| Project Number: | JUST/2015/RDAP/AG/SEXV/8513 |
|------------------|--|
| Project Acronym: | STOP-SV |
| | STOP-SV – Staff training on prevention of sexual violence: |
| Project Title: | developing prevention and management strategies for |
| | the nightlife workplace |

Deliverable reference number:1.1Deliverable title:Report on systematic literature reviewPartner responsible for this deliverable:LJMU



Report on systematic literature review

This project has been produced with the financial support of the Rights, Equality and Citizenship (REC) Programme (2014-2020) of the European Union. The contents of this report are the sole responsibility of the STOP-SV partnership and can in no way be taken to reflect the views of the European Commission.

Project co-funded by the Rights, Equality and Citizenship (REC) Programme (2014-2020) of the European Union.



Contents

•

| 1. Introduction | 3 |
|-------------------------|----|
| 2. Nature | |
| 3. Prevalence | |
| 4. Consequences | 6 |
| 5. Associations | |
| 6. Prevention | 12 |
| 7. Bystander programmes | 13 |
| 8. Reference list | 18 |

1. Introduction

To support the development of the STOP sexual violence (STOP SV) project, a systematic literature review is being conducted. The review aims to inform the: content and design of the training manual; and, evaluation of the training. The review is being conducted in two phases that aim to identify:

Review 1: The prevalence and consequences of, and risk factors for, sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings; and, interventions to prevent and respond to sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings.

Review 2: The content and impact of bystander programmes for sexual violence and harassment (in any setting); and, key methods and tools used to evaluate bystander programmes (in any setting)¹.

This document provides a summary of the initial phase of the literature review (which includes systematically searched peer reviewed articles only)² to assist in the development of the training manual. The next phase of the review process will involve identifying additional studies not identified through the initial phase of the systematic search (e.g. through exploring article reference lists) and summarising the literature (from review 1) for submission to a journal (a deliverable of the project). If new information is identifying beyond that included in this document, LIMU will share this with partners directly.

The document is broken down into a number of sections. *Section 2 Nature* aims to describe the type of sexual violence and harassment that occurs in nightlife settings. *Section 3 Prevalence* provides examples of the prevalence of sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings from the literature identified so far. *Section 4 Consequences* provides a broad overview of the consequences of sexual violence and harassment. *Section 5 Associations* explores the relationship between sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings and individual, relationship, community and societal level factors. *Section 6 Prevention* explores individual and population level interventions to prevent and/or respond to sexual violence and harassment. *Section 7 Bystander programmes* provides examples of bystander programmes implemented in college settings (no identified articles assessed the impact of bystander programmes in nightlife environments) and brief commentary on some factors to consider when developing the STOP SV training manual.

¹ Not reported on here - to be used in the design of the training evaluation.

² Other sources known to the reviewers where also included where applicable.

2. Nature

The World Health Organization defines sexual violence as:

"Any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work."

(Krug et al, 2002)

This definition incorporates a wide range of aggressive and non-consensual acts that, in the context of nightlife environments, can include:

- Rape or attempted rape;
- Unwanted sexual contact, such as groping, kissing and touching;
- Unwanted non-contact sexual attention or harassment, such as verbal comments and sexual gestures;
- Coerced sexual activity, such as through threats, verbal pressure or the surreptitious provision of alcohol and drugs;
- Engaging in sexual activity with someone who is unable to give consent due to intoxication through alcohol or drug use; and,
- Sexual exploitation (e.g. providing underage access to clubs in exchange for sexual favours).

Sexual violence and harassment in nightlife environments is thought to be most commonly perpetrated by male patrons towards female patrons, or female staff. However it can be committed by individuals of both genders towards both opposite and same sex victims, and can also be committed by and to staff – towards both patrons and other staff members (Box 1).

Box 1: Nightlife workers

- In a study of hotel workers in Malaysia, half (50%) of sexual harassment experienced by workers was verbal, 22% physical, 17% psychological, 8% non verbal/gestural and 3% visual (Alagappor et al, 2011).
- In a study of observed aggressive incidents involving sexual advances (n=258) in bars and clubs in Canada, 2.2% of perpetrators and 6.5% of victims were employed by the venue (e.g. bar staff or entertainers) (Graham et al, 2014).

Meeting potential romantic or sexual partners is one of the main reasons why young people go to bars and nightclubs, meaning nightlife venues can be highly sexualised environments. This can complicate understanding and recognition of the issue, which is further exacerbated by widespread alcohol and drug use which can both reduce inhibitions and increase vulnerability to sexual assault. There are several ways in which sexual violence and harassment can manifest in nightlife settings, including (Kavanaugh, 2013; Graham et al, 2010; 2014):

- Sexual violence and harassment may be **opportunistic**, for example if someone takes advantage of crowding to touch another person or if someone's intoxication is exploited sexually by another person (including a partner, date, friend, acquaintance or stranger).
- Sexual violence and harassment may occur through misperceptions, such as when an individual incorrectly perceives another person to be sexually interested in them or a sexual action to be acceptable to them. Violence may also arise as part of the response to such misperceptions, such as through an aggressive rejection of an advance or an aggressive reaction to a rejection.
- Predatory individuals may target nightlife venues as easy locations for finding victims; in
 particular those who have been drinking heavily or using drugs. Such individuals may be
 less likely to recognise their vulnerability; less capable of refusing or defending
 themselves against sexual approaches; and less likely to report sexual assault to
 authorities. Predatory individuals may also provide individuals with alcohol or drugs
 (openly or surreptitiously) for such a purpose.
- Social norms may support sexual violence and harassment and prevent people from recognising this as such (e.g. if women who drink or work in bars are considered to be 'loose' or if being 'touched up' on a night out is accepted as normal behaviour). Sexual violence by men towards women can be related to cultures of machismo, male bonding and the assertion or defence of perceived dominant male identities.

