



Analysis of sexual violence in the campus environment before and after the enactment of Permendikbud No. 30 of 2021 concerning prevention and handling of sexual violence

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ABSTRACT

Background: Sexual violence on campuses is a pervasive and serious issue. Prior to the enactment of the Minister of Education and Culture Regulation No. 30 of 2021 on the Prevention and Handling of Sexual Violence (PPKS), the prevalence of sexual violence cases on campuses was high, but victims seldom reported incidents directly to their institutions. This study seeks to analyze changes in the forms of sexual violence, the location of incidents, the type of reporting, and the status of victims before and after the implementation of the regulation. **Methods:** This study utilized secondary data collected from various news media and social media posts between 2015 and 2021. The data were categorized and analyzed based on the forms of sexual violence, the locations of incidents, the type of reporting, and the status of victims. The news sources were verified by the Press Council to ensure the credibility of the data. **Findings:** The findings indicate that sexual harassment was the most prevalent form of sexual violence, accounting for 80% of cases before and 75% after the PPKS regulation. Most incidents occurred on campus, with 35% of cases before and 33.3% after the regulation. However, direct reporting to campuses decreased from 55% before to 33.3% after the regulation's implementation. The vast majority of victims were female students, comprising 90% of cases before and 100% after the regulation. **Conclusion:** Although the PPKS regulation was introduced to address sexual violence on campuses, the rate of direct reporting to campus authorities remains low. Victims tend to report incidents to external organizations rather than their institutions, signaling the need for improvements in campus mechanisms for preventing and handling sexual violence. **Novelty/Originality of This Study:** This study provides a comparative analysis of sexual violence on campuses before and after the implementation of the PPKS regulation. It offers new insights into how reporting practices and the handling of cases have evolved, highlighting the ongoing challenges in improving campus-based responses to sexual violence.

KEYWORDS: campus environment; permendikbud no. 30 of 2021; prevention and handling; sexual violence; violence reporting.

1. Introduction

Sexual violence is not a new act of violence. The 2021 Annual Report reported that sexual violence against women in the public sphere in 2020 amounted to 962 cases (Komnas Perempuan, 2021). Sexual violence is an umbrella of various sexual crimes. This can be seen from the passing of the Sexual Violence Law where sexual violence has become

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a criminal offense in Indonesia. Furthermore, Komnas Perempuan has outlined 15 forms of sexual violence in which rape and sexual harassment are included as forms of sexual violence (Komnas Perempuan, 2013).

Data from BEM FH UI 2018 states that of 177 respondents who are UI students, 9% of them are victims of sexual violence in the UI environment and 21% of them know cases of sexual violence that have occurred at UI (Kumparan.com, 2019). Then, data from HopeHelps UI, there were 39 cases of sexual violence within UI from March 2019 to May 2020 and there were 30 cases of sexual violence within UI from May 2020 to June 2021 (HopeHelps UI, 2020; HopeHelps UI, 2021). Meanwhile, data from BEM FH Unpad in 2020, which was filled in by 612 Unpad students, as many as 22.1% claimed to have been victims of sexual violence, as many as 73.4% had heard of cases of sexual violence within Unpad, and as many as 10.6% had directly seen cases of sexual violence (BEM Fikom Unpad, 2020).

The data on the high rate of sexual violence is a concern for the entire community, especially those in the academic environment. The problem with the phenomenon of sexual violence on campus does not only stop at the high number but also how victims then get cornered and unsupported behavior about their victimization experience. A survey on sexual harassment in social spaces by a number of organizations found that 8% of respondents still blamed the victim (Detik.com, 2019). The Gender Equality Barometer Quantitative Study also states that people believe that victims of sexual violence also participate in their victimization experience (INFID, 2020, 59). The studies that have been mentioned illustrate how society does not support victims of sexual violence.

