|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| ISSN (P): 2790-9859 (E) 2790-9867 | Date of Submission:02-09-23 |
| **DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.37605/ijpbr.v3i2.4> | Date of Acceptance: 01-11-23 |
|  | Date of Publication: Dec, 2023 |

**EXPLORING THE PHENOMENON OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN CONTEXT OF DRESSING AND NON-VERBAL EMOTIONAL CUES IN PAKISTANI CULTURE**

**Asfa Hanif,[[1]](#footnote-1) Dr. Naeem Aslam[[2]](#footnote-2)\*\* & Zainab[[3]](#footnote-3)\*\*\***

**Abstract**

*The purpose of this study is to discuss more understandable research that shows connections between sexual harassment, non-verbal emotional cues, and dressing. This is particularly crucial when there is a dearth of research that connects the connections and provides a thorough and analytical framework for analyzing the problem. The arguments in this study from a multidisciplinary approach provide fresh perspectives on the problem of sexual harassment in human civilization. Qualitative exploratory research by using focus group discussion and interviews was used to understand sexual harassment in context of dressing and non-verbal emotional cues and how is it misperceived in Pakistani culture. Systematic grounded theory emphasizes the use of data analysis in three phases; archival data from news-paper article and blogs, focus group discussion and interviews and it develops a logical paradigm or pictorial view of theory construction by using the themes and coding from all qualitative data. According to the findings the women are likely to become victims of sexual harassment on the basis their dressing and non-verbal emotional cues. These cues are visually perceived by the harasser, the environment of the victim and the harasser is different so encoding and decoding of the cues being misperceived that ultimately lead towards sexual harassment.*

**Key Words***:* *Sexual harassment, Dressing, Non-verbal emotional cues, Perception.*

# Introduction

Researchers interviewed 114 rapists who had been found guilty and discovered that 13% of them used the stereotype that women provoke or precipitate rape by the way they dress to defend their acts and disparage their victims (Steele, 2019). Mukesh Singh, one of the plaintiffs in the Dehli Rape case, had claimed that Jyoti's (the victim) dressing was to blame for the occurrence. Even so, no legal system in the world views the things that drive rapists to commit crimes as justification for them (Syed, 2021). These claims confirm the common misconception that women's dressing makes them more vulnerable to rape, assault, and sexual harassment (Capers, 2008). In context of Pakistan's, the cases of sexual harrasment are increasing day by day. Such increased rate of sexual harassment is frequently linked to women's dressing (or nudity). People who believe that deviating from religious ethics is the root of thier troubles have been debating it for ages. If we try to comprehend this issue, we might claim that if sexuality is ubiquitous in society, then vulgarity also must be (Syed, 2021). These claims against the victim can be found by harassers in Southeast Asian nations, particularly in Pakistan, and it is asserted that women who wear exposed dressing deserve to be harassed. Therefore, societal evidence with the prevalent public perception of people who wear skimpy dresses, it seems evident that somehow dressing is linked with sexual harassment whether it occurs in the West or Pakistan.

Dressing and nonverbal emotional cues in the context of sexual harassment are frequently neglected topics in the realm of information technology era. Their objective was to conduct qualitative research with human volunteers that help to explore the links between dressing, nonverbal emotional cues, and sexual harassment. Earlier scholars have studied empirical clothing investigations or done textual evaluations on such topics (Damhorst 1990; Johnson et al., 2014; Lennon et al., 2014; Oliver & Mahoney 1991; Twigg, 2007). This research, which has been available since 1990, has concentrated entirely or in part on human subjects' clothing studies. None of the feedback or content analyses particularly addressed studies utilizing qualitative in-depth studies that examined connections between clothing, non-verbal sentimental cues, and sexual assault, even though Lennon et al. (2014) mentioned that clothes signify information about various attributes of sex (such as possibility of sexual assault, sexual activity motives). So, this study will make an effort to provide evidence for the claims that dressing is a significant nonverbal communication element, that message senders think about how they want to appear when selecting a dress for and that message receivers interpret and evaluate what others are trying to communicate through their clothing which is most of the time is misinterpreted.

Sexual harassment pertains to unwanted sexual behaviors, including advances, requests for sexual favors, or any verbal or physical actions of a sexual nature, transpiring within professional, social, or workplace environments. Such behaviors contribute to an environment that is hostile or offensive to the individual experiencing them. Emotional cues, on the other hand, encompass non-verbal signals and expressions that convey a person's emotions, feelings, and psychological state. The linkage between sexual harassment and emotional cues lies in the impact of the former on the emotional well-being and psychological state of the victim. Research suggests that sexual harassment can evoke a range of emotional responses in victims, including fear, anxiety, shame, anger, and depression, which are often manifested through emotional cues such as changes in facial expressions, body language, tone of voice, and demeanor. These emotional cues serve as indicators of the distress and trauma experienced by victims of sexual harassment, highlighting the detrimental effects of such behavior on their mental and emotional health (Leskinen et al., 2011).

