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**Sexual Harassment from Men and Women in Sport  
toward Females in three European Countries**

Kari Fasting

Norwegian School of Sport Sciences, Oslo, Norway

Stiliani Chroni

University Of Thessaly, Trikala, Greece

Stein Egil Hervik

Hedmark University College, Norway

Nada Knorre

Czech Olympic Committee, Czech Republic

Address Correspondence to:

Professor Kari Fasting  
Norwegian School of Sport Sciences  
P.B. 4014 Ullevål Stadion  
0806 OSLO  
Norway

Phone: (47) 23 26 2405

Fax: (47) 23 26 24 1

E-mail: [kari.fasting@nih.no](mailto:kari.fasting@nih.no)

**Abstract**

This article presents data from a cross-cultural study titled *Gender Relations in Sport – The Experiences of Czech, Greek, and Norwegian Female Sport Students*. The main research question asked is: Are there any differences in experiences of sexual harassment from men and women between female sport students in Czech Republic, Greece, and Norway? Women (N = 616) who were studying in sport departments of academic institutions in the three countries participated in the study. The results show that 34% of the students had experienced sexually harassing behavior from a man and 12% from a woman. Experience of sexually harassing behaviors from both men and women were reported more often in Czech Republic and Greece than in Norway. The form of sexual harassment the participants reported experiencing the most was ‘repeated unwanted sexual glances, etc.’ (22%). The difference between female and male harassment is discussed in relation to patriarchal power. The overall differences between countries are discussed in relation to the three countries’ gender order, gender equality laws as well as the anti-sexual harassment laws inside and outside sport organizations.

**KEY WORDS:** *Sexual harassment, women students, sport, Europe, cross-cultural study*

Research on sexual harassment was primary undertaken in the workplace and in the educational setting where it appears to be very widespread (Stockdale, 1996). Different European studies place the proportion of women experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace between 45 and 81%, but those actually reporting their experiences are only between 5 and 22% (International, Regional, and National Developments in the Area of Violence Against Women 1994-2003, 2003). In spite of the fact that research on sexual harassment has taken place since the 1970's, it is still in many European countries an under-researched area, which is also the case for research on sexual harassment in the sport domain.

This article presents some data from a larger cross-cultural research project that took place in three European countries which differed in relation to the gender order, gender equality laws, educational system, way sport is organized and managed, as well as in relation to anti-sexual harassment laws that are in effect. Results from one of the areas explored are presented in here, answering the question: *What is the amount and the forms of male and female sexual harassment experienced in a sport setting by female sport students in Czech Republic, Greece, and Norway?*

It is almost impossible to compare sexual harassment prevalence rates internationally due to: differences in sampling procedures, methodological approaches, vocabulary and connotative meaning of questionnaire items, anonymity and confidentiality of disclosures, statistical analyses employed, etc. (Barak, 1997). But based on studies that used the same survey instruments on European and American samples, Kaupinen-Toropainen and Gruber (1993) concluded that Americans appear to have fairly higher rates of harassment than Europeans, particularly in comparison to Scandinavian countries. This was explained by the fact that Scandinavia has overall the most operational gender equality provisions and Scandinavian women have had

greater labor force participation and income parity than American women. One would therefore expect differences in the prevalence of sexual harassment among sporting women in various countries due to differences in the gender order and equal rights legislations, as well as in relation to whether sexual harassment is prohibited by law either in society at large or by sport specific laws.

### **Gender order, gender equality, and sexual harassment laws in Czech Republic, Greece, and Norway**

Gender relations as an organizational principle permeate all spheres of public life in all countries, but the way gender is played out in practice varies between and within countries. According to the database on gender statistics from the United Nations Economical Commission for Europe, there are large gender differences concerning women's involvement in politics between the three countries participating in this study. The percentages of women in the parliament for example reveal that Norway (36%) has twice as high female representation than Czech Republic (16%) and Greece (15%) (UNECE, 2008). A skewed gender distribution can also be observed in sport organizations. Looking at the three countries' National Olympic Committees' executive boards, there is no female member in Greece, there is one member in Czech Republic and four in Norway. The Norwegian Olympic Committee, in 2008, elected a female president for the first time in history.