In a study of observed aggressive incidents involving sexual advances (n=258) in bars and clubs in Canada, almost all incidents appeared to involve intentional or probably intentional aggression. Of aggressive initiators, 61.2% engaged in invasive contact and 56.9% engaged in persistent advances following a refusal (Graham et al, 2014).

3. Prevalence

Sixteen studies provided information on the prevalence of sexual violence and/or harassment specifically related to the nightlife environment. Most (n=10) studies were conducted in the USA, with other studies conducted in Canada (n=4), Brazil (n=1) and the United Kingdom (UK) (n=1). Fourteen of the studies were published in the last ten years. Most studies focused on nightlife patron experience of sexual violence and/or harassment as either a victim, witness or perpetrator; only one study explored the prevalence of sexual violence and harassment amongst nightlife workers (Graham et al, 2014). Information included: the prevalence of sexual violence and/or harassment on the night of survey, or overall experience of sexual violence and/or harassment either whilst on nights out and/or following a night out (see Box 2); or the proportion of aggressive incidents in nightlife environments that were sexual in nature or linked to sexual/romantic overtures. An additional study explored levels of sexual harassment among young tourists visiting Mediterranean resorts (with engagement in nightlife being a key focus of visiting such resorts) (Calafat et al, 2013). Another report provided information on the prevalence of unwanted sexual touching a night out in a UK city (Hardcastle et al, 2014). Box 2 provides examples of the prevalence of sexual violence and/or harassment specifically related to the nightlife environment.

4. Consequences

Sexual violence in nightlife and other settings can have both direct and indirect consequences. For instance, sexual violence may lead to injury, disability or even death. Further impacts may also be placed on the victim's health and wellbeing, through: stress and mental health problems; substance use; lack of fertility control, unintended pregnancies and abortions; and sexually transmitted infections. (World Health Organization, 2010). One study identified in the review explored female attitudes toward, and use and experience of, sexually overt approaches in bars (Huber and Herold, 2006). The majority reported that they would be upset/bothered if someone they didn't know touched their breast/chest (87.4%) or genital area whilst in a bar, and half (51.7%) if their buttock was touched (Huber and Herold, 2006). Impacts may also be seen on the night-time economy. A study³ conducted in one UK nightlife area found that over a quarter of male (25.1%) and female (29.1%) nightlife users would be reluctant to return to a venue in which they received unwanted sexual touching (Hardcastle et al, 2015).

³ Identified by the project team - not included in the overall systematic review.

Box 2: Prevalence of sexual violence and/or harassment in nightlife environments

USA

- One fifth (20.0%: females 25.4%; males 14.6%) of club users reported experiencing sexual aggression whilst in the club that night (Johnson et al, 2015). In another study, 12.6% of club users reported experiencing being touched, grabbed, or fondled without invitation whilst in the club that night (Miller et al, 2015).
- In a study of young (21-25 years) students, 61% of females and 43% of males reported experiencing unwanted sexual contact in drinking settings at some point in their lifetime (Becker and Tinkler, 2015).
- A third (32.6%) of females (n=52) reported having ever experienced either attempted or completed rape associated with drinking in a bar (Parks and Miller, 1997).
- A fifth (21.0%) of females reported experiencing sexual aggression either during or after drinking in bars (Parks and Zetas-Zanatta, 1999).
- In a study of male students, 92% reported perpetrating at least one sexually aggressive act in bars since they were students (Thompson et al, 2008).
- In a study of females travelling from the USA to Mexico for a weekend night out, 38.0% and 1.5% reported experiencing moderate and severe sexual aggression respectively during their night out (Kelley-Baker et al, 2008).

Canada

- Half (50.0%) of young (19-29 years) female nightlife users reported experiencing unwanted and/or persistent sexual aggression during a night out (Graham et al, 2014).
- The majority (82.5%) of female students reported having had their buttock touched (over clothes) whilst at a bar or dance club; 24.6% of whom reported that this always occurred when at a bar or dance club (Huber and Herold, 2006).
- Around a quarter of all observed incidents of verbal or physical aggression in pubs/clubs were related to sexual/romantic overtures (Graham et al. 2010). Of these, key types of aggressive behaviours included invasive contact (e.g. rubbing groin against a person) and engaging in persistent advances following a refusal (Graham et al, 2014).

Brazil

One in ten male (10.2%) and female (10.8%) nightclub patrons reported that someone kissed them or tried to have intercourse against their will whilst in the club that night; 4.7% of males and 3.0% of females reported that they has kissed or attempted to have intercourse against a person's will whilst in the club that night (Santos et al, 2015).

UK

- One in ten (11.6%) nightlife users who had preloaded (i.e. drank at home) prior to a night out reported experiencing sexual molestation in the nightlife environment in the past 12 months (compared to 5.0% of those who did not preload) (Hughes et al, 2008).
- Amongst nightlife users, 70.0% of females and 41.8% of males reported that they had experienced unwanted sexual touching during a night out at some point in their lifetime (Hardcastle et al, 2014).