##  Sexual Harassment:

Sexual harassment refers to unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature in the workplace or other professional or social settings, which creates a hostile or offensive environment for the recipient (Soucek & Schultz, 2019). Uninvited sex-related focus, such as forced sex, unwanted sexual attention, and aggressive gender-focused behavior, is referred to as sexual harassment (Magley et al., 2016). Unwanted sexual attention (verbally or physically unwanted sexual advances, which can include abuse), sexual coercion (when favorable professional or educational treatment is conditional on sexual activity), and sexual objectification are all examples of sexual harassment. Sexual harassment also includes nonverbal behaviors that express hostility to, objectification of, exclusion of, or second-class status about members of one gender (Johnson et al., 2018).

Unlike sexual assault, sexual harassment covers a far wider spectrum of inappropriate sexual behavior. Unwanted sexual intimacy, such as grabbing, holding, or kissing, can be considered sexual harassment. However, physical touching or contact is not a need for sexual harassment to occur. Inappropriate jokes, sexual remarks, and the display of inappropriate material to you or others are additional examples. When someone engages in sexual conduct, such as caressing, kisses, sex acts, or vaginal penetration, they have been the victim of sexual assault.

## Experience of Harassment

The results demonstrate that assault of female responders is quite common. For instance, 85% of employed women, 82% of academics, and 67% of stay-at-home moms mentioned experiencing harassment while commuting in the preceding year. The majority of assaulted women are employed women, followed by students. Less than 25% of students and professional women reported never being the victim of harassment while commuting. 33% of housewives said they had never encountered such a situation. Due to their early ages and more frequent commuting, professional women and students may experience increased levels of harassment. The very worst violators in this respect are fellow travelers (75%) trailed by conductors of the bus (20%) and, in certain situations, even the driver of the bus (5 percent).

More than 90% of harassment incidents occur in buses, minibuses, and Chinggis (Asian Development Bank [ADB], 2014). About two-thirds of women respond to harassment orally, while the other third merely endure it. Nevertheless, some mothers and employed women retaliate physically. Students respond to criminals in such circumstances less severely than working women and homemakers do. When they grow afraid, they ignore these actions and escape. Rarely do women ask for help, particularly from the police. The typical response is verbal revenge, but occasionally people may have a physical reaction. In each of the categories of working women and homemakers, half of the respondents did not cite any immediate impact of such instances. They have grown accustomed to similar situations and have learned how to deal with them, they claim (Field & Vyborny, 2016).

Pakistani Context of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment has been identified as a pervasive instance of gender-based violence in Pakistan (US Department of State, 2017). Many Pakistanis believe that harassing women who venture outside of their homes and into the male-dominated public arena is appropriate (Noreen & Musarrat, 2013). When Pakistani women are out and about in public without a man with them, they frequently experience various types of sexual harassment (Haider & Mahsud, 2014; Asian Development Bank, 2014). The dread of being sexually abused or raped has been demonstrated to be the root of the impression that one is not safe in public areas (Fairchild & Rudman, 2008; Macmillan et al., 2000; Ilahi, 2009). The submissive position that women hold in Pakistani society is emphasized by stereotypes and attitudes toward women. Additionally, the fear of sexual harassment prevents women from advancing, obtaining an education, finding employment, or participating in politics (Ilahi, 2009; Crouch, 2009), which creates the gender disparity in society as well.

## Dressing

 What you wear communicates a message about who you are to others and to their self. The "psychology of dress" teach us that there is more to the garments we wear than meets the eye (Lopez, 2021). The impacts of clothing on image creation, attributions, and social perception, as well as the consequences of dress on actions, have been often studied by scholars who investigate the social psychology of clothing (Johnson et al. 2008). People's perceptions of others are significantly influenced by the circumstances in which clothing is observed (Damhorst, 1985) and also the characteristics of those who see how others are clothed (Burns & Lennon, 1993). But the correlation between clothes and perception goes far deeper than that. What you wear has a direct impact on their thoughts and behaviors. It also has an impact on how other people view their personality and actions. Clothing's social and psychological components are more connected than you may believe (Lopez, 2021).

People's perceptions of others are significantly influenced by the circumstances in which clothing is observed (Damhorst 1985) and also the characteristics of those who see how others are clothed (Burns & Lennon, 1993). But the correlation between clothes and perception goes far deeper than that. What you wear has a direct impact on their thoughts and behaviors. It also has an impact on how other people view their personality and actions. Clothing's social and psychological components are more connected than you may believe (Lopez, 2021).

Dressing in Pakistan is a deeply nuanced and multifaceted aspect of its culture, intricately woven with elements of tradition, religion, social expectations, and individual expression. Rooted in a rich tapestry of cultural diversity, various ethnicities contribute to a plethora of traditional attire, each reflecting unique heritage and regional identity. The influence of Islam underscores the importance of modesty, particularly for women, shaping the norms and guidelines for dressing. Social conventions further dictate acceptable standards of attire, with deviations often subject to scrutiny. Legal regulations exist in specific contexts, while economic factors play a role in accessibility to certain styles and brands. The interplay between globalization and traditional values has led to a fusion of modern and traditional fashion, catering to a diverse range of preferences. Dressing in Pakistan extends beyond mere clothing; it serves as a means of self-expression, celebration, and cultural pride, embodying the complexity and richness of Pakistani identity.

