the campaign can prevent sexual harassment in the workplace and in public places. However, Danish men and women are not entirely one about how crucial and effective the MeToo campaign has been and currently is. The results from the survey shows that approx. every fourth man (24 percent) does not at all think that the MeToo campaign contributes to women getting better working conditions, while only approx. every tenth Danish woman (11 percent) thinks the same. In the same way, 16 percent of Danish men do not believe at all that MeToo campaign can prevent workplace sexual harassment and in public spaces - a view that is only shared by 7 percent of the women in the survey.

9.3 EFFECTS OF THE #METOO MOVEMENT

Over recent years, there has generally become a much-needed and increasing focus on women’s right to their own bodies. The #MeToo movement has been helping to give women around the world a platform to break the silence and tell openly about their experiences of harassment, abuse and insults. It has been crucial to alter the view on violation and sexual harassment.

Hence the study and the current climate implicates the idea that it has become easier for Danish women and men to share their experiences with sexually harassing behaviors, hence these figures give cause for optimism about future reporting of sexual harassment. Underreporting is a central problem to current studies and records on workplace sexual harassment, which limits the efficacy of policy measures and subsequently treats the phenomenon as inconsequential. This is not necessarily due to a lack of channels where individuals can report their experiences, as much as it is a reflection of a culture and judicial systems that have neglected the pervasiveness and seriousness of this phenomenon. According to Fitzgerald (1995), this is contributable to a number of factors. Ultimately, victims fear of retaliation and that their complaints will not be taken seriously, nor have consequences for the individual in question. Thus it suggests not so much the lack of appropriate channels of remediation, but also the lack of timely and appropriate responses from HR, leaders and managers.

Hence a point of discussion for the future directions and changes is also how effective current remediation practices are and what shortcomings there exist in the way it is handled inter-organizationally and in a court of law, knowing that it is underreported.

9.4 SENSITIVITY AND RESPONSE EFFECTS

Another point of discussion is the sensitivity of the subject, although data points towards a future where individuals and respondents are becoming more open and willing to share their experiences with sexual harassment. This is also a point related to the issues with underreporting, which suggests that it is still a relatively taboo subject. According to McNeeley, Tourangeau and Smith (1996, 2000), there is a general understanding that certain topics pose problems for researchers to research adequately, due to the reluctance of respondents to answer truthfully, accurately or even discuss the topics, which can become an issue for the surveys promulgated. Blair et. al. (1977) investigated which topics make people feel uneasy, where topics related to sexual behavior, drugs and alcohol were among those that rates highest i.e. made people very uneasy.

This is especially relevant when assessing workplace sexual harassment through interviews, because standing face-to-face with the interviewer does away with the anonymity of the individuals in question. As such, according to Mensch. et. al., (2003) women are unwilling to report sexual behavior when interviewed about it, likely due to the socially undesirable and embarrassing nature of the topic. Thus it can be more difficult to assess and accurately measure workplace sexual harassment, when interviewing versus when surveying, because it provides
respondents with anonymity, making them answer questions more truthfully. Hence surveys are an easier tool to measure the phenomenon, than interviews. Hence a prerequisite for more accurate measurements in surveys, is the need for a cultural change in society to speak openness towards the extent and seriousness of this problem into existence. This hopefully will harness more openness among individuals both in surveys, and perhaps aid men and women in reporting these incidents more often.

9.5 AN INCREASE OF THE REIMBURSEMENT LEVEL

All parties in Folketinget are behind a bill submitted and passed by the Ministry of Labor (“Beskæftigelsesministeriet”) the 1st of January 2019 to combat sexual harassment in the workplace. The bill implements new compensatory levels for sexual harassment cases, which is raised by an average of one third. Hence victims of sexual harassment in the workplace can look forward to receiving higher and more up-to-date compensation, so that the average amount will increase from 25.000 kr. to 33.000 kr.°

At the same time, the prohibition of sexual harassment in the workplace is clarified in the Equal Treatment Act (”Ligebehandlingsloven”), so that it directly states that equal working conditions also include a prohibition of sexual harassment. In addition, it emphasizes that when assessing cases of sexual harassment, emphasis should not be placed on the tone of the conversation, hence it clarifies that a “free tone of voice” in the workplace cannot excuse sexual harassment. The changes are made to §2 and in section 4, the following paragraph is inserted:

“Equal working conditions cf. 1 shall also cover the prohibition of sexual harassment.”