5. Associations

The literature suggests that the nature and prevalence of sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings is the result of a combination of intertwining factors that can either promote (in the most part) or prevent such harms. These factors can occur at an individual, relationship, community and/or societal level. Some of the key associations identified through the literature review so far are summarised below.

Individual level factors

Alcohol consumption: Across numerous studies alcohol consumption by either the victim or perpetrator was associated with sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings (Becker and Tinkler, 2015; Flowe et al, 2011; Graham et al, 2014; Hughes at el, 2008; Kelley-Baker et al, 2008; Santos et al, 2015). For example, in a study of US females (aged 21+) visiting Mexico for a night out, those who consumed any alcohol were 4.8 times more likely to experience moderate sexual aggression during their night out (Kelley-Baker et al, 2008). A study of Brazilian nightlife users also found a relationship with drinking behaviours, with predrinking (i.e. drinking prior to entering the club) associated with unwanted kissing or attempted intercourse whilst in the club that night (Santos et al, 2015). The relationship between alcohol use and sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings may be related to a number of factors (see Box 3).

Box 3: Relationships between alcohol use and sexual assault and harassment

Alcohol use directly affects cognitive and physical functioning reducing self-control and the ability to process information (World Health Organization, 2006). Thus, for example, reducing the ability of victims to recognise sexually aggressive cues or to resist coercive attempts, or perpetrators to distinguish between friendly and sexually interested behaviours of others (Abbey et al, 2002; Becker and Tinkler, 2015; Graham et al, 2014; Parks and Miller 1997). The expectations about the effects of alcohol (e.g. feeling more sexual) may also influence a person's personality and behaviours (Abbey, 2002; Abbey et al, 2002; Becker and Tinkler, 2015). Evidence also suggests that females may be more vulnerable to sexual assault and harassment in nightlife settings as males may believe that a female consuming alcohol is more sexually available and sexually promiscuous, and forcing sex on a woman is more acceptable when she is drinking (Graham et al, 2014; Parks and Scheidt, 2000; Pino and Johnson-Johns, 2009).

- Demographics: Many studies suggest that females are more likely than males to experience sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings. For example, in a study of UK nightlife users, females were 6.7 times more likely than males to report experiencing sexual molestation during a night out in the past 12 months (p<0.001) (Hughes et al, 2008). Some studies suggest that both victims and perpetrators of sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings tend to be of a younger age (Parks and Zetas-Zanatta, 1999; Thompson et al, 2008). Whilst it is possible that this may be related to proportion of nightlife users that are of a young age, a study exploring sexual assault or harassment (in any settings) due to others drinking found younger people to be more at risk (Bellis et al 2015). In a study of club users in the US ethnicity was related to sexual aggression, with white race associated with increased risk of sexual aggression in the club, and Hispanic ethnicity with decreased risk (Miller et al, 2015).
- Personal history/previous victimisation: A history of violence, sexual abuse and/or harassment both within and external to the nightlife environment has been associated with sexual violence and/or harassment occurring in nightlife settings (Kavanaugh 2013; Kelley-Baker et al, 2008; Parks and Zetas-Zanatta, 1999). For example, in a study of US females visiting Mexico for a night out, those who had been verbally threatened in the past year were over two times more likely to experience moderate sexual aggression during their night out (Kelley-Baker et al, 2008). In another study of US club goers, experience of sexual aggression in a club during the past 30 days was associated with sexual aggression in a club during the past 30 days was associated with sexual aggression in a club during the past 30 days was associated with sexual aggression has also been suggested as being associated with nightlife related sexual abuse and/or harassment (Huber and Herold, 2006; Kavanaugh 2013)

• Other factors:

- One study found that men who are sexually aggressive in bar settings are younger, heterosexual, unmarried and embody dominant cultures of masculinity (e.g., being assertive, dominant, willing to take risks, forceful), and they are more likely to have engaged in self-reported consensual sexual intercourse (Thompson et al, 2008).
- In a study of US female bar drinkers, increased negative effect (e.g. depression) was the strongest predictor of bar-related victimisation during the past year (Parks and Zetas-Zanatta, 1999).
- Permissive attitudes towards sexually overt approach behaviours have been associated with experience of sexually overt approach behaviours in the bar environment (Huber and Herold, 2006).

Relationship level factors

Group dynamics: Some studies have explored the influence of group dynamics in preventing or promoting sexual violence and harassment in nightlife settings, with findings suggesting varying relationships. For example, two studies found that experience of sexual aggression amongst the group (either on the same or a previous night out) was associated with individual group members' increased risk of sexual aggression during the night out (Graham et al, 2014; Miller et al, 2015). One study also found that if a group has at least one member who frequently gets drunk, individuals in the group are at increased risk of experiencing sexual aggression during the night out (Miller et al, 2015). Individuals social status within, or familiarity with, the group also appears to be a key factor. In a study of female bar patrons, lower social status in the group was associated with increased risk of sexual aggression amongst those who had consumed 5+ alcoholic drinks (Graham et al, 2014). In another study of nightlife users, with increasing age, group familiarity amongst females became increasingly predictive of experiencing sexual aggression in the club (Johnson et al, 2015).