Dressing and Sexual Harassment:

Dress academics began examining how the pro-activeness of women's (revealing, seductive) attire contributed in the 1990s to sexual harassment or increased the likelihood that someone would experience sexual violence (Lewis & Johnson 1989; Workman & Orr 1996; Workman & Freeburg 1999; Johnson & Workman, 1994). Their findings demonstrated that dressing provocatively, revealing, transparent, or short dress, as well as heavily applying cosmetics (body alteration), were cues utilized to blame women for their sexual assault and encounters with sexual harassment. For instance, a study investigated the relationship between women's provocative dressing and the chance of sexual harassment. A model was pictured either in a provocative dress a dark hose, a knee-length skirt, a low-cut shirt, a dark suit jacket and, low-cut shirt—or in an equally provocative dress a skirt to knee length, dark suit jacket, a neutral hose, moderate heels, and high cut blouse. When the model was dressed provocatively compared to when she was not, it was shown that she was substantially more likely to invite and experience sexual harassment (Johnson & Workman, 1992).

Recent studies revived the topic of dressing and its association with sexual harassment. A study of Moroccan women's experiences with harassment revealed that the majority of them believed that wearing provocative dressing made them targets of street harassment and that receiving assistance from bystanders depended on how 'decently' they were dressed. The type and effectiveness of social and economic institutions play a multifaceted role in explaining how women came to acquire such an attitude (Chafai, 2021). Another study conducted in Ghana discovered that provocative clothing worn by female university students attracted male students and enhanced the likelihood of a promiscuous lifestyle on campus (Anku et al., 2018). A comparable study conducted in India indicated the idea that wearing provocatively and going out after dark enhances a woman's risk of being raped (Begum & Barn, 2019).

## Non-Verbal Emotional Cues

The creation and growth of the human community are impossible without communication. There is widespread agreement that the primary distinction between animals and humans is language (Berman, 2011). Through language, gesture, facial expression, and other means, people communicate with one another. As a result, by using these, people can better understand one another; communicate with one another, and eventually advance civilization (Wang, 2009). Emotional communication is essential for social interaction successfully. Emotional messages can be expressed verbally through word content or non-verbally by facial expressions, gestures, and tone of voice etc. These signals are combined into a single percept to gain the most reliable information about their communication partners' emotions, intentions, and attitudes (De Gelder & Bertelson, 2003; Ernst & Bülthoff, 2004). Humans may express their emotions in a variety of ways, including visually and audibly. For instance, unique face muscle rhythms can be used to represent different sentiments (Rosenberg, & Ekman, 2020). Additionally, there is proof that these "basic" facial expressions are understood by people from many cultural backgrounds (Russell 1994; Ekman, 1994; Elfenbein & Ambady 2002). Since it develops early in life, the capacity to integrate signals from several perceptual pathways would seem to be significant. Even at the age of seven months, newborns integrate emotional information from the voice and face (Grossmann et al., 2006). Nonverbal vocal analogs of the "basic" emotions such as aggression, anxiety, displeasure, grief, and amazement (Scott et al., 1997) and of positive emotional states were used in an examination of vocal expressions of feelings to identify the audio signals used for the perception of nonverbal emotional expressions like laughing and starts screaming (Ekman, 1992; Josephs, 2005; Sauter & Scott, 2007). Another study reveals that specific visual elements are employed to convey different emotional states in the face when it comes to perceptual processing, which may mirror potential visual qualities used in human perceptual processing (Calder et al., 2001).

### Linkage between Non-verbal Emotional Cues and Sexual Harassment

The chance of more socially undesirable behavior, such as sexual assault, may be increased by a number of personal and environmental circumstances, including misunderstandings about sexual intent (Farris et al., 2008). Misunderstandings and the conduct of sexual harassment and assault have been linked, in fact (Abbey et al., 2011). Abbey and colleagues (1998) found that male college students were more likely to engage in sexual aggression if they had previously misunderstood a woman's sexual purpose. Whilst sexual assault is generally perceived in solitude, nonconsensual experiences and the perpetuation of rape culture are often the results of sexual misinterpretations, frequently held by males against women.

It is implied that nonverbal emotional cues can be misinterpreted, which could result in sexual compulsion (Humphreys, 2007). It can be challenging to understand nonverbal emotional cues, whether they indicate permission or a desire to leave a harassing situation. Saying "yes" is seen as a more nuanced phenomenon than consent, which is viewed as either right or bad. Individuals utilize a variety of behaviors to convey their sexual consent. Direct non-verbal, indirect non-verbal, direct verbal, direct non-verbal, and no reaction were the five categories that the analysis identified as potentially expressing sexual consent (Humphreys, 2007). Without explicit consent being given, sexual activity continued, and when it was, it was typically given nonverbally (Hall, 1995).