The action of the campus as an institution that cornered victims of sexual violence is an act of institutional betrayal. The term institutional betrayal was first used by Smith & Freyd in 2013. This phenomenon occurs when individuals have trusted the institution to provide support and protection, but the institution intentionally (commission) or due to negligence (omission) instead provides a response that is detrimental to the individual (Smidt & Freyd, 2018). This response that does not support the victim can be said to be due to the belief that the victim of sexual violence provoked the perpetrator so that the sexual violence that occurred was the fault of the victim (Field, 2004). This institutional betrayal response that cornered the victim by the campus can be said to be a manifestation of rape culture. Rape culture is a condition in which acts of sexual violence against women and children are considered commonplace (Field, 2004). The actions and responses described previously, ultimately make victims afraid to report their victimization because they do not want to be cornered and blamed further (Schwarz et al., 2017). Reviewing the above exposure, it was found that sexual violence cases are a fairly high crime on Indonesian campuses. Not only is the number high, but this crime is exacerbated by the poor response received by victims. Seeing this, it is important to examine the campus response to sexual violence.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Critical criminology theory

The theory of critical victimology first emerged by Miers (1989) as a form of criticism of positivist victimology that positivist victimology does not see social structure in its discussion of victims. This theory says that the social structure in society will affect the pattern of victimization so that there will be groups that are more vulnerable to becoming victims than other groups (Mawby & Walklate, 1994). According to critical victimology, patriarchy is one of the factors in determining sexual violence victimization patterns. In critical victimology, patriarchy places men more powerful than women, so that men control women's sexuality (Mawby & Walklate, 1994; Walby, 1991; Tong, 2009). On this basis, critical victimology theory argues that women are vulnerable to becoming victims of sexual violence from men they know (Mawby & Walklate, 1994). Often the use of the word "victim" implies that it is unbiased or neutral. However, victimized individuals are not societally

neutral members (Mawby & Walklate, 1994). These victims are usually in a structural position in society, socially inferior to others.

Critical victimology theory looks at how structural factors can affect victims. Firstly, in the recognition by those in power of victim status. Secondly, in the explanation of why some individuals or groups may be more vulnerable to victimization. As mentioned earlier, Marxist and Feminist perspectives have influenced critical victimology theory. In this case, feminist perspectives see that the patriarchy that perpetuates sexual crimes against women influences how women and girls can be victimized by men they know (DeKeseredy, 2010; Walklate, 2018). Women are also more vulnerable to becoming victims of sexual violence because they are structurally situated in an environment that puts men in positions of power, making women powerless.

2.2 Sexual violence

Kelly (1998) defines sexual violence as any physical, visual, verbal, or sexual act experienced by women or girls, present or future, as a threat, invasion or attack that has the effect of harming, degrading and/or taking away their ability to control intimate relationships (Walby et al., 2012, p. 92). This definition actually has limitations in defining victims as only women. However, it has the advantage of conceptual breadth.

Furthermore, WHO also provides a definition of sexual violence. According to WHO (2002, p. 149) sexual violence is any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to trade, or in any other way directed, against a person's sexuality using coercion, with anyone regardless of their relationship with the victim, in any conditions, including but not limited to in the home and work. The definition provided by the WHO provides an even greater delineation of the concept of sexual violence. However, both Kelly (1998) and WHO (2002) agree that sexual violence is any act of sexual intercourse without the consent of the victim.

2.3 Campus sexual violence

The definition of sexual violence on campus is no different than sexual violence in general. However, the act of sexual violence has an incident setting in a campus environment. So, when referring to the definition of sexual violence above, it can be said that campus sexual violence is a sexual act or attempt to obtain sexual acts without the consent of the victim within the scope of the campus. The scope of the campus referred to here does not only refer to the location where sexual violence occurs but also, refers to the perpetrators and victims who are members of the campus (Beres et. al., 2019) such as, lecturers and students. DeMatteo et al. (2015) is different from ordinary sexual violence because in this phenomenon there are two court systems, namely legally (criminal justice system) or academically conducted by the campus.

In campus sexual assault, those who can be victimized, according to a survey from the American Universities Association (AAU), are often college students (Cantor et al., 2020). This research also states that female students are more at risk of becoming victims of campus sexual assault (Cantor et al., 2020). As said above, the perpetrators in this phenomenon are also those who have a relationship with the campus. In the American Universities Association survey, it was found that students were more often the perpetrators of sexual violence (Cantor et al., 2020). However, this survey also provides data that lecturers and faculty staff are also frequent perpetrators (Cantor et al., 2020).