Community and societal level factors

 Attitudes, expectations and social norms: The attitudes, expectations and social norms regarding what is acceptable and/or an expected behaviour in nightlife settings was cited as a contributor to sexual violence and harassment across a number of studies (Becker and Tinkler, 2015; Graham et al, 2014; Parks and Scheidt, 2000; Rich et al, 2015; Watt el al, 2012). Male and female attitudes around what makes females vulnerable to sexual assault in bars show how attitudes can be influenced through perceptions of female behaviours. Thus, one study found that males believe that female dress, having contact with men in bars, attention seeking behaviours and being alone in nightlife makes them vulnerable to sexual assault in bars (Parks and Scheidt, 2000). Another similar study amongst females found that they believed female sexual provocation, attention seeking behaviours and aggression makes them vulnerable to sexual assault in bars (Parks et al, 1998). Behaviours such as transactional sex (e.g. exchanging/accepting alcohol for sex) in nightlife venues in South Africa have been suggested to reinforce the undervaluing and commoditization of women, whilst also putting them at greater risk of rape (Watt el al, 2012). The social norms across a culture, and within the nightlife environment, may support sexual violence and harassment. In a study of young (16-35 years) German and British holidaymakers visiting tourist resorts in Southern Europe during the summer, being attracted to bars with opportunities for sex was associated with being a victim of sexual harassment and having sex against one's will during their holiday. Further, being attracted to bars where people

get drunk was also associated with being a victim of sexual harassment during their holiday (Calafat et al, 2013). A permissive environment where anything goes (and may be promoted), involving norms of public displays of affection (beyond what they may do in their day-to-day life), and where males and females are expected to play different roles (e.g. men pursue women) means that sexually aggressive overtures in nightlife settings may become normalised (Becker and Tinkler, 2015; Graham et al, 2014) which may prevent people from recognising such harms (e.g. if women who drink or work in bars are considered to be 'loose' or if being 'touched up' on a night out is accepted as normal behaviour). Sexual violence by men towards women can be related to cultures of machismo, male bonding and the assertion or defence of perceived dominant male identities (Thompson et al, 2008).

• Nightlife venues: Studies have shown that the frequency of attending bars is associated with experiencing nightlife related sexual violence and harassment, particularly amongst females (Parks and Miller, 1997; Parks and Zetas-Zanatta, 1999; Puno et al, 2009). Further, a study in India found that amongst males, visiting a wine shop with friends was associated with perpetrating forced sex with at least one partner in the past three months (Go et al, 2010). The sexualised nature of nightlife environments, and the behaviours (e.g. alcohol consumption) and expectations (e.g. fun/friendly/open environment) of nightlife patrons can exacerbate risks of sexual violence and harassment (Graham et al, 2006; Kavanaugh and Anderson 2009). In an observational study in Canada, sexual activity, contact and competition was related to frequency of aggression occurring in bars (Graham et al, 2006). In a study of US females visiting Mexico for a night out, a number of characteristics relating to the venue and their customers were associated with increased risk of moderate sexual aggression on a night out. Factors included the presence of drinks specials and customers openly removing their clothing, appearing to be drunk, fighting and using drugs (Kelley-Baker et al, 2008). The role and interaction style of venue security staff has also been suggested as being associated with sexual violence and harassment (Kavanaugh and Anderson 2009).

Certain environment factors have also been shown to have a potential influence. Bar and clubs can often be dark, crowded and noisy places, and these factors have been found to contribute to the problem. For example, these venue characteristics may make be easier for perpetrators to commit offences due to the close proximity of patrons and/or the difficulty in identifying offenders (Becker and Tinkler, 2015; Kavanaugh and Anderson, 2009).

 Alcohol outlet density: At a population level, whilst one US study has found a relationship between the alcohol outlet density and levels of sexual offences (Franklin et al, 2010), another study found no relationship between alcohol outlet density and sexual intimate partner violence amongst females (Waller et al, 2012).

6. Prevention

Few identified studies explored the prevention of sexual violence and/or harassment in nightlife settings. Four studies discussed ways in which individuals (primarily females) may monitor or alter their behaviours to reduce their level of vulnerability when frequenting nightlife settings. Examples included: limiting personal alcohol consumption to reduce levels of inebriation; not walking around alone/going out in groups/remaining with friends; avoiding interactions with strangers; shaming aggressors to deter future incidents; the use of gestures and signals to alert friends to potentially compromising situations; and watching drinks to ensure they are not tampered with or only drinking out of bottles (Brooks, 2011; Kavanaugh, 2013; Kavanaugh and Anderson, 2009; Kovac and Trussel, 2015). One study explored the sensitivity and specificity of two commercially available drug-facilitated sexual assault drug detector kits. They concluded that the use of such kits by the public in the nightlife environment needs further investigation, as they may create a false sense of security (false negatives) and undue concern (false positives) among kit users (Beynon et al, 2006). In an observation study in Canadian bars and clubs, bystanders (i.e. nightlife users) intervened in a fifth of aggressive incidents involving sexual advances; however whilst this was often to support the victim, sometimes it involved encouraging the perpetrator (staff appeared to rarely intervene) (Graham et al, 2014). Two studies explored community level interventions focusing on the prevention of sexual violence and other offences through alcohol policies (e.g. control of outlet density, alcohol pricing, and management of drinking environments). A review by Lippy and DeGue (2016) suggests that the use of alcohol policy may be effective in preventing the perpetuation of sexual violence at a community level. A study across England found that local areas with more intense alcohol licensing policies had a stronger decline in rates of violent crimes, sexual crimes and public order offences over time (De Vocht et al, 2016).

No studies explored the implementation of bystander programmes in nightlife settings. Thus a separate search was conducted focusing on bystander programmes to prevent sexual violence and harassment in any setting.