The Norwegian parliament adopted a Gender Equality Act in 1978. The law is based on the principle of non-discrimination, which is the cornerstone and basis for promoting gender equality. Greece passed its gender equity law in 1984 (1426/84), adhering to the 1982 United Nation's treaty for eliminating all forms of discrimination against women. There is no

specialized gender equality legislation in the Czech Republic, although references to gender equality appear in the Constitution and the Labor Code (Gender Equality in Czech Republic, 2009). Both Greece (from 1981) and the Czech Republic (from 2004) are members of the European Union. Czech researchers have focused on EU-membership as the most prominent tool for improving the situation (Marksova-Tominova 2003). Vesinova-Kalivodova (2005) characterized Czech Republic both as a post-communist and pre-feminist society and emphasized the fact that substantial differences exist between *new* and *old* democracies in relation to the EU and its policy on gender equality.

In May 2002, the European Union Council and Parliament amended a Directive on the equal treatment of men and women in employment that prohibited sexual harassment in the workplace as a form of sex discrimination and violation of dignity. This directive required all member states of the EU (including the countries acceding to EU in 2004) to adopt laws on sexual harassment or amend existing laws to comply with the directive by November 2005 (European Parliament, 2002). By defining sexual harassment as sex discrimination, the directive provided a gender-specific term linking sexual harassment to gender inequality (Zippel, 2006).

In the Czech Republic an amendment to the labor code took legal effect in 2004. In 2006, the Greek Ministry of Employment and Social Protection passed a bill (3488/2006) that pronounces sexual harassment as illegal and intends to punish those found guilty of sexual harassment in the workplace. In Norway the labor law has had a paragraph concerning sexual harassment since 1978. In 2002 the Norwegian Gender Equity Act was revised and a new paragraph concerning sexual harassment was added. This made sexual harassment illegal not only in the workplace but also in the educational system, voluntary organizations and institutions, including sports organizations. To summarize, only Norway has a Gender Equity

Act that forbids sexual harassment to take place in other arenas than workplace, such as educational institutions and sports. Concerning sport organizations neither Czech Republic, nor Greece or Norway have a code of conduct for coaches or policy/action plans to prevent sexual harassment in sport. However, since 2003 the Norwegian Olympic Committee has adopted some anti-sexual harassment guidelines.

### **Prevalence of Sexual Harassment**

*Sexual harassment in the general population and among students in Czech Republic, Greece and Norway*

Common for all three countries participating in this project is that very few studies have measured the prevalence of sexual harassment either in the general population or among students. A 2005 survey by the *Sociological Institute of the Czech Academy of Sciences* revealed that 28% of the female population had experienced either sexual harassment personally (13%) or was aware of its occurrence in their workplace (15%). Vaskova (2006) pointed out that both older and current sociology research shows a certain tolerance of mild forms of sexual harassment as characteristic of the Czech society. For example, about two thirds of the population has encountered jokes with sexual connotations or comments about their private lives during their careers in the workplace; and more than half of the working population has heard conversations involving sexual innuendo (Křížková et al., 2005, cited in Vaskova, 2006). Nevertheless, many Czech female employees seemed to not consider these types of behavior as discriminatory or degrading.

In Greece, the only nationwide survey of 1,200 working women revealed that 15% of them were aware of women within their family, friends, and/or colleagues who had experienced

sexual harassment (Artinopoulou and Papatheodorou, 2004). Moreover, 10% of them had experienced harassing behaviors themselves. According to Artinopoulou and Papatheodorou (2004) sexual harassment in Greece is still treated as a societal taboo.

A Norwegian study among 2,539 employees, ages 18-65, found that 18.4% had experienced sexual harassment behaviors within the last month. For women under 36 years of age the percentage was 26.4. Three times as many women as men had experienced sexual harassment. Considering the results from other European studies, the authors concluded that Norwegians experience less sexual harassment at work compared to other European countries, although comparisons were difficult due to differences in measurement (Einarsen et al., 2007).

Concerning students' experiences of sexual harassment we also found very few studies in these three countries. In 1996 a survey was carried out among 311 fifth year medical students at Charles University in Prague, where 66% of the female students reported experiences of sexual harassment and abuse (Rabock, 1996). A study in Greece involving 186 female university students found that 75% of them had been harassed by men through conversations with sexual innuendos while 20% had harassed men through conversations with sexual innuendos (Mitsopoulou et al., 2005). In 1994 a survey was conducted among all graduate students (N = 716) at the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Oslo. Among the female students, 11% had experienced unwanted sexual attention from a teacher or supervisor (Likestillingsutvalget UiO, 1994).