2.4 Patriarchy

Patriarchy is a concept that can be used to observe gender relations in society. It was originally used to describe the type of family where men are the leaders (Meagher, 2011). However, the concept has widened its use to describe systems more generally where power is in the hands of adult males (Meagher, 2011). This widening of the concept emerged during the second wave of feminist development. This can be seen when Kate Millet in her book *Sexual Politics* (1971) used patriarchy to discuss men's power over women (Gardiner, 1999), so from here the concept of patriarchy became broad and was used to discuss structures in society.

Selanjutnya, konsep patriarki merupakan sistem struktur sosial dan praktik yang di mana laki-laki mendominasi, mengopresi, menindas, dan mengeksploitasi perempuan (Walby, 1991). Menurut Walby, sistem patriarki ini melihat bahwa dalam masyarakat, laki-laki merupakan pihak yang dominan dan perempuan merupakan pihak yang subordinat (Walby, 1991). Sistem ini menyatakan adanya struktur sosial di mana laki-laki memiliki strata yang lebih tinggi dibanding perempuan. Penggunaan struktur sosial menjadi penting dalam pembahasan Walby karena Walby menolak pemikiran bahwa patriarki dipengaruhi oleh kondisi biologis laki-laki dan perempuan (1991).

2.5 Rape Culture

Rape culture is a concept developed by second wave feminists in the United States in the 1970s (Field, 2004). This concept says that sexual violence against women and children is common and considered normal in a society (Brownmiller, 1976; Field, 2004). According to Field (2004), this concept often describes American culture as a whole. The emergence of the notion of rape culture in the 1970s also impacted the US legal system. Brownmiller (1976) and Wriggins (1997) argue that this resulted in a redefinition of legal rape, an emphasis on the victim's experience, and the addition of more forms of sexual violence.

Buchwald et al. said that rape culture is a complex belief that exists in society (2005). This culture encourages male sexual aggression and supports sexual violence against women (Buchwald et al., 2005). Rape culture emerges as a result of a patriarchal system that values male aggression, dominance, and power over women which results in violence against women, especially sexual violence (Burt (1980) in Huck, 2021). A society that believes in rape culture will place responsibility for sexual violence on the victim, who is often a woman, rather than the perpetrator and thus, will blame the victim (Huck, 2021). This definition of rape culture from Burt (1980) cited in Huck (2021) will be used in this final project. Field, then, says that in rape culture, rape becomes normalized in everyday sexual activities (2004). Furthermore, Herman (1984), a women's researcher, explains in her book that rape committed by men against women is a form of patriarchy.

2.6 Secondary victimization

Secondary victimization is the experience of a victim who suffers a second loss after their victimization because the reactions, behaviors, and treatment of victimization provided do not support the victim (Wolhunter, Olley, & Denham, 2009; Campbell & Raja, 1999; Wemmers, 2017). Victims of sexual violence have been found to be more vulnerable to this phenomenon (Laing, 2017). Campbell & Raja (2005) say that when victims of sexual violence report their victimization experience and get rejected by the legal and medical systems and responses that blame the victim this is known as secondary victimization which provides additional trauma to the victim. Patterson (2010) suggests that the lack of support for victims of sexual violence when reporting their victimization can be caused by a lack of evidence, social stigma, and anxiety when facing reports of sexual violence. Secondary

victimization has also been found to exacerbate PTSD and other psychological conditions (Siegel, 2011; Mendonca et. al., 2016).

Research on the phenomenon of secondary victimization has focused on the criminal justice system, such as the police, and the social health system, such as hospitals. Little research has addressed this phenomenon in the institutional realm. For example, research on secondary victimization by institutions was conducted by Campbell and Raja (2005) on secondary victimization by military institutions. From this study, it was found that secondary victimization was carried out by military institutions against female military members who experienced sexual violence as well as higher levels of PTSD experienced by victims (Campbell & Raja, 2005). This research also revealed that when victims place their trust in the social system to help with their sexual assault victimization, they are at risk for additional harm (Campbell & Raja, 2005).

2.7 Institutional Betrayal

Institutional Betrayal is a concept created by Smith and Freyd. Institutional betrayal occurs when an institution that an individual trusts and depends on takes actions that cause harm to the individual (Smith & Freyd, 2014). It is defined as a victim's experience when a trusted institution mishandles their traumatic experience (Pinciotti & Orcutt, 2021). This betrayal occurs not only when they are harmed but because these individuals expect their institutions to protect them from harmful actions.