7. Bystander programmes

Bystander programmes aim to alter social norms and encourage people to tackle and prevent sexual violence. They do this through promoting norms that protect against violence and motivating people to promote these norms through providing peer leadership around preventing sexual violence and to intervene when they witness such behaviours (Basile et al, 2016). Seventy papers were identified that provided information on the development and/or implementation of bystander programmes to prevent sexual violence and harassment. Studies focused predominately on US college settings (one focused on military personnel). Based on this literature, this section provides a brief summary of: the aims, content, delivery methods and outcomes of identified bystander programmes; and some factors to consider when designing or implementing a bystander programme.

Summary of bystander programme aims, core components, length, delivery methods, target audience and outcomes

Aims: Whilst the specific aims of each programme vary slightly, the overall themes were to reduce attitudes that condone sexual and dating violence, and increase positive bystander intervention. (e.g. Coker et al, 2016; Foubert et al, 2010; Katz et al, 2013).

Core components: Some of the common components across the bystander interventions included: definitions; prevalence figures; examples/scenarios; and identification and intervention methods. E.g.:

- Bringing in the Bystander: Components of the programme include an introduction to bystander responsibility within communities, local community examples and statistics, active learning exercises about the sexual violence continuum, and discussions about identifying risky situations and choosing safe and effective intervention methods. (e.g. Banyard et al, 2009; Cares et al, 2015; Elias-Lambert and Black, 2015; Hines and Palm-Reed, 2015; Moynihan and Banyard, 2011).
- Know your Power: The campaign consists of a series of images which aim to portray realistic and thought-provoking scenarios that highlight the important role all members of the community have in ending sexual assault, relationship violence and stalking. It demonstrates positive active bystander behaviours that target audience members can use in situations where violence is occurring, has occurred or has the potential to occur. (Katz et al, 2013).

- TakeCARE: Uses video vignettes as a teaching tool to illustrate situations that commonly entail risk for victimisation, what those risks are, and how students can help protect and support their friends in such situations. (e.g. Jouriles et al, 2016; Kleinsasser et al, 2015).
- **RealConsent**: The modules communicate key themes using: definitions, scenarios, survivor stories portrayed by actors, expert testimony, advice from peers, and interactive quizzes and games. There are also scenarios that ask the student to decide whether informed consent is possible, after providing guidelines for what constitutes consent. (Salazar et al, 2014).

Length of intervention: Programme length varied from 25 minutes (TakeCARE) to 11 weeks (The Men's Project). A small number of interventions also offered a 'booster' session at a later date (2-4 months after initial intervention). (e.g. Banyard et al, 2007; Barone et al, 2007; Cares et al, 2015; Gidycz et al, 2011; Kleinsasser et al, 2015; Shaw and Janulis, 2016).

Delivery: Some examples of the methods used to deliver the programme include:

- *Educational interventions:* including formal presentation of information (e.g. prevalence of sexual violence), active learning exercises and group discussion (e.g. Banyard et al, 2009; Coker et al 2011,2016; Elias-Lambert and Black, 2015; Hines and Palm-Reed, 2015; Moynihan and Banyard, 2011).
- **Theatre based performances:** involving the acting out of incidents and ways in which a bystander may intervene (including audience participation). (e.g. Ahrens et al, 2011; McMahon et al, 2014; Mitchell and Freitag, 2011).
- **Online and digital interventions:** including video vignettes of risk situations, definitions of sexual violence, expert testimonies, interactive quizzes and games. (e.g. Jouriles et al, 2016; Kleinsasser et al, 2015; Salazar et al, 2014).

Target audience: The majority of interventions where targeted towards all students; one intervention targeted males only and another females only (Box 4).

Box 4: Gender specific bystander programmes

The Men's Project (Barone et al, 2007)

The goal of The Men's Project is to train male students who will then positively influence their peers by challenging social norms that promote gender-based violence; understanding their connection to survivors of gender-based violence; and role modeling effective bystander interventions.

The Women's Program (Hahn et al, 2016)

The Women's Program was developed for college women to enhance students' ability to identify and intervene during risky situations, and provide support to individuals who have experienced a sexual assault.

Outcomes of bystander programmes

A number of interventions were associated with significant impacts on:

- Improving knowledge around sexual violence (e.g. Palm Reed et al, 2015);
- Reducing attitudes that promote sexual violence (e.g. Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al, 2011);
- Improving bystander intention and confidence to intervene (e.g. Foubert et al, 2010); and,
- Levels of violence across the intervention area (e.g. Coker et al, 2016).

Some factors to consider when designing or implementing a bystander programme

- Cultural acceptance of sexual violence and harassment: social norms that support sexual violence and harassment can promote both the perpetration of such harms in nightlife settings and also bystander recognition that such harms exist or that they should intervene. Thus, variations in social norms and legislation around sexual violence and harassment should be considered when formulating the manual, and carrying out the training. Scenarios could be used to gauge trainees pre-conceived ideas of what sexual violence and harassment is and if they believe it to be a common and/or acceptable practice in nightlife settings. This information could then be used to guide the pitch and delivery of the training as it is being delivered. (e.g. Brown and Messman-Moore, 2010; Burn, 2009; Edwards et al, 2015; Kamimura et al, 2016; McMahon, 2010; Orchowski et al, 2015).
- Discussion of who may be at risk of vulnerability in nightlife: Whilst the literature would suggest that females (nightlife users and workers) are most at risk of sexual violence and

harassment in nightlife environments, predominately by male perpetrators, discussion should highlight that all genders may be involved in experiencing or perpetrating such harms. This can include for example same-gender sexual violence, which may be particularly pertinent to nightlife environments with LGBT⁴ tailored venues and districts. The literature suggests that people have different views of what rape is in relation to same-gender and mixed-gender scenarios, which may need to be taken into consideration when discussing such issues. Further, with group dynamics playing often opposing roles in preventing and promoting risks of sexual violence and harassment in nightlife environments, discussion should note that being in a group does not mean people are protected from experiencing such harms. (e.g. Ballman et al, 2016; Bennett et al 2015; Howard and Crano, 1974; Katz et al 2015,2016; Potter et al, 2012).