***Method***

### Objectives

The Objective of the study were as follows.

1. To understand the role of dressing in increasing the likelihood of sexual harassment.
2. To understand the role of non-verbal emotional cue, increasing the likelihood of sexual harassment.
3. To understand the influence of victims’ dress in sexual harassment

### Research Design

Qualitative exploratory research was used to understand sexual harassment in context of dressing and non-verbal emotional cues and how is it misperceived in Pakistani culture. A systematic design of grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) was used. Systematic grounded theory emphasizes the use of data analysis in three phases and develops a logical paradigm or pictorial view of theory construction.

**Figure 1** *Research Design of Grounded Theory*



### Coding Process Grounded theory coding fosters studying actions and process. Coding is a vital link up between gathering data and constructing theory. Coding predicts what is happening in the data and begins to grapple with what it means. Coding process consists of three steps; first step is open coding here textual or transcribed data was cracked up into discrete parts these parts further excerpted into coding. The second step was axial coding which was done to draw connections between the codes and then made categories. These categories were actual Axial coding. The third step was to make central categories that connected all the codes of analysis, these codes were continuously compared with other excerpts until saturation. Selective codes were identified that made a clear link among all open and axial codes to capture the essence of the study into one core idea.

### *Theoretical* *Sampling* Theoretical sampling was employed in this research which is an integral part of grounded theory analysis. It comprises selecting participants centered on certain characteristics. In other words, theoretical sampling is a process of assembling, coding, and evaluating data in an instantaneous way to construct a theory.

## Description of Phases

 The study alienated into three phases initiating from archival data from newspapers articles and lasts at key informed interviews that lead towards theory formulation in chapter IV. The synopsis of each phase is as under.

Phase-I: Archival Data Sexual harassment in context of dressing is a highlighted phenomenon that is quite different from the west, so information was gathered from Pakistani newspapers. So, the analysis was done from newspapers and different online blogs to generate the foundation for focus group discussion on this topic.

Articles that were published in national newspapers and websites were analyzed. The newspaper articles were subjected to themes and categories were separated. These categories provided the base for further research.

**Phase-II: Focus Group Discussion** The second phase of the study was to held focus group discussion for further queries relevant to research. The focus group guide formed after through reading in phase-I. A semi structured tool was used to validate the already existed categories extracted from archival data and to investigate further the phenomenon. This formed the second phase of research. Focus group observed continuous comparison and category development to validate already existed categories and to find new areas that needed investigation about the phenomenon

Phase-III: InterviewsImplication of category comparison and theoretical sampling in focus group discussion led to expand the research to interviews for validation. While most of the categories were saturated in focus group discussions, validation of some required commitment of participants. Thus, that was the third phase of study.

##  Reliability

 To ensure the reliability of the study all major decisions were taken under the expert opinion of research supervisor. Furthermore, inter-rater reliability method was used to check the reliability of the codes generated in each phase of the study. Supervisor’s consultation was the only there for this phase because it was only used to generate the guide for focus group discussion that was the next phase of the study. In phase-II after increasing the number of ratters, percentage agreement between the ratters was calculated and reported. Phase-III was the confirmatory phase therefore, inter-rater reliability was not needed. this phase itself ensure the reliability and validity of themes and codes of phase-II. The new codes were added with consensus of experts.

# Theory Formulation

The previous three phases helped to identify the role of dressing and non-verbal emotional cues in sexual harassment. The phases also highlighted that the major role perception related to the dressing and non-verbal emotional cues in sexual harassment. It also identifies the process of coding and decoding of messages that are sent by the victims in form of dressing and non-verbal emotional cues and perceived by the harasser after receiving it. Additionally, it highlights the different environmental and cognitive factors that plays role in perception of victims and harassers as well. All these core categories and sub-categories combined to generate the model visual stimulation.

## Perceptual Model of Sexual Harassment

 Dressing and nonverbal emotional cues are the unifying theme in everyone's life; there is hardly any area of victims' and harassers' lives that is unrelated to it. The study of nonverbal emotional cues in humans is broad and involves research into the following areas: biological factors and the individual experiences and history; beliefs and attitudes of individuals (victims and harassers); objectification tendencies of society; provocativeness of dressing and its power dynamics; visual stimulation of dressing and nonverbal emotional cues (i.e., kinesics, paralinguistics etc.); symbolic representation of culture (i.e., cultural norms and values, social construction, Cultural Differences of non-verbal emotional cues) ; the perceptions towards dressing and non-verbal emotional cues; some situational factors; the precision with which people can employ nonverbal emotional cues and dressing to transmit intended meanings; and the precision with which people can interpret the meanings of other people's non-verbal emotional  cues.

 However, it is not entirely true to characterize the function of nonverbal emotional cues and attire in sexual harassment as everything but the language. The multifaceted interaction between nonverbal and verbal conduct influences a sender's (the victim's; who encodes the message) cognition and linguistic processes, as well as the conclusions formed by a perceiver (the harasser; who decodes the message). To comprehend transmitted meanings, non-verbal and verbal channels must frequently be addressed concurrently. Nonetheless, while a thorough knowledge of nonverbal emotional cues should include verbal conduct, this analysis concentrates solely on non-verbal emotional cues, especially conveyed through dressing.