In section 14, the following paragraph is inserted:

“If there has been an infringement in the form of sexual harassment, this may be taken into account in determining the compensation.”

---

°Source: Beskæftigelsesministeriet, Ligestillingsudvalget: L 93 Forslag til lov om ændring af lov om ligebehandling af mænd og kvinder med hensyn til beskæftigelse m.v., https://www.ft.dk/samling/20181/lovforslag/l93/index.htm Visited: 29th of April

°°Source: Lov om ændring af lov om ligebehandling af mænd og kvinder med hensyn til beskæftigelse m.v., https://www.retsinformation.dk/eli/lt/2018/1709 Visited: 29th of April

°°°Source: Lov om ændring af lov om ligebehandling af mænd og kvinder med hensyn til beskæftigelse m.v., https://www.retsinformation.dk/eli/lt/2018/1709 Visited: 29th of April
With this adoption in the law, politicians are taking a big and important step in the fight against sexual harassment. For the past many years, the prevalence level has been about the same, hence with these new changes, politicians and the political climate are facilitating a strong stance from workplace sexual harassment. More importantly, the newly implemented compensation levels correspond more to and reflect the seriousness of these cases and is a real showdown with the phenomenon. Although it is a step in the right direction that the amount was raised, the compensation is far from in an order of magnitude which is commensurate with the consequences for the victims in the most serious of cases. Thus other aspects of the law and, certainly the view on sexual harassment, need to be effectively addressed as well.

9.6 EMPLOYER LIABILITY

Other measures that are currently evaluated are the liabilities of employers and to what extent they should be held accountable. For example, the Danish Socialist Party (“Socialistisk Folkeparti”) vis-a-vis large parts of the trade union movement, have proposed introducing a more sharpened employer liability for sexual harassment in the workplace. A tightened employer responsibility would mean that the employer is responsible for sexual harassment that occurs at the workplace, whether it is an employee or an outside third party e.g. a customer, who commits the infringement. This would mean that the employer in these situations must be able to document that the harassment could not have been avoided with the current workplace guidelines and precautions. Hence it signals that the employer has a responsibility to ensure a good working environment, where sexual harassment does not occur. Thus such measures would serve as a motivation for employers to prevent sexual harassment to a much greater degree than today. Whether it is an responsibility of the employer to promote a healthy working environment is different from the discussion about whether they can be held accountable if employees at their company commit infringements e.g. sexual harassment.39

9.7 GENDER INEQUALITY AND CULTURAL CHANGES

Another point of discussion is where changes are to be made in order to prevent workplace sexual harassment. From our philosophy of science, we distinguish between a collective and an individual and how the symbiose between these two become potent facilitators of norms and hierarchical orders in our society. As such, we recognize that is not necessarily the responsibility of only one individual, as much as it is also the responsibility of the whole

collective that for years have reproduced certain gender roles and stereotypes. These stereotypes (MacKinnon, 1979) have historically influenced women and men’s statuses in society and as a result, created the existing power differentials between men and women, where men have been the primary holders of power and capital. These gender roles have manifested themselves into various aspects of human and organizational life, and are correspondingly reproduced by both individuals and the whole collective. As such, societal norms influence individuals and the collective yet these norms exist only by virtue of those who reproduce them, and so they hold the power to transform society by refusing to reproduce societal norms and instead introduce new norms. Hence society influences individuals and the collective, yet they possess the abilities to change and influence society as well. (Egholm, 2014)

Thus, discussions of sexual harassment try to focus on and treat it as the behavior of one individual only, although we must come to discuss as a behavior that has been normalized by the collective and subsequently reproduced by individuals. Hence to effectively address workplace sexual harassment, society is in a great need of a cultural change, whereby we introduce new societal norms that promote gender equality. Ultimately, one can argue how gender inequality has been the root cause of existing dilemmas with sexual harassment, domestic violence, the gender pay gap, among other things.