- Gender specific discussions/components: A number of papers suggest that gender specific discussions/intervention components (e.g. separate training modules/sessions for males and females) may be beneficial, primarily due to the different values held by different genders. For example, the literature suggests that males tend to be more accepting of sexual violence supportive attitudes, and are less likely to intervene when incidents occur compared to females. (e.g. Amar et al, 2011; Bannon et al ,2013; Exner and Cummings, 2011; Brown et al 2014).
- Method of delivery: Many studies have focused of the effectiveness of bystander interventions through the strategies employed in its delivery, e.g. peer lead, age of trainees, managerial promotion/support for the intervention. Studies suggested that bystander interventions where more successful when lead by people of a similar age to the trainees and when the language (i.e. terminologies) were tailored to their common language. Studies have also shown that bystander efficacy is increased when participants felt their management promoted the intervention strategies delivered (which supports the development and role of the country specific STOP SV project coalitions). (e.g. Kroshus et al 2015; McMahon et al 2013).
- Providing information on how to identify and intervene: Studies suggest that ensuring trainees know how to identify sexual violence and harassment and safely intervene increases the likelihood of them doing so. Across some interventions, scenarios are used to help educate trainees on what to look for in relation to vulnerable victims, early signs of predatory behaviour, and then safe intervention techniques. Equally, consideration should be given to the potential psychological and physical impacts that intervening may have on

⁴ Lesbian, guy, bisexual, transgender.

the bystander. Furthermore, trainees may have been, and may be, victims of sexual violence and harassment and thus may require information on where to access (e.g. support/criminal justice agencies) (e.g. Edwards et al, 2015; Hoxmeier et al, 2016; McMahon and Lawrence-Farmer, 2009; McMahon and Banyard, 2012; Pugh et al, 2016; Witte et al, 2016).

• **Responsible bar service:** With the literature demonstrating a clear link between alcohol and sexual violence and harassment, and the sale of alcohol being a key focus of nightlife venues, the training should include responsible bar service, including preventing the sale of alcohol to drunks. (Salazar et al, 2016).

•

8. Reference list

ABBEY, A., ZAWACKI, T., BUCK, P. O., TESTA, M., PARKS, K., NORRIS, J., MARTIN, S. E., LIVINGSTON, J. A., MCAUSLAN, P., CLINTON, A. M., KENNEDY, C. L., GEORGE, W. H., DAVIS, K. C. & MARTELL, J. 2002. How does alcohol contribute to sexual assault? Explanations from laboratory and survey data. *Alcoholism, Clinical And Experimental Research*, 26, 575-581.

AHRENS, C. E., RICH, M. D. & ULLMAN, J. B. 2011. Rehearsing for real life: The impact of the InterACT Sexual Assault Prevention Program on self-reported likelihood of engaging in bystander interventions. *Violence Against Women*, **17**, 760-776.

ALAGAPPAR, P. N., LEAN, M. L., DAVID, M. K., ISHAK, Z. & NGEOW, Y. M. 2011. "You're So Hot!": A Content Analysis of Sexual Harassment Among Hotel Employees. *In:* DONG, L. (ed.) *Humanities, Society and Culture.*

AMAR, A. F., SUTHERLAND, M. & KESLER, E. 2012. Evaluation of a bystander education program. *Issues In Mental Health Nursing*, 33, 851-857.

BANYARD, V. L., MOYNIHAN, M. M. & CROSSMAN, M. T. 2009. Reducing Sexual Violence on Campus: The Role of Student Leaders as Empowered Bystanders. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50, 446-457.

BANYARD, V. L., MOYNIHAN, M. M. & PLANTE, E. G. 2007. Sexual Violence Prevention through Bystander Education: An Experimental Evaluation. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 35, 463-481.

BARONE, R. P., WOLGEMUTH, J. R. & LINDER, C. 2007. Preventing sexual assault through engaging college men. *Journal of College Student Development*, 48, 585-594.

BECKER, S. & TINKLER, J. 2015. "Me Getting Plastered and Her Provoking My Eyes": Young People's Attribution of Blame for Sexual Aggression in Public Drinking Spaces. *Feminist Criminology*, 10, 235-258.

BELLIS, M. A., QUIGG, Z., HUGHES, K., ASHTON, K., FERRIS, J. & WINSTOCK, A. 2015. Harms from other people's drinking: an international survey of their occurrence, impacts on feeling safe and legislation relating to their control. *BMJ Open*, **5**, e010112-e010112.

CALAFAT, A., HUGHES, K., BLAY, N., BELLIS, M. A., MENDES, F., JUAN, M., LAZAROV, P., CIBIN, B. & DUCH, M. A. 2013. Sexual Harassment among Young Tourists Visiting Mediterranean Resorts. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 42, 603-613.