 Although it is pivotal to connect non-verbal emotional cues to their projected or anecdotal meaning, it is evident that there is no dictionary of non-verbal cue meanings, because contextual factors such as victims' intentions (who is encoder), other (verbal and non-verbal) behaviors, and the environment factors which influence perception. Some distinct non-verbal emotional cues do have meanings that are shared by members of a specific cultural group; for example, silence of female in Pakistani society in considered her “yes” while it may be “no’ or confusion in other cultures. However, there are many non-verbal emotional cues who have distinct meanings because of the above-mentioned factors.

 The main focus of the study is on non-verbal emotional behavior and dressing of the victim that is encoded and, the decoding of that non-verbal emotional behaviors by the harasser, it includes both the harasser's interpretations and the accuracy of those interpretations The operational definition of nonverbal emotional cues depends on how they are processed or their influence on the harasser's who is perceiver. As a result, the difference between encoding and decoding is exploratory in nature.

## The non-verbal Emotional Cues that are sent: Encoding

 Non-verbal emotional cues of victims (i.e., eye contact, grin, dress color, etc.) can be intentional or unintentional, and can be instructive to both the victim who is transmitter and the harasser who is perceiver. Each nonverbal emotional cues of a victim have an informative value that may be reinforced, disputed, amplified, diminished, or not influenced at all by other victims’ non-verbal emotional cues. An encoded non-verbal emotional cue is a signal which may be problematic because the victims’ awareness (unconsciousness or habitual act) is hard to determine. Figure 5 assists as a perceptual model which findings are pertaining to non-verbal emotional cues and how they are encoded by the harassers.

Encoded information is divided into 4 different quadrants. Here we start to discuss the coding of quadrant 1, cues that are transmitted to some extent unconsciously to harasser and appear to be relatively static to them (such as appearance), which does not mean it is not moving. It refers to encoding of non-verbal emotional cues across different contexts. These non-verbal emotional cues may serve as possible signs of victims’ traits (such as gender, personality etc.). The center circle of the model describes the proximal and distal factors. Proximal factors included visual stimulation, Symbolic representation of culture etc. while distal factors included biological factors and attitudes and beliefs of the victim. These are the coding which are not under the control of the victim such as genetic factor it falls in quadrant 1.

Non-verbal emotional cues are existed in 2nd quadrant which are sometime under control like situational factor and sometimes not in control such as eye blinking or habitual gestures of hair fixing etc. Quadrant 3 represents the visual exposure such as cultural representation and visual stimulation of dressing and non-verbal emotional cues these are proximal factors such as the ability of victims to convey the message through dressing in a culture. Victim as sender in an environment consciously use dressing as a power dynamic or to be an object in an environment by wearing a provocative dress such as air hostess have to wear provocative dresses to show themselves a presentable look and to fulfill the objectification tendency of a society these are distal factors in quadrant 4.

## Non-verbal Emotional Cues that are received: Decoding

Encoding, as defined in the preceding section, relates to victims' non-verbal emotional cues that convey information. The decoding process is the understanding of nonverbal emotional cues. A harasser, for example, may assume that a victim is anxious because her smile is smirked and averted eyes during conversation. Such interpretations may be correct or incorrect. Victim cannot avoid speaking nonverbally since she may be misinterpreted by others. These cues may or may not be transmitted purposefully, and they may or may not be appropriately perceived, but they will have an influence on both actors (victims and harasser).

In addition to the conscious and unconscious variables outlined above and represented in Figure 2, decoding of non-verbal emotional cues may include both automatic and controlled cognitive components. Nonverbal emotional cues are perceived fast and processed outside of conscious awareness in the initial few seconds or even microseconds of communication, with little or no cognitive control. Several studies support this claim (Ambady2010, Lakin2006).

**Figure 2** *Perceptual Model of Sexual Harassment*



Messages are decoded by consciousness and cognitive restheirces throughout time. For example, early impression of red color of victim's dress may later modified after a live interaction between the victim and the harasser.  A harasser who believes that wearing red will attract him may subsequently rethink his opinion of boldness and bravery. Even yet, most of the rapid decoding process may occur unconsciously.

Similarly, to how diverse sender states influence nonverbal encoding, the same characteristics influence a perceiver's decoding process. The communication channel and elements of the conversation are two factors that might alter non-verbal emotional cues processing and dressing between a victim and a harasser. Harassers' characteristics and surroundings, such as mental situation, personality features, and family background, may also influence non-verbal emotional cues and consequent impression of dressing. Just as victims' encoded messages are influenced by the elements indicated in Figure 2, harassers' perceptions towards victims may different that is mainly based on how these same components interact in the harasser. In human perception, the function of nonverbal emotional cues in image creation is acknowledged, either implicitly or overtly. The Brunswik lens model is relevant in terms of people's perception processing and its components, nonverbal emotional cues, and dressing. Which are also essential aspects of perceptual model of sexual harassment.