X. LIMITATIONS

10.1 ORIGINAL IDEAS

In the course of producing this thesis, we encountered several problems, which forced us to change the direction and nature of the project. The first problem we encountered was when we decided on a direction of the thesis. Originally, we wanted to conduct an experimental research of a case (a company) and produce a seminar that would inform employees and management about the risks associated with a sexual harassment lawsuit, how to foster openness towards the topic and how to encourage employees to speak up in case it had happened to them. However, all of the companies that we reached out to either were not interested or, for the most part, did not respond to our inquiries. This forced us to consider other directions for the thesis, as our original idea seemed difficult to pull through without having permission. Finally, we decided to take the thesis in a different direction, as we researched more and saw a gap in the ways we research workplace sexual harassment in contemporary studies.
10.2 COVID-19

Moreover, we must address the elephant in the room which is the current ongoing pandemic. This has obviously posed challenges and limitations that we have had to overcome by changing and adapting to the current circumstances. This is specifically related to gaining access to companies, as most of them have been closed or under restrictions, which has limited our ability to collect and carry out in-person investigations and research. This has obviously been due to the potential risk of infection and government guidelines in place. For example, we considered to do our initial experimental research at a hospital, where a mutual contact would help us establish connection. However, she expressed how difficult it would be due to the immense pressure on hospital staff at that point in time, which inhibited us in conducting our research in collaboration with them. Subsequently, she proposed to contact students and educational institutions instead, but at that time, most teaching and lectures were carried out virtually and so again, it would be very challenging to conduct in-person research when no one was present.

LIMITATIONS IN OUR CURRENT STUDY

10.3 LACK OF EMPIRICAL DATA

One limitation that we recognize in our study is the lack of any empirical data that we have collected on our own, independently from previous research. Additionally, this goes hand in hand with our aforementioned theory of truth, the pragmatic theory of truth, which limits our propositions from holding any universal truth, but instead is up for personal judgement. Furthermore, we lack, not only empirical data that we ourselves have collected, but any replicable model or means of research whereby our claims can be replicated by others and subsequently verified or falsified. (Egholm, 2014)

10.4 LACK OF SURVEY STUDIES

Lastly, we must also consider the lack of contemporary survey studies on workplace sexual harassment in Denmark as a limitation as well. Subsequently, when there is very limited research on a specific topic, such as studies that address the methodological strengths and weaknesses of surveys on workplace sexual harassment, we as researches had to develop an almost entirely new research typology. Although there exists some geriatric research on this topic in American literature, there is very little to none prior research on this topic in a Danish
context, besides the publication by Borchorst and Augustín. This strongly reflects the need for further development in the area of study.

More generally, we came to a realization that survey studies that examine workplace sexual harassment are very few and far between, where most of the studies we came across have been conducted within the last 5-10 years. Thus we were not able to include more studies for comparison, simply because they are non-existing.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Ultimately, current survey designs are in great need of alteration. On the basis of our results, we believe that studies on workplace sexual harassment in Denmark, must adequately account and control for other variables and ways of formulating questions, than previously presumed.

- Instead of only asking generally whether an individual has experienced sexual harassment, surveys should also inquire into the different harassing behaviors they have experienced and how it was expressed i.e. verbal, non-verbal and physical.
- Moreover, future surveys should also control for other characteristics of the offended beyond age, gender, job status and their relationship to the harasser. What is meant by other characteristics, is ethnicity and sexual orientation.
- Additionally, future studies should also account for the severity of the incident(s) and how this has affected the offended in terms of consequences, such as deteriorating mental health, absenteeism and job turnover.
- Severity can more properly be assessed if more surveys continue to establish the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator, but also, how often these incidents occurred e.g. on a weekly or monthly basis.

10.5 OUR RESEARCH IN HINDSIGHT

If we had to construct our research differently, it would have been beneficial to test on our own, the effects of survey design. Virtually, this would mean that we would conduct our own survey and assess the effects of the aforementioned modifications e.g. the effects on prevalence when asking generally versus more intrinsically, how race affects the severity and type of behavior experienced and what consequences it had for the victim.
Another point of interest would have been to interview and discuss our findings with the individuals behind the studies, to gather exclusive background information about their studies respectively. Also, this opportunity would allow us to discuss our findings with them and how it virtually could be applied in theirs and other future surveys. For example, these interviews would be used to discuss whether there is even room in the NFA survey to include more questions in their sexual harassment category, as their study already asks 164 questions, or perhaps how they should be included and formulated in an entirely different survey.

10.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS AND POLITICS
Through the study program laid out during our Master’s degree, we have followed a similar path and branched out to different paths as well, which is reflected in our respective choice of stream courses in addition to electives chosen during our third semester. As such, this paper is a reflection of our Master’s degree, International Business and Politics.