CARES, A. C., BANYARD, V. L., MOYNIHAN, M. M., WILLIAMS, L. M., POTTER, S. J. & STAPLETON, J. G. 2015. Changing attitudes about being a bystander to violence: translating an in-person sexual violence prevention program to a new campus. *Violence Against Women*, 21, 165-187.

COKER, A. L., BUSH, H. M., FISHER, B. S., SWAN, S. C., WILLIAMS, C. M., CLEAR, E. R. & DEGUE, S. 2016. Multi-College Bystander Intervention Evaluation for Violence Prevention. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 50, 295-302.

COKER, A. L., COOK-CRAIG, P. G., WILLIAMS, C. M., FISHER, B. S., CLEAR, E. R., GARCIA, L. S. & HEGGE, L. M. 2011. Evaluation of Green Dot: An Active Bystander Intervention to Reduce Sexual Violence on College Campuses. *Violence Against Women*, **17**, 777-796.

COKER, A. L., FISHER, B. S., BUSH, H. M., SWAN, S. C., WILLIAMS, C. M., CLEAR, E. R. & DEGUE, S. 2015. Evaluation of the Green Dot Bystander Intervention to Reduce Interpersonal Violence Among College Students Across Three Campuses. *Violence Against Women*, 21, 1507-1527.

FLOWE, H. D., STEWART, J., SLEATH, E. R. & PALMER, F. T. 2011. Public House Patrons' Engagement in Hypothetical Sexual Assault: A Test of Alcohol Myopia Theory in a Field Setting. *Aggressive Behavior*, 37, 546-557.

FOUBERT, J. D., LANGHINRICHSEN-ROHLING, J., BRASFIELD, H. & HILL, B. 2010. Effects of a Rape Awareness Program on College Women: Increasing Bystander Efficacy and Willingness to Intervene. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 38, 813-827.

GIDYCZ, C. A., ORCHOWSKI, L. M. & BERKOWITZ, A. D. 2011. Preventing sexual aggression among college men: An evaluation of a social norms and bystander intervention program. *Violence Against Women*, 17, 720-742.

GRAHAM, K., BERNARDS, S., ABBEY, A., DUMAS, T. & WELLS, S. 2014. Young women's risk of sexual aggression in bars: the roles of intoxication and peer social status. *Drug & Alcohol Review*, 33, 393-400.

GRAHAM, K., BERNARDS, S., OSGOOD, D. W. & WELLS, S. 2006. Bad nights or bad bars? Multilevel analysis of environmental predictors of aggression in late-night large-capacity bars and clubs. *Addiction (Abingdon, England)*, 101, 1569-1580.

GRAHAM, K., BERNARDS, S., OSGOOD, D. W., ABBEY, A., PARKS, M., FLYNN, A., DUMAS, T. & WELLS, S. 2014a. 'Blurred lines?' Sexual aggression and barroom culture. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research*, 38, 1416-1424.

GRAHAM, K., TREMBLAY, P. F., WELLS, S., PERNANEN, K., PURCELL, J. & JELLEY, J. 2006. Harm, intent, and the nature of aggressive behavior: measuring naturally occurring aggression in barroom settings. *Assessment*, **13**, 280-296.

GRAHAM, K., WELLS, S., BERNARDS, S. & DENNISON, S. 2010. "Yes, I Do But Not With You"-Qualitative Analyses of Sexual/Romantic Overture-related Aggression in Bars and Clubs. *Contemporary Drug Problems*, 37, 2-2. HAHN, C. K., MORRIS, J. M. & JACOBS, G. A. 2016. Predictors of bystander behaviors and sexual assertiveness among college women attending a sexual assault prevention program. *Journal of Community Psychology*.

HARDCASTLE, K., HUGHES, K., & QUIGG, Z. (2015). Experiences and attitudes towards unwanted sexual touching in the night time economy: The impact of the There's No Excuse campaign. Liverpool: Centre for Public Health.

HINES, D. A. & PALM REED, K. M. 2015. An Experimental Evaluation of Peer versus Professional Educators of a Bystander Program for the Prevention of Sexual and Dating Violence among College Students. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma,* 24, 279-298.

HUBER, J. D. & HEROLD, E. S. 2006. Sexually overt approaches in singles bars. *Canadian Journal of Human Sexuality*, 15, 133-146.

HUGHES, K., ANDERSON, Z., MORLEO, M. & BELLIS, M. A. 2008. Alcohol, nightlife and violence: the relative contributions of drinking before and during nights out to negative health and criminal justice outcomes. *Addiction*, 103, 60-65.

JOHNSON, M. B., VOAS, R., MILLER, B., BOURDEAU, B. & BYRNES, H. 2015. Clubbing With Familiar Social Groups: Relaxed Vigilance and Implications for Risk. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol & Drugs*, 76, 924-927.

JOURILES, E. N., MCDONALD, R., ROSENFIELD, D., LEVY, N., SARGENT, K., CAIOZZO, C. & GRYCH, J. H. 2016. TakeCARE, a video bystander program to help prevent sexual violence on college campuses: Results of two randomized, controlled trials. *Psychology of Violence*, 6, 410-420.

KATZ, J. & MOORE, J. 2013. Bystander education training for campus sexual assault prevention: An initial meta-analysis. *Violence and Victims*, 28, 1054-1067.

KATZ, J., OLIN, R., HERMAN, C. & DUBOIS, M. 2013. Spotting the signs: First-year college students' responses to bystander-themed rape prevention posters. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 41, 523-529.