Sexual harassment was analyzed in relation to the dressing and non-verbal emotional cues by analyzing non-verbal emotional communication, perception, and the final outcomes. The findings provided a rational description of the victim selection process, in which nonverbal emotional cues of victim and physical needs and desires of harasser play a major role.

It is assumed that the harasser would be able to comprehend the victims' nonverbal emotional cues and act on them. If the harasser can recognize victims' nonverbal emotional cues such as how they dress, then the female must have previously displayed similar cues. Thus, the encoding of socially taught, identity, or considered cues marks the beginning of the nonverbal emotional communication process between a potential victim and a harasser. The nature of these nonverbal emotional cues will depend on the behavior patterns that women have developed as a result of their experience-based learning.

Thus, the manipulation of physical and sexual attributes (dressing and bodily gestures) by a potential victim creates nonverbal emotional cues about the ideas, emotion, and insights connected to the stereotyping, traditional female role, a role in which the female has usually enjoy advancement and rewards. These messages are multidimensional in a way that they make various suggestions about traits connected to gender stereotyping, objectification tendencies, and conventional femininity. Additionally, these nonverbal emotional cues related to gender roles may clash with other nonverbal cues that simultaneously convey traits like economic position, age, or employment.

# Conclusions

It is concluded that the women are likely to become victims of sexual harassment on the basis their dressing and non-verbal emotional cues. As figured out in focus group discussions mostly victims of sexual harassment are submissive, hesitant, and mostly silent and try to avoid the sexual harassment. Harassers perceived females who wear attractive or provocative dressing and send non-verbal emotional cues are supposed to submissive, shy and silent in verbal communication and do not take actions against the harasser. These visual attributes of a woman’s potential of being victim of sexual harassment generates the visual perception of harasser towards victim. Consequently, colors of females’ dressing, style of dressing and their non-verbal emotional cues such as hesitant behaviors decode the message which are encode by the harasser and later misperceived due to multiple factors such as environmental difference which creates communication gap between the victim and harasser and ultimately lead them towards harasser.

## Implications

* The most important implication of the current study is to resolve the debate that is up surging about sexual harassment whose responsibility were putt on the shoulders of dressing and non-verbal emotional cues of females.
* The current study is the provision of quantitative basis for analysis. These qualitative findings can be used to form visual perception measurement scale towards sexual harassment. Furthermore, the theory can be put test after scale development.
* Moreover, it will help in developing the successful sexual harassment control program.
* The current research has suggested that the visual stimulation of non-verbal emotional cues including dressing increase a female’s risk of victimization. Therefore, it would be predicted that educational programs that teach nonverbal communication skills will lessen victimization risk. These exercises and instructions must help participants become mindful of their nonverbal emotional cues and body language so they may regulate and control these nonverbal messages deliberately.
* Awareness campaigns may be organized to dispel the myth that being provocative makes more vulnerable to victimization and to continue to highlight the connections between modest dressing, hesitant behavior, and sexual harassment victimization.

## Limitations and Suggestions:

* Study is qualitative in nature to generate a generalizability there is need to use in quantitatively in future.
* Sample is taken form general population and the alleged harassers. The opinion of confirmed victims is still missing. In future opinion of victims can be included. The samples of interviewers who are harassers are also small.

**References**

Abbey, A., Jacques Tiura, A. J., & Le Breton, J. M. (2011). Risk factors for sexual aggression in young men: An expansion of the confluence model. *Aggressive behavior*, *37*(5), 450-464.

Abbey, A., McAuslan, P., & Ross, L. T. (1998). Sexual assault perpetration by college men: The role of alcohol, misperception of sexual intent, and sexual beliefs and experiences. *Jtheirnal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *17*(2), 167.

Ali, F., & Kramar, R. (2015). An exploratory study of sexual harassment in Pakistani organizations. *Asia Pacific Jtheirnal of Management*, *32*(1), 229-249.

Ambady, N., & Weisbuch, M. (2010). Nonverbal behavior.

Anku, J., Danso, D. K., & Kuwornu-Adjaottor, J. E. (2018). Effects Of Women’s Seductive Dressing On Men’s Behavitheir And Judgement: A Study In Selected Universities In Ghana. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Jtheirnal*, *5*(2).

Anwar, F., Österman, K., & Björkqvist, K. (2019). Three types of sexual harassment of females in public places in Pakistan. *Çağdaş Tıp Dergisi*, *9*(1), 65-73.

Asian Development Bank. (2014, July). *Rapid assessment of sexual harassment in public transport and connected spaces in Karachi* (No. 44067). Pilot project final report. Manila, Philippines: Social Policy and Development Centre (SPDC).

Begum, L., & Barn, R. (2019). Crossing boundaries: bras, lingerie and rape myths in postcolonial urban middle-class India. *Gender, Place & Culture*, *26*(10), 1324-1344.