Through the course of our program, we have been instructed to critically evaluate and assess secondary material, in addition to developing our ability to derive implications and formulate recommendations for action. Thus, it has forced us to improve our ability to make, evaluate, and reflect upon methodological choices, with regards to complex issues, centered at the intersection of international business and politics, through the use of quantitative and qualitative research methods.

Additionally, multinational corporations must also take into consideration, not only their market environments, but their non-market environments as well. By engaging in humanitarian actions, i.e. non-market strategies, firms may be able to alleviate some of the challenges of entering emerging markets in developing countries. (Hotho & Girschik, 2019)

Previously, we argued that sexual harassment is a universal phenomenon, but that the perception is contextually bound. As such, we consider sexual harassment, gender discrimination and equality to fall under the umbrella of non-market strategies. Therefore, internationally operating firms must take, not only sexual harassment in foreign markets into consideration, but the culturally bound perception of the phenomenon as well, and manage to develop appropriate non-market strategies that account for cultural differences, which is vital to their survival and success in other markets. On the same token, we must not neglect the importance of CSR and public image, which often go hand in hand, where internationally operating firms are expected to compensate for institutional voids and shortcomings to a much higher degree, especially in low-income countries and emerging markets. According to Khanna, Palepu & Sinha (2005) such institutional voids are evident not only in the procurement
of operations and supply chains, but certainly also in the protection of human rights and gender equality. Hence in places where sexual harassment and gender discrimination is poorly regulated, firms are increasingly expected to take it upon themselves to regulate and establish guidelines. Thus employers and organizations play an instrumental role in building respectful and gender-responsive workplace cultures, where in Denmark, sexual harassment is accounted for and equal rights are protected under numerous labor laws, but at the same time, Danish firms are also expected to develop guidelines of their own on top of the existing legal framework.

10.7 GLOBAL OUTLOOK
Although sexual harassment is evidently a widespread phenomenon in Denmark, it is particularly also an evident issue in other countries, especially those who lack the legal and institutional framework to safeguard individuals and workers appropriately as contended previously. In a study by the International Labor Organization, 65 countries of the 80 countries studies regulate sexual harassment. At the same time, Denmark rank among other countries where sexual harassment is the least prevalent, where countries such as Mexico, Australia and Finland rank the highest\(^40\). Hence globally, we are doing marginally “better” at preventing sexual harassment than other countries, which highlights the efficacy of our current laws and provisions, but in the light of the results from Danish studies, there is still plenty of room for improvements.

---

LITERATURE LIST

STUDIES


REFERENCES

A. Andersen et al. (2006) Ligestillingslovene med kommentarer, Vols I and II, Copenhagen


Egholm L. (2014) Philosophy of Science: Perspectives on Organisations and Society, Hans Reitzels Forlag


Friborg, K., Hansen, V., Aldrich, T., Folker, P., Kjær, S., Nielsen, D., Rugulies, R., Madsen, E. H. (2017), Workplace sexual harassment and depressive symptoms: a cross-sectional multilevel analysis comparing harassment from clients and customers to harassment from other employees amongst 7603 Danish employees from 1041 organization, BMC public health, 2017-09-25, Vol.17


Sørensen, M.L., (2018), *From #metoo to we do - Sådan gør du! En guide om forebyggelse og håndtering af seksuelle krænkelser*, Hartmanns A/S


NEWSPAPER ARTICLES AND WEBSITES

https://www.retsinformation.dk/eli/lta/2017/1084

https://www.retsinformation.dk/eli/lta/1992/1182

https://www.retsinformation.dk/eli/lta/2011/645


Brusgaard Christensen, Maiken. Published: 9th of April 2018, In: TV 2 Nyheder, visited 6th of May 2021.“LO: Arbejdsgiverne skal stilles ansvarlige for sexchikane”
Det Nationale Forskningscenter for Arbejdsmiljø, “Om undersøgelsen Arbejdsmiljø og Helbred”, visited 16th of January


“Hvem er HK’s medlemmer?”, visited: 21st of January 2021,

“3F kort fortalt”, visited 28th of January 2021,

“Profil af FOAs medlemmer”, published: 13th of October 2020, visited 21st of January

Sparre, Sofie. Published: 9th of April 2021, in: TV 2 Nyheder, visited: 29th of April 2021
Tove, Keldsen. Published: 8th of March 2018, In: YouGov, visited 29th of April 2021
“Mænd og kvinder splittede omkring MeToo-kampagnens effekt?”