These feelings arise because individuals' relationships with the institutions they are associated with are characterized by attachment. In addition to attachment, there is identification with the institution where there is a psychological contract with strong attachment (Rosenthal et al., 2017). Large institutions often engender trust and dependence towards their members as found in interpersonal relationships (Smith & Freyd, 2013). Where, according to Platt, Barton, & Freyd (2009) and Tremblay (2010), as with trusted interpersonal relationships, these institutional environments are expected to be safe (Smith & Freyd, 2013).

2.8 Power

Power when conceptualized as a theory can be done in various ways. Hauggard argues in his article that there is no one best definition to explain power but rather, it consists of a set of concepts (Symonds, 2021b). Sara Mills says that definitions of power often address a person's ability to force another person to do something (Mills, 2003). Power then presents power relations. A power relationship is a relationship between the two parties mentioned, namely, a relationship in which one party has the ability to make the other party perform an action (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Based on Sara Mills' (2003) definition of power and Robbins & Judge's (2013) power relations, it can be implied that power basically addresses the existence of a dominating party and a dominated party.

3. Methods

The data used is secondary data from various media such as news and social media. Neuman (2014) secondary data is data in which researchers do not directly conduct or participate in obtaining the data so that they use the results of other studies. Given (2008) says secondary data is data obtained from various sources such as government, archives, institutional records, research data, and other research results.

To be clearer, this final project will use secondary data from various news sources, as well as uploads from Instagram or Twitter in the 2015-2021 period. For news data sources, the data media that will be used are news media that have credibility and have been verified at the Press Council such as Tempo, Detik, Kompas, BBC.com, and Tirto.id. This is used to ensure that the news used is credible news. Media credibility is to reduce bias, maintain facts, and objectivity for the public interest (Franklin & Carlson, 2011; Widarini et al., 2019). In addition, campus press media are also used because victims often tell the chronology of their victimization through campus press media.

News collection was first carried out by the author searching for the keyword "sexual violence on campus" which then turned up various online news sources that reported sexual violence on a campus or summarized various cases of sexual violence that occurred in several campus locations. Then, after seeing the cases from the keywords, the author then added the location of the campus or the victim's pseudonym in the search keywords to get more detailed news.

4. Results and Discussion

Case description data taken from news coverage before the PPKS Permendikbud regulation (2015-August 2021) and news coverage after the PPKS Permendikbud (August 2021-December 2021) regarding the form of sexual violence that occurred, the location of the incident and whether the victim reported directly to the campus about the case that occurred (N=20) and after the existence of the so-called regulation (N=12).

Table 1. Forms of sexual violence

Variable	Before Permendikbud PPKS		After Permendikbud PPKS	
	N	%	N	%
Forms of Sexual Violence				
Sexual Harassment	16	80	9	75
Rape or Attempted Rape	2	10	0	0
Rape and Sexual Harassment	2	10	2	16.7
Not Said	0	0	1	8.3

Obtained from various news media (with the author's processing)

Based on the table above, the forms of sexual violence have been divided into 3 forms, namely, sexual harassment, rape or attempted rape, and rape and sexual harassment. It can be seen that both before the regulation of Permendikbud No. 30 of 2021 and after the regulation, the most common case is sexual harassment with 16 cases occurring before the regulation (80%) and 9 cases after the regulation (75%). Some of the data in this study is included in the category after the PPKS Permendikbud even though the case occurred before the PPKS was passed or it is not clear when the case occurred. This is because the case was released in online news after the PPKS was passed. This data collection is based on the author's view to see if there is a possibility that the campus changed its decision after the PPKS was passed.