Berman, R. A. (2011). The real language crisis. *Academe*, *97*(5), 30-34.

Burns, L. D., & Lennon, S. J. (1993). Effect of clothing on the use of person information categories in first impressions. *Clothing and Textiles Research Jtheirnal*, *12*(1), 9-15.

Calder, Andrew J., A. Mike Burton, Paul Miller, Andrew W. Young, and Shigeru Akamatsu. "A principal component analysis of facial expressions." *Vision research* 41, no. 9 (2001): 1179-1208.

Capers, I. B. (2008). Cross dressing and the criminal. *Yale JL & Human.*, *20*, 1.

Caracci, G. (2003). Violence against women: Mental health and the United Nations. *International Jtheirnal of Mental Health*, *32*(1), 36-53.

Chafai, H. (2021). Everyday gendered violence: women’s experiences of and disctheirses on street sexual harassment in Morocco. *The Jtheirnal of North African Studies*, *26*(5), 1013-1032.

Corbin, J.M. and Strauss, A., 1990. Grounded theory research: Procedures, canons, and evaluative criteria. *Qualitative sociology*, *13*(1), pp.3-21.

Crouch, M. (2009). Sexual harassment in public places. *Social Philosophy Today*, *25*, 137-148.

Damhorst, M. L. (1990). In search of a common thread: Classification of information communicated through dress. *Clothing and Textiles Research Jtheirnal*, *8*(2), 1-12.

De Gelder, B., & Bertelson, P. (2003). Multisensory integration, perception and ecological validity. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, *7*(10), 460-467.

Ekman, P. (1992). An argument for basic emotions. *Cognition & emotion*, *6*(3-4), 169-200.

Ekman, P. (1994). Strong evidence for universals in facial expressions: a reply to Russell's mistaken critique.

Elfenbein, H. A., & Ambady, N. (2002). On the universality and cultural specificity of emotion recognition: a meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, *128*(2), 203.

Ernst, M. O., & Bülthoff, H. H. (2004). Merging the senses into a robust percept. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, *8*(4), 162-169.

Fairchild, K., & Rudman, L. A. (2008). Everyday stranger harassment and women’s objectification. *Social Justice Research*, *21*(3), 338-357.

Farris, C., Treat, T. A., Viken, R. J., & McFall, R. M. (2008). Perceptual mechanisms that characterize gender differences in decoding women's sexual intent. *Psychological Science*, *19*(4), 348-354.

Field, E., & Vyborny, K. (2016). Female labor force participation in asia: Pakistan country study. *Background report. Asian Development Bank, Manila*.

Grossmann, T., Striano, T., & Friederici, A. D. (2006). Crossmodal integration of emotional information from face and voice in the infant brain. *Developmental Science*, *9*(3), 309-315.

Haider, S. I., & Mahsud, N. K. (2014). Knowledge, attitude, and practices of violence (A study of university students in Pakistan). *Jtheirnal of Sociology and Social Work, March*, *2*(1), 123-145.

Hall, J. A., Coats, E. J., & LeBeau, L. S. (2005). Nonverbal behavior and the vertical dimension of social relations: a meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, *131*(6), 898.

Humphreys, T. (2007). Perceptions of sexual consent: The impact of relationship history and gender. *Jtheirnal of Sex Research*, *44*(4), 307-315.

Ilahi, N. (2009). Gendered contestations: An analysis of street harassment in Cairo and its implications for women’s access to public spaces. *Surfacing: An Interdisciplinary Jtheirnal for Gender in the Global South*, *2*(1), 56-69.

Johnson, K. K., & Workman, J. E. (1992). Clothing and attributions concerning sexual harassment. *Home Economics Research Jtheirnal*, *21*(2), 160-172.

Johnson, K. K., & Workman, J. E. (1994). Blaming the Victim: Attributions Concerning Sexual Harassment Based on Clothing, Just‐World Belief, and Sex of Subject. *Home Economics Research Jtheirnal*, *22*(4), 382-400.

Johnson, K. K., Yoo, J. J., Kim, M., & Lennon, S. J. (2008). Dress and human behavior: A review and critique. *Clothing and Textiles Research Jtheirnal*, *26*(1), 3-22.

Johnson, K., Lennon, S. J., & Rudd, N. (2014). Dress, body and self: Research in the social psychology of dress. *Fashion and Textiles*, *1*(1), 1-24.

Johnson, P. A., Widnall, S. E., & Benya, F. F. (2018). Sexual harassment of women. *Climate, culture, and consequences in academic sciences, engineering, and medicine. Washington: National Academy of Sciences*.

Lennon, S. J., Johnson, K. K., Noh, M., Zheng, Z., Chae, Y., & Kim, Y. (2014). In search of a common thread revisited: What content does fashion communicate?. *International Jtheirnal of Fashion Design, Technology and Education*, *7*(3), 170-178.

Lewis, L., & Johnson, K. K. (1989). Effect of Dress, Cosmetics, Sex of Subject, and Causal Inference on Attribution of Victim Responsibility1. *Clothing and Textiles Research Jtheirnal*, *8*(1), 22-27.