### *Sexual harassment inside sports*

Concerning the countries participating in this study, we did not find any studies on sexual harassment in sport in Greece. In Norway a total of 660 elite female athletes aged between 15



and 39, participated in a research project concerning sexual harassment. Twenty-eight percent of the athletes had experienced sexual harassment from someone inside sport (Fasting et al., 2000). In the Czech Republic, of 595 female athletes and exercisers who answered a structured questionnaire, 45% reported experiences of some form of sexual harassment in a sport setting (Fasting and Knorre, 2005).

In general, one can state that very few large-scale studies have been carried out to explore the prevalence of sexual harassment in sport. Yet studies from other countries show that the prevalence rate of unwanted sexual experiences among female athletes varies between 2 and 50% (Lackey 1990; Volkwein et al., 1997; Yorganci 1993; Kirby et al., 2000; Toftegård Nielsen 2001; Feigin and Haneby 2001; Leahy et al., 2002; Vanden Auweele et al., 2008). As mentioned before these figures are difficult to compare due to differences in the way sexual harassment was defined and measured.

Most studies inside sports have surveyed female athletes' experiences of sexual harassment from a male perpetrator (coaches and/or peer-athlete). Some studies have included both male and female athletes (Holman 1995; Kirby et al., 2000; Leahy et al., 2002), but alike studies conducted outside the sport setting, the results show that the perpetrator is most often a man (Gruber and Morgan, 2005). The experiences of sexual harassment among male athletes appear to be a very under researched area. Last but not least, there is inadequate knowledge about same-sex female harassment.

Taking into account the absence of knowledge on sexual harassment experienced in the general population, among students, and athletes in the Czech Republic, Greece, and Norway, the research questions asked in this article, are:

1. *Are there any differences between the experiences of sexual harassment from men and from women for female sport students in the Czech Republic, Greece, and Norway?*
2. *Are there any differences between the three countries concerning the forms of sexual harassment experienced from men and women?*

## **Methodology**

### *The problem of defining and measuring sexual harassment*

According to Gruber and Fineran (2008), sexual harassment was originally formulated as a behavior by males who used organizational power or cultural privilege to coerce sexual favors from women. This initial formulation has expanded both theoretically and legally over the decades to include gender- or sexually-focused behaviors by men, and more recently, same-sex harassment involving the use of sexual threats, taunts or attacks.

Sexual harassment is a difficult term to define and therefore also to measure. Central in most definitions is that the behavior experienced is unwanted or threatening, troublesome, insulting or offensive. A frequently used model was developed by Fitzgerald et al., (1995) who classified sexually harassing behaviors into three related yet conceptually distinct dimensions: gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion. *Gender harassment* refers to a broad range of verbal and nonverbal behaviors not aiming at sexual cooperation but conveying insulting, hostile, and degrading attitudes about women. *Unwanted sexual attention* refers to a wide range of verbal and non-verbal behaviors that are offensive, unwanted, and unreciprocated, whereas *sexual coercion* refers to the extortion of sexual cooperation in return for job-related considerations.

A problem often discussed in the sexual harassment research is that women will report experiencing unwanted sexually harassing behaviors, but not label those experiences as sexual harassment (Welsh et al., 2006). For example, in a comparative study among American, Brazilian, Canadian, and Israeli female students there was a huge discrepancy between the prevalence of sexual harassment objectively (also often referred to as legally) and subjectively defined and measured (Barak, 1997). Overall, 89.3 % of Brazilians experienced sexual harassment in comparison to 72.8 % of the Americans. When the same students reported their experiences subjectively by answering the question: “Have you been sexually harassed?” the percentages dropped to 6.1 among the Brazilians and to 4.4 among the Americans. Therefore, it seems important not to use the term “sexual harassment”, as doing so leads to significantly lower estimates of experiences that could otherwise be deemed “sexual harassment” according to theoretical or legal definitions (Fitzgerald and Shullman 1993). Accordingly, it was particularly important for us to measure the participants objectively experienced behaviors. We therefore asked the students if they had ever experienced the following situations:

- a) *Unwanted physical contact, body contact (for example pinching, hugging, fondling, being kissed against your will, etc).*
- b) *Repeated unwanted sexually suggestive glances, comments, teasing and jokes, about your body, your clothes, your private life, etc.*
- c) *Ridiculing of your sport performance and of you as an athlete because of your gender or your sexuality (for example ‘Soccer is not suitable for girls’).<sup>1</sup>*

For each of these questions, participants were asked to indicate whether they had experienced it from a male or female coach, a male or female peer-athlete, a male or female member of the sport management team. In presenting the results, *experiences of sexual*

*harassment from someone in sport* means that a respondent has marked one or more of these categories. It does not indicate the severity, frequency or total number of these experiences.

### *Participants and Procedures*

Women who at the time of data collection were studying in sport departments of academic institutions participated in this study. The participants had been either in the past or were still physically active in sports. They were therefore considered to be valuable sources of knowledge concerning experiences in a sport setting. The total number of participants was 616; of which 214 were students from the Czech Republic, 209 from Greece and 193 from Norway. The students were recruited from all of the universities where it is possible to study sports in the Czech Republic (3) and in Greece (4). The participants from Norway were recruited from four colleges. Nearly all of the participants were working towards their bachelor degree in physical education and sport sciences. Ages ranged from 17 to 45 years with a mean of 21.75 ( $SD = 2.98$ ).

The data were gathered through a questionnaire that originally was written in English and then translated to the Czech, Norwegian, and Greek languages using back to back translation procedures to ensure that content-wise all three versions were accurate. Data gathering was carried out at the students' respective institutions in order to obtain the highest possible answering rate and to accommodate all participants' questions and uncertainties. Confidentiality was secured for the participants through anonymity<sup>2</sup>. The results are presented in such a way that it would be impossible to recognize any individual, university or specific sport. The questions were coded and analyzed using SPSS.XV for Windows. Descriptive statistics and cross-tabulations were generated. The connection between the three countries was tested by *chi-square tests*. Testing for difference between the forms of sexual harassment and between experience

from women and men was carried out by the use of a nonparametric binomial test. This is an exact test of the statistical significance of deviation from one distribution of observations in a category compared with the distribution of observations in another.

Doing cross-cultural research is particularly challenging in relation to methodology. One factor that might have influenced the validity and reliability of our study is that we gathered data in three different languages. To ensure that the questions asked in each country meant the same, we used a significant amount of time in preparing the questionnaire, particularly discussing the meaning of each question, as some words had more than one meaning in another language.

Underreporting is a typical problem with themes such as sexual harassment and may have also occurred in this study. The impact of sexual harassment, even in its lighter form, can still be severe (Fasting et al., 2002). Many victims suffer from guilt and shame. This can lead to underreporting because one may not feel comfortable in disclosing sexually harassing experiences on a questionnaire. In addition, it should be mentioned that respondents were asked to report on their past experiences. Hence, the possibility that experiences of sexual harassment were forgotten or suppressed also exists.

## **Results**

Overall, 37% of the students reported having experienced one or more forms of sexual harassment from someone in sport. About three times more often, they reported experiences from a man (34%) than from a woman (12%). Statistically significant differences were observed between the three countries ( $p < .05$ ) either the harasser was a woman or a man. Table 1<sup>3</sup> shows that the Norwegian students reported the least experiences of sexual harassment in sport (24%), followed by the Czech and the Greek female students (42 and 44% respectively). A similar

tendency was found regarding the students' experiences from female and male harassers separately. The highest percentage was found among the Greek students who had experienced male harassment (40%) and the lowest among the Norwegians that had experienced female harassment (5%).

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Insert Table 1 about here

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The form of sexual harassment from someone in sport that the participants reported experiencing the most was 'repeated unwanted sexual glances, etc.' (22%). Nineteen percent of the sample reported experiencing 'ridicule' and 16% reported 'unwanted physical contact' experiences. Similar differences between the countries as found in Table 1 for the overall experiences of sexual harassment, can be seen for each of the different forms (Table 2). The Norwegian students have experienced the least compared to the two other countries in all three forms. The difference between the countries concerning 'ridicule' is however not statistically significant. Table 2 also reveals that 'unwanted glances etc.,' is the form of sexually harassing behavior which contributes most to the overall differences found between Norway and the two other countries which was presented in Table 1.

