

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

A transnational study using sequential triangulation and immersive technology to advance bystander intervention research in sexual assault

Labhardt, Danielle

Award date:
2019

Awarding institution:
Coventry University

[Link to publication](#)

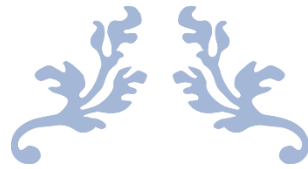
General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of this thesis for personal non-commercial research or study
- This thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission from the copyright holder(s)
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



**A transnational study using sequential
triangulation and immersive technology
to advance bystander intervention
research in sexual assault**

By

Danielle Labhardt

PhD

Collaborating Institution: University of the Sunshine Coast

September 2018



**A transnational study using sequential
triangulation and immersive technology
to advance bystander intervention
research in sexual assault**

By

Danielle Labhardt

PhD

Collaborating Institution: University of the Sunshine Coast

September 2018



*A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the University's requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy*

Most Recent Ethical Approval Certificate from Coventry University



Certificate of Ethical Approval

Applicant:

Danielle Labhardt

Project Title:

An experimental methodology to understand bystander intervention and awareness
of a sexual assault at a party

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry
University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and
approved as Medium Risk

Date of approval:

10 February 2018

Project Reference Number:

P62637

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to thank my amazing supervisory team, Dr. Emma Holdsworth, Professor Sarah Brown, Dr. Douglas Howat, Dr. Nadine McKillop, and Professor Christian Jones, for making this all possible.

Emma, your insights and ability to make me look at a problem from a different angle were invaluable throughout this journey. Thank you for all your amazing support, guidance, and encouragement throughout, making this a possibility.

Sarah, thank you for providing such great critical feedback. Your attention to detail and insights significantly improved my ability to write and create a strong argument. The advice you provided to think smaller and start at the beginning was invaluable to the development of my research idea.

Douglas, the insights you provided ensured that I thought about all angles of the argument. Thank you for all your comments and attention to clarity. It ensured that my writing was clear, and the arguments were easy to follow.

Nadine, thank you for all your help and making me feel so welcome when I first arrived in Australia and your guidance in getting to know the system at USC. Your feedback, constant support and encouragement throughout has helped me develop my skills as an academic.

Christian, thank you for welcoming me in the Engage Lab. I learned so much in my time there. Your questioning and critical insight into my research has been beyond valuable. On a side note, I think my joke delivery has definitely improved.

To Jason Riddell and Nick Hansen, without your support, guidance, and technological expertise the Immerse Studio would not have become what I imagined. Thank you for helping me making it happen and for all the motivational cookies!

Thank you to the ATP team at USC. I appreciate the time, contribution, and hard work you all dedicated to this research leading up to and including the day we collected data for the third study.

I would also like to say thank you to all the wonderful humans I have met and who have supported me along the way. To my best friend from home, thank you for being there, listening to me, and encouraging me along the way, you are the best. To my fellow PhD humans and friends at Coventry University and USC, and the amazing, yet sometimes crazy housemates, thank you for providing much needed support, distractions and comic relief. You have made this journey unforgettable.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my family, especially my mom for always supporting me throughout my academic journey. I could not have done this without you. Thank you for always being there, believing I could do it, and encouraging me no matter what.

Abstract

University students are more vulnerable to being sexually victimised than the general public. To address this, research has focused on what influences bystander intervention. A systematic review revealed that this area of research is predominately USA-based, relying on self-report data to understand what influences bystander intervention. There were two aims of this research: (1) to compare a UK and Australian university to understand what influences bystander intervention regarding sexual assault on university campuses; and (2) design an ecologically valid and reliable way to measure *actual* bystander behaviour. Using sequential triangulation, three studies were conducted. Study one utilised a qualitative approach to explore students' perceptions about sexual assault and bystander intervention. Transnationally, ambiguity was a key factor that influenced the interpretation of what sexual assault entails. Themes around where sexual assaults occur, who the victim and perpetrator are, and what could influence intervention were also discussed. These findings informed the quantitative design of study two, which used vignettes, to understand the predictive power individual (e.g., bystander efficacy) and contextual (e.g., being alone or with friends) factors had on the likelihood of intervening. Contrary to past research, findings demonstrated that there is a bi-directional relationship between individual and contextual factors influencing intervention. Lastly, the combined findings of studies one and two influenced the design of study three. A mixed-methods approach was utilised to shift the bystander research towards developing an experimental methodology. This innovative, transnational research demonstrated intent to intervene and actual behaviour are not as closely linked as is commonly believed. Developing bystander intervention programmes using immersive technology could be an effective method for examining and