Leskinen, E. A., Cortina, L. M., & Kabat, D. B. (2011). Gender harassment: broadening our understanding of sex-based harassment at work. *Law and human behavior*, *35*(1), 25.

Lopez, C. (2021, May 13). *Look Good, Feel Great: The Psychology Of Clothing*. Current Boutique.<https://currentboutique.com/blogs/cravingcurrent/psychology-of-clothing>

Macmillan, R., Nierobisz, A., & Welsh, S. (2000). Experiencing the streets: Harassment and perceptions of safety among women. *Jtheirnal of research in crime and delinquency*, *37*(3), 306-322.

Magley, V. J., Fitzgerald, L. F., Salisbury, J., Drasgow, F. R. I. T. Z., & Zickar, M. J. (2016). Changing sexual harassment within organizations via training interventions: Suggestions and empirical data. In *The Fulfilling Workplace* (pp. 245-266). Routledge.

Noreen, N., & Musarrat, R. (2013). Protection of women rights through legal reforms in Pakistan. *Jtheirnal of Public Administration and Governance*, *3*(4), 119-142.

Oliver, B. A., & Mahoney, M. Y. (1991). The clothing and textiles research jtheirnal: An empirical examination. *Clothing and Textiles Research Jtheirnal*, *9*(3), 22-27.

Rosenberg, E. L., & Ekman, P. (Eds.). (2020). *What the face reveals: Basic and applied studies of spontaneous expression using the Facial Action Coding System (FACS)*. Oxford University Press.

Russell, J. A. (1994). Is there universal recognition of emotion from facial expression? A review of the cross-cultural studies. *Psychological bulletin*, *115*(1), 102.

Saguy, A. (2003). *What is sexual harassment?: From Capitol Hill to the Sorbonne*. Univ of California Press.

Sauter, D. A., & Scott, S. K. (2007). More than one kind of happiness: Can we recognize vocal expressions of different positive states?. *Motivation and Emotion*, *31*(3), 192-199.

Scott, S. K., Young, A. W., Calder, A. J., Hellawell, D. J., Aggleton, J. P., & Johnsons, M. (1997). Impaired auditory recognition of fear and anger following bilateral amygdala lesions. *Nature*, *385*(6613), 254-257.

Soucek, B., & Schultz, V. (2019). Sexual harassment by any other name. *U. Chi. Legal F.*, 227.

Steele, M. (2019, December 12). *“She was asking for it.” - MYTHBUSTING THE BULLSHIT*. Medium. <https://medium.com/anti-anti-science/she-was-asking-for-it-e40a12dde7c7>

Syed, Dr. A. A. (2021, June 26). *Gender, Crime and Recidivism*. HumSub. [https://www.humsub.com.pk/401934/%d8%ac%d9%86%d8%b3%d8%8c-%d8%ac%d8%b1%d8%a7%d8%a6%d9%85-%d8%a7%d9%88%d8%b1-%d8%aa%da%a9%d8%b1%d8%a7%d8%b1%e2%80%8e%e2%80%8e/?fbclid=IwAR0lP2ZMuZf0NilKDKL3COtDMAoAJDQBgQVtA8Cg1wyc4LMs-PI16KqUo-Y](https://www.humsub.com.pk/401934/%D8%AC%D9%86%D8%B3%D8%8C-%D8%AC%D8%B1%D8%A7%D8%A6%D9%85-%D8%A7%D9%88%D8%B1-%D8%AA%DA%A9%D8%B1%D8%A7%D8%B1%E2%80%8E%E2%80%8E/?fbclid=IwAR0lP2ZMuZf0NilKDKL3COtDMAoAJDQBgQVtA8Cg1wyc4LMs-PI16KqUo-Y)

Twigg, J. (2007). Clothing, age and the body: a critical review. *Ageing & Society*, *27*(2), 285-305. US Department of State. Pakistan 2017 human rights report. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/277535.pdf>

Wang, H. (2009). Nonverbal communication and the effect on interpersonal communication. *Asian Social Science*, *5*(11), 155-159.

Workman, J. E., & Freeburg, E. W. (1999). An examination of date rape, victim dress, and perceiver variables within the context of attribution theory. *Sex Roles*, *41*(3), 261-277.

Workman, J. E., & Johnson, K. K. (1991). The role of cosmetics in attributions about sexual harassment. *Sex Roles*, *24*(11), 759-769.

Workman, J. E., & Orr, R. L. (1996). Clothing, sex of subject, and rape myth acceptance as factors affecting attributions about an incident of acquaintance rape. *Clothing and Textiles Research Jtheirnal*, *14*(4), 276-284.

1. Mphil Scholar National Institue of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University Islamabad, Pakistan. Co-respondance Author: asfach6@gmail.com. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. \*\* Assisstant Prof, National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, Pakistan. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. \*\*\* Mphil Scholar National Institue of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University Islamabad, Pakistan. [↑](#footnote-ref-3)