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Insert Table 2 about here

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Similar differences between the countries are found when we analyze sexually harassing forms from male and female harasser separately. Among those that have been harassed by a woman the numbers become very small so they have to be interpreted with cautiousness. Yet the

tendency is the same as in Tables 1 and 2. Norwegians have experienced less sexual harassment than the students from the two other countries, while all participants have been harassed more often from a man than from a woman. The highest percentage from a male harasser is the experience of 'unwanted sexually glances etc.' in Czech Republic (28%), while from a female harasser is 'unwanted physical contact' in Greece (9%). Leaving aside the between the countries differences, one observes that the largest overall gender difference is found for the category 'repeated unwanted sexual glances, etc.', where 20% have experienced it from a man and 6% from a woman in a sport setting.

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Insert Figure 1 about here

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## **Discussion and Conclusions**

Timmerman and Bajema (1999) reported in a European review study that the prevalence of sexual harassment in the workplace in Western and Northern European countries varied from 9 to 90%. It also varied to the same extent within a country among different studies, depending on the sample and the way the questions are asked. In reviewing sexual harassment studies among the three countries participating in our study this was also true. Therefore, we considered unsuitable and non-meaningful the discussion of our findings in relation to results from studies presented earlier. The advantage of the present study is that an identical methodological approach was used in all three countries. Two major conclusions can so far be drawn from the study: Female sport students in the Czech Republic and Greece have experienced sexually harassing behaviors in sport more often than female sport students in Norway. This is a fact

whether the harasser is a man or a woman, independent of the forms of sexually harassing behavior. Furthermore, male sexual harassment is experienced much more often by all students than female harassment.

As indicated earlier, societal gender equity rights, as well as sexual harassment laws and/or policies that are in effect, may be crucial parameters in relation to the prevalence of sexual harassment. In this study, the participating countries' equity rights and sexual harassment laws differ greatly. Timmermann (2005) referring to a comparative study on gender equality work in the EU, conducted by Plantenga and Hansen (2001), pointed the fact that Greece was one of the countries with the lowest scores. The long standing gender equality work in Norway outside sport and to a certain degree in sport, may therefore contribute to the fact that Norwegian students had experienced less sexual harassment than students in the two other countries. These differences reinforce our assumption that women's experiences of sexual harassment in a country may be linked to their status in society. However, to have equal rights and harassment legislations in place does not guarantee a non-harassing environment, even though it may prevent some harassment from occurring, and as such it may contribute to the interpretation of the differences found between the three countries. Consequently, a significant question is raised here: How is it possible that as many as 24% of the Norwegian female sport students have experienced sexual harassment in sport in a country that has had gender equality and sexual harassment laws in place for several years? It appears that even though one may succeed in diminishing the amount of sexual harassment experienced by women through policies, regulations, and laws; the problem is more complicated.

Depending on the ratio of male domination in a society or an organization, the prevalence of harassment may also vary. Earlier studies have shown that prevalence rates are highest in



workplaces where women traditionally have been underrepresented, such as the military (Sagawa and Duff Campell, 1992). Given that men, masculinity and traditional male values dominate most sport organisations, this may contribute to our explanation of why women in sport in all countries experience sexual harassment. On the other hand, Timmermann (2005) referred to workplace studies showing that the highest incidents of sexual harassment were found in workplaces in which the power-balance between the sexes was changed or threatening to change. In her explanation, Timmermann drew on Elias and Scatson's (1965) concepts of 'established groups and outsiders': When the power balance starts to shift toward the outsiders in an organization, the established group may perceive the change as a threat to its self-esteem. Tension between the two groups can then increase and possibly lead to more sex discrimination and harassment towards the outsiders. Women's involvement in sport has increased over the years, also in relation to leadership positions, yet we lack sexual harassment statistics from previous years, and consequently we don't know if this increased involvement has led to a higher proportion of sexually harassment behaviour from men. As women's involvement in sport increases, future studies need to survey sexual harassment in different sport organizations.