encouraging bystander behaviour and thereby reduce rates of sexual assault on university campuses.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	11
1.0 Research Rationale	11
1.1 Research Aim and Research Question.....	15
1.2 Thesis structure.....	16
Chapter 2: You See But You Do Not Observe: A Review of Bystander Intervention and Sexual Assault on University Campuses	18
2.0 Chapter Aims.....	18
2.1 Introduction	19
2.2 Method.....	22
2.3 Results	23
2.3.1 How Likelihood of Bystander Intervention is Assessed	23
2.3.2 Bystander Predictors used to Assess Likelihood of Bystander Intervention.	32
2.4 Discussion.....	53
Chapter 3: Methodology	57
3.0 Introduction	57
3.1 Research Rationale: Mixed Methodology	57
3.1.1 Study Order and Design Using Sequential Triangulation	59
3.1.2 Rationale for Data Collection and Thematic Analysis	61
3.1.3 Rationale for Quantitative Method	63
3.2 Ethical Considerations.....	64
3.3 Epistemological Position	67
3.4 Summary.....	68
Chapter 4: Let's talk about sex: The nature and scope of sexual assault, and intervening behaviour, on university campuses.....	70
4.0 Chapter Aims.....	70
4.1 Introduction	71
4.2 Methodology.....	73
4.2.1 Design.....	73
4.2.2 Materials	74
4.2.3 Participants	76
4.2.4 Procedure	77
4.2.5 Data Analysis.....	78
4.3 Findings	79
4.3.1 Complexities Surrounding Sexual Assault	81
4.3.2 Contributing risk factors for sexual assault	91

4.3.3 Individual perceptions and justifications of the victim and perpetrator	96
4.3.4 Intricacies surrounding victim experiences and decision-making.....	101
4.3.5 To intervene or not to intervene	106
4.3.6 Techniques to raise awareness on sexual assault.....	113
4.4 Discussion.....	118
Chapter 5: Things are not always what they seem: The influence of individual and contextual factors on bystander intent to intervene	123
5.0 Chapter Aims.....	123
5.1 Introduction	124
5.2 Methods	126
5.2.1 Participants	126
5.2.2 Measures	128
5.2.3 Procedure	134
5.3 Results	135
5.3.1 Actual Behaviour.....	140
5.4 Discussion.....	143
5.4.1 Limitations and Research Implications	148
5.4.2 Conclusion	149
Chapter 6: To intervene or not to intervene: An experimental methodology measuring actual bystander behaviour	151
6.0 Chapter Aims.....	151
6.1 Introduction	152
6.1.1 Designing the Mixed-Method Study	157
6.2 Methods	165
6.2.1 Design.....	165
6.2.2 Participants	168
6.2.3 Measures	170
6.2.4 Procedure	174
6.2.5 Data Analysis.....	178
6.3 Results	181
6.3.1 Thematic Analysis	181
6.3.2 Quantitative Analysis	192
6.4 Discussion.....	196
6.4.1 Conclusion.....	204
Chapter 7: Discussion.....	206
7.0 Introduction	206

7.1 Research Objectives and Summary of Findings.....	206
7.1.1 Chapter Four.....	207
7.1.2 Chapter Five	208
7.1.3 Chapter Six	208
7.2 Discussion.....	209
7.2.1 Ambiguity around Sexual Assault: The Impact on Intent and <i>Actual</i> Bystander Behaviour	209
7.2.2 Individual and Contextual Factors are Mutually Contingent in Influencing Bystander Behaviour	211
7.2.3 Unique Contributions	212
7.2.4 Personal Reflections	214
7.3 Limitations.....	216
7.4 Implications for Research.....	217
7.5 Implications for Practice.....	221
7.6 Conclusion.....	223
References	226
Appendices	257
Appendix 1: Published Systematic Review from Chapter Two	257
Appendix 2: Participant Information Sheet for Study One (Chapter Four).....	258
Appendix 3: Participant Information Sheet for Study Three (Chapter Six)	260
Appendix 4: Consent Form for Study One (Chapter Four)	262
Appendix 5: Online Questionnaire for Study Two including Information, Consent, and Debrief (Chapter Five).....	263
Appendix 6: Debrief form for Study One (Chapter Four).....	307
Appendix 7: Initial General Consent Form for Study Three (Chapter Six)	308
Appendix 8: Interview Schedule/Funnelling Debrief for Study Three (Chapter Six)	309
Appendix 9: Post-Debrief Consent Form for Study Three (Chapter Six).....	310
Appendix 10: Debrief Form for Study Three (Chapter Six)	311
Appendix 11: Interview Schedule for Study One (Chapter Four).....	313
Appendix 12: Online Questionnaire for Study Three (Chapter Six).....	315
Appendix 13: Example Photo use for Kinect Motion Monitor for Study Three (Chapter Six).....	333
Appendix 14: Immerse Studio Set Up and Camera Angles for Study Three (Chapter Six).....	334
Appendix 15: Ethics Certificates	335

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Research Rationale

Sexual assault is a growing concern worldwide (Abrahams et al., 2014).

Definitions surrounding sexual assault vary depending on the country in question. In the USA, sexual assault is defined as “sexual contact or behaviour that occurs without explicit consent of the victim” (RAINN, 2018b, para. 2). Sexual assault, in the UK, is defined as