KAVANAUGH, P. R. & ANDERSON, T. L. 2009. Managing Physical and Sexual Assault Risk in Urban Nightlife: Individual- and Environmental-Level Influences. *Deviant Behavior*, 30, 680-714.

KAVANAUGH, P. R. 2013. The continuum of sexual violence: Women's accounts of victimization in urban nightlife. *Feminist Criminology*, 8, 20-39.

KELLEY-BAKER, T., MUMFORD, E. A., VISHNUVAJJALA, R., VOAS, R. B., ROMANO, E. & JOHNSON, M. 2008. A night in Tijuana: female victimization in a high-risk environment. *Journal of Alcohol & Drug Education*, 52, 46-71.

KLEINSASSER, A., JOURILES, E. N., MCDONALD, R. & ROSENFIELD, D. 2015. An Online Bystander Intervention Program for the Prevention of Sexual Violence. *Psychology Of Violence*, 5, 227-235.

LANGHINRICHSEN-ROHLING, J., FOUBERT, J. D., BRASFIELD, H. M., HILL, B. & SHELLEY-TREMBLAY, S. 2011. The Men's Program: Does It Impact College Men's Self-Reported Bystander Efficacy and Willingness to Intervene? *Violence Against Women*, 17, 743-759.

MCMAHON, S., ALLEN, C. T., POSTMUS, J. L., MCMAHON, S. M., PETERSON, N. A. & LOWE HOFFMAN, M. 2014. Measuring Bystander Attitudes and Behavior to Prevent Sexual Violence. *Journal of American College Health*, 62, 58-66.

MCMAHON, S., POSTMUS, J. L., WARRENER, C. & KOENICK, R. A. 2014. Utilizing Peer Education Theater for the Primary Prevention of Sexual Violence on College Campuses. *Journal of College Student Development*, 55, 78-85.

MILLER, B. A., BOURDEAU, B., JOHNSON, M. & VOAS, R. 2015. Experiencing Aggression in Clubs: Social Group and Individual Level Predictors. *Prevention Science*, 16, 527-537.

MITCHELL, K. S. & FREITAG, J. L. 2011. Forum Theatre for Bystanders: A New Model for Gender Violence Prevention. *Violence Against Women*, 17, 990-1013.

MOYNIHAN, M. M. & BANYARD, V. L. 2011. Educating Bystanders Helps Prevent Sexual Violence and Reduce Backlash. *Family & Intimate Partner Violence Quarterly*, **3**, 293-303.

MOYNIHAN, M. M., BANYARD, V. L., ARNOLD, J. S., ECKSTEIN, R. P. & STAPLETON, J. G. 2011. Sisterhood may be powerful for reducing sexual and intimate partner violence: An evaluation of the Bringing in the Bystander in-person program with sorority members. *Violence Against Women*, 17, 703-719.

PARKS, K. A. & MILLER, B. A. 1997. Bar victimization of women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 21, 509-525.

PARKS, K. A. & SCHEIDT, D. M. 2000. Male bar drinkers' perspective on female bar drinkers. *Sex Roles*, 43, 927-941.

PARKS, K. A. & ZETES-ZANATTA, L. 1999. A prospective, event-based analysis of sexual aggression associated with bars. *Aggressive Behavior*, 25, 2-3.

PARKS, K. A. & ZETES-ZANATTA, L. M. 1999. Women's bar-related victimization: Refining and testing a conceptual model. *Aggressive Behavior*, 25, 349-364.

PARKS, K. A., MILLER, B. A., COLLINS, R. L. & ZETES-ZANATTA, L. 1998. Women's descriptions of drinking in bars: Reasons and risks. *Sex Roles*, 38, 701-717.

PINO, N. W. & JOHNSON-JOHNS, A. M. 2009. College women and the occurrence of unwanted sexual advances in public drinking settings. *The Social Science Journal*, 46, 252-267.

21

RICH, E. P., NKOSI, S. & MOROJELE, N. K. 2015. Masculinities, alcohol consumption, and sexual risk behavior among male tavern attendees: A qualitative study in North West Province, South Africa. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 16, 382-392.

SALAZAR, L. F., VIVOLO-KANTOR, A., HARDIN, J. & BERKOWITZ, A. 2014. A web-based sexual violence bystander intervention for male college students: randomized controlled trial. *Journal Of Medical Internet Research*, 16, e203-e203.

SANTOS, M. G. R., PAES, A. T., SANUDO, A., ANDREONI, S. & SANCHEZ, Z. M. 2015. Gender Differences in Predrinking Behavior Among Nightclubs' Patrons. *Alcoholism, Clinical And Experimental Research*, 39, 1243-1252.

SHAW, J. & JANULIS, P. 2016. Re-evaluating sexual violence prevention through bystander education: A latent growth curve approach. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 31, 2729-2750.

THOMPSON, E. H., JR. & CRACCO, E. J. 2008. Sexual aggression in bars: What college men can normalize. *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 16, 82-96.

WALLER, M. W., IRITANI, B. J., CHRIST, S. L., CLARK, H. K., MORACCO, K. E., HALPERN, C. T. & FLEWELLING, R. L. 2012. Relationships among alcohol outlet density, alcohol use, and intimate partner violence victimization among young women in the United States. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 27, 2062-2086.

WATT, M. H., AUNON, F. M., SKINNER, D., SIKKEMA, K. J., KALICHMAN, S. C. & PIETERSE, D. 2012. "Because he has bought for her, he wants to sleep with her": Alcohol as a currency for sexual exchange in South African drinking venues. *Social Science & Medicine*, 74, 1005-1012.