Authors have argued that sexual harassment is primarily about control and power (Brackenridge, 2001), particularly the kind of power that is based on the gender order, i.e. privileges of heterosexual masculinity--masculine dominance over women. From a feminist perspective, men's power over women has not been related to only individual men with power over women, but to patriarchal power that has been institutionalized and often formally supported (Connell, 2002). With a structural gender perspective, one can state that the experiences of male sexual harassment among students in all three countries may be explained by the fact that a way of suppressing women and attempting to keep or reinforce men's

dominance over women is through sexual harassment. However, based on the differences concerning legislations and praxis, it seems that the gender order and differences in Czech Republic and Greece, more than in Norway, may be a result of an institutionalized and officially supported power, described by Connell (2002) as structural masculine power.

A study by Amnesty International Norway and Reform (Piene, 2007), a resource centre for men, shows how entrenched attitudes of sexual blame are. Data, from a national sample of 505 Norwegian males aged 18 - 60 years, indicated that 40% of them acknowledged sexual violence toward women to be a societal problem in Norway; however, 48% thought that a flirting woman was herself completely or partly responsible if she was subsequently sexually abused and 30% thought it was the woman's own fault if she wore sexy clothing or was intoxicated. This reveals a double moral standard among men and shows how important it is to challenge the male gender culture. Taking responsibility by changing attitudes may be a fundamental step prior to changing behaviors. Still, the gender order cannot be used to explain why women in sport harass. Our study underpins existing research suggesting that males are overwhelmingly responsible for perpetrating sexual harassment (Gruber and Morgan, 2005). Nonetheless, it also leads us to question earlier totalizing concepts, such as 'patriarchy', that have been used to interpret gender domination (Whelehan, 1995).

With reference to what has been discussed above we will argue that female harassment is also about power, but not the power based on the gender order (heterosexual masculinity). It is possible that, as women's sport increases in prominence and cultural relevance, women begin to adopt negative male habits and behaviors such as sexual harassment (Brackenridge, 2001). Possibly, female harassers in sport have adopted a masculine male culture of which both a certain form of language and behavior may be experienced as unwanted. In this line of thinking,

it may be interesting to explore potential differences between the so called 'feminine' and 'masculine' sports. Sexuality may also play a role here; however the sexual orientation of either the students or the harassers was not surveyed here.

Furthermore, differences between the countries were observed for all three forms of sexually harassing behavior, with the Norwegian students always experiencing the least. The largest difference was observed in, 'unwanted sexual glances etc., between Norway and the two other countries. It may be that the Czech and Greek students are much more exposed to such behaviors than Norwegians, due to the focus that has been placed on impeding sexual harassment in the Norwegian society. Such sexually harassing behaviors may be more socially accepted in the Czech Republic and Greece and therefore not looked upon as offensive behaviors by perpetrators even though most women experience them as unwanted. Such an explanation is in line with Kirzkova et al. (2005) who acknowledged that the Czech Republic citizens show some tolerance to mild forms of sexual harassment. The only difference among the countries that was not statistically significant was among the women who experienced ridicule. This form of gender harassment appeared to be more even across the three countries. Coming from men it may indicate that women's sport is not taken seriously, or that 'women don't belong in sport.'

In summarizing, our study revealed that there is a need for anti-harassment and prevention work in sport in all three countries. All sport organizations ought to take this issue seriously. They should offer comprehensive education and training programs on sexual harassment for athletes, coaches, and administrators as well as enlighten their political commitment to organizational and procedural change. Such programs do not exist in any of the countries participating in this study.

The IOC Medical Commission produced a Consensus Statement on Sexual Harassment and Abuse in sport (IOC, 2007) that advocates several practical steps to improve athlete safety. At the same time, UNICEF's work toward the implementation of a global violence prevention strategy, has recently included sport within this remit (Brackenridge et al., in press). It is only through international cooperation, and a well-built evidence base, that such initiatives can lead to a healthier and safer environment for women in sport.

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### **Notes**

1. The reasons for using these three questions was that they were the most frequently reported forms of sexual harassment in the Norwegian study mentioned earlier (Fasting et al., 2000). In relation to Fitzgerald et al. (1995) three dimensions of sexually harassing behaviors, questions b and c fall into the 'gender harassment' category and a into the 'unwanted sexual attention' category.
2. Permission to undertake the study was provided by the Norwegian Data Supervising Bureau and the University of Thessaly's Ethics Committee. For Czech Republic such national public agency which gives permission to undertake scientific studies does not exist or is not demanded.
3. All percentages in the tables and figures are rounded to the nearest whole number.