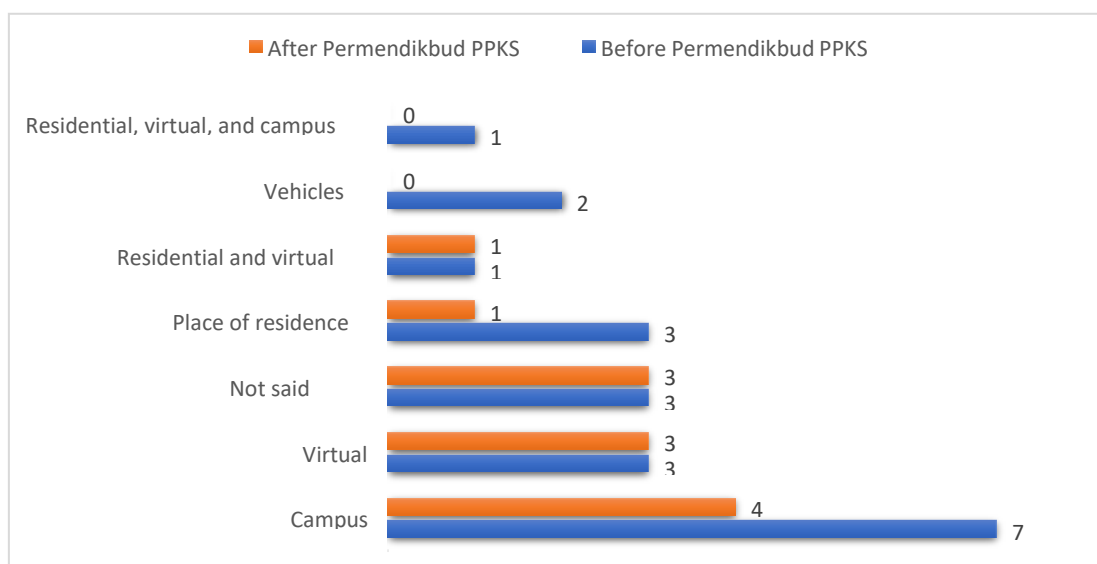


Fig 1. Diagram of the location of sexual violence incidents
 Obtained from various news media with a total of (N) 32 cases (with author's processing)

Based on data processing, it was found that the campus was a place where sexual violence occurred more often both before the PPKS Permendikbud and after the enactment of the PPKS Permendikbud. Seven cases occurred on campus before the regulation (35%) and 4 cases occurred after the regulation (33.3%). The cases that occurred at campus locations were Unri, Unipar, Undip, Unsri, IAIN Tulung Agung, Palangka Raya University, UGM, UI, UNM, and Unesa.

Table 2. Types of Reporting

Variables	Before Permendikbud PPKS		After Permendikbud PPKS	
	N	%	N	%
Reporting Type				
Directly	11	55	4	33,3
Not Directly	9	45	8	66,7

Obtained from various news media (with the author's processing)

Based on the data above, it was found that there was a change from before the PPKS Permendikbud to the ratification of the PPKS Permendikbud. Where it was found that the number of victim reports decreased after the enactment of the PPKS Permendikbud. It was found that 11 victims who reported directly before the regulation (55%) were higher than 9 victims who did not report directly (45%). However, after the regulation, the data of victims who did not report directly with 8 cases (66.7%) was higher than those who reported directly with 4 cases (33.3%). Of the 17 cases in total that did not report directly to campus, 10 (58%) of them preferred to report to non-campus organizations such as LBH, and campus-level organizations such as BEM and campus press media. These organizations then, with the consent of the victim, reported the case to the university. In contrast to direct reporting where the victim individually, without the help of a third party, reports the case to the university directly.

Data on the status of victims of sexual violence on campus before the regulation of Permendikbud No. 30 of 2021 (N = 20) and after the regulation (N = 12). Based on the processed data conducted by the author, the status of victims who experienced sexual violence both before and after the regulation is not much different. It was found that of the two, it was students who were more vulnerable to becoming victims of sexual violence. With 18 cases occurring before the regulation of sexual violence on campus (90%), and 12 cases after the regulation (100%).

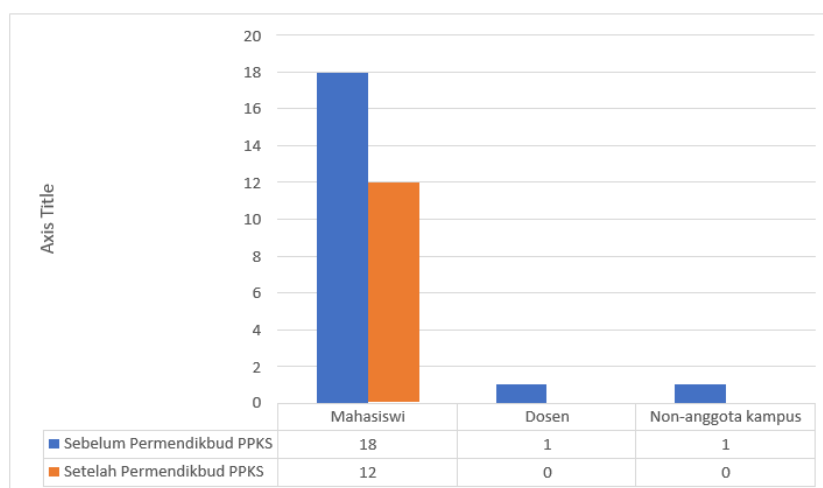


Fig 2. Diagram of Data on Victims of Sexual Violence on Campus
Obtained from various news media with a total of (N) 32 cases (with the author's processing)

Based on the data processed by the author, the status of victims who experienced sexual violence both before and after the regulation is not much different. It was found that of the two, it was students who were more vulnerable to becoming victims of sexual violence. With 18 cases occurring before the regulation of sexual violence on campus (90%), and 12 cases after the regulation (100%).

The discussion that will be analyzed in this section is about the findings of forms of sexual violence, location of sexual violence, types of reporting, and victim status. In the form of sexual violence, it was found that sexual harassment is the most common sexual violence found on campus (Table 1). Then in the data on the location of the incident, it was found that the campus was the place where sexual violence most often occurred (Figure 1). Furthermore, in the data on the type of reporting, most of the victims chose not to report the sexual violence directly to the campus (Table 2) Finally, in the discussion of victims of sexual violence, it was found that all of the victims were women, and then it was found that most of the victims were campus students (Figure 2).

Table 1 shows that there were a total of 32 cases of sexual violence from 2015 to 2021. It can be seen that the most common form of sexual violence is sexual harassment with 16 cases occurring before the existence of Permendikbud No. 30 of 2021 Prevention and Handling of Sexual Violence in the Higher Education Environment, and 12 cases occurring after the existence of Permendikbud no. 30 of 2021. This finding is similar to various studies that state that sexual harassment is more common than rape or attempted violence (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Cantor et al., 2020; National Academies of Science, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018). However, there is no explanation as to why this phenomenon is more common.

Furthermore, this final project also looks at the location where sexual violence occurs. Based on the data discussed in the previous chapter (Diagram 4.1.2), it was found that the campus was a location where sexual violence often occurred both before the PPKS Permendikbud (35%) and after the PPKS Permendikbud (33.3%). This is different when compared to research conducted by the Association of American Universities, where sexual violence on campus often occurs in dormitories for rape, and in gathering places for non-penetrative sexual violence (Cantor et al., 2020). The explanation for this is unclear due to the lack of research on the subject. However, it is important to remember that location is not the only factor in campus sexual assault. Campus sexual assault refers to the status of the victim, the status of the perpetrator, the location of the assault, and a combination of these to be considered campus sexual assault.

Existing data related to sexual violence on campus is still difficult to find in Indonesia. This lack of data can be due to the reluctance of victims to report their sexual violence. Based

on the data found (Table 4.1.2), 17 victims (53.1%) chose not to report their sexual violence victimization to campus authorities. This reluctance is similar to conditions in the United States, where victims of sexual violence are reluctant to report their victimization to the authorities and choose to tell people they trust (Cantor et. al., 2020).

Furthermore, from the data presented in the previous chapter, it was found that all victims were female, either as female students, lecturers, or non-campus members (Diagram 4.2.1). From this data, it cannot be directly concluded that only women are victims of sexual violence. However, various studies show that women on campus, especially female students, are more vulnerable to becoming victims than men (Cantor et. al, 2020; National Academies of Sciences, Engineer, 2018). For this reason, Cantalupo & Kidder also said that the risk for female students to become victims of sexual violence is a crisis for the United States (2018).

5. Conclusions

Sexual violence on campus is still a serious problem. Although there are regulations for the prevention and handling of sexual violence, direct reporting to campus authorities is still low, and victims prefer to report through non-campus organizations. This shows the need for improvement in the handling and prevention of sexual violence on campus, as well as the importance of better support for victims.

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Not applicable.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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