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Table 1.

*Sexual Harassment Experiences from Men and from Women by Country*

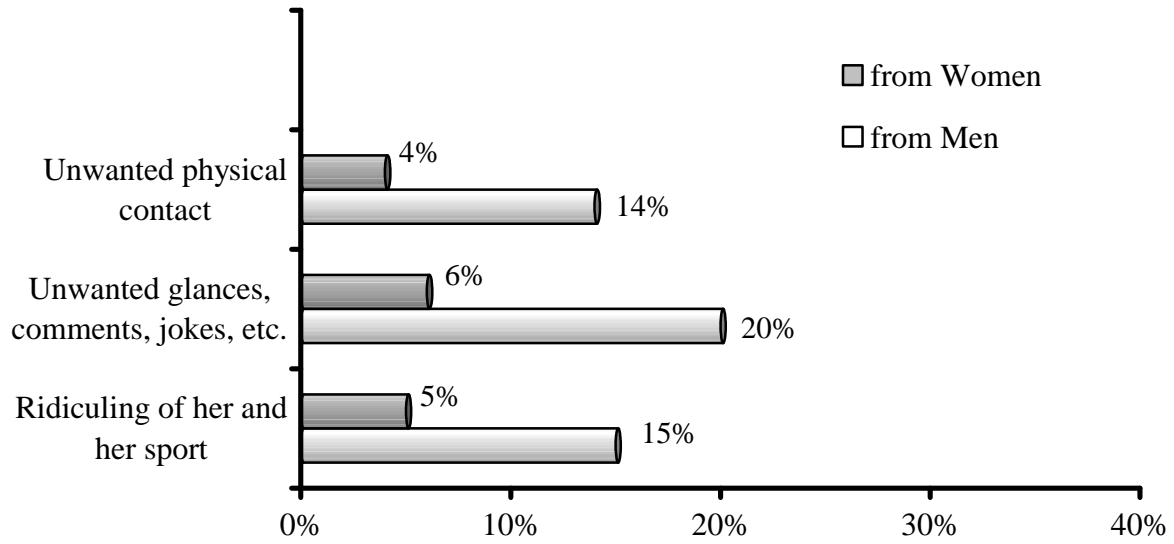
	Czech Republic	Greece	Norway	All 3 countries	$p$ ( $\chi^2$ )
	$N$ ( $P$ )	$N$ ( $P$ )	$N$ ( $P$ )	$N$ ( $P$ )	
from Men	80 (38%)	82 (40%)	40 (21%)	202 (34%)	.000
from Women	25 (12%)	33 (18%)	10 (5%)	68 (12%)	.001
from both	87 (42%)	86 (44%)	45 (24%)	218 (37%)	.000
$p$ (Binomial)	.000	.000	.000	.000	

Table 2.

*Forms of Sexual Harassment Experiences by Country*

	Czech Republic	Greece	Norway	All 3 countries	$p$ ( $\chi^2$ )
	$N$ ( $P$ )	$N$ ( $P$ )	$N$ ( $P$ )	$N$ ( $P$ )	
Unwanted physical contact	25 (12%)	49 (25%)	21 (11%)	95 (16%)	.000
Unwanted Glances, etc.	63 (31%)	48 (25%)	20 (11%)	131 (22%)	.000
Ridicule	38 (19%)	43 (23%)	27 (14%)	108 (19%)	.102

Figure 1. Forms of Sexual Harassment Experiences from Men and from Women by Country



### **Author activity profiles**

Kari Fasting is professor of Sport Sociology at the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences in Oslo.

She is a past president of ISSA, and is currently president of WomenSport International.

Nadia Knorre is the chairperson of the Czech Olympic Committee's Women and Sport Committee. She taught in the Gymnastics Department at Charles University in Prague from 1986-2004.

Stein Egil Hervik is assistant professor of Sport Sociology at Hedmark University College, Faculty of Health and Sports, in Elverum, Norway. His current research interest is in health, physical activity and intersectionality.

Stiliani Chroni is assistant professor of Sport and Exercise Psychology Consulting at the University of Thessaly. She provides performance enhancement services to men and women playing individual and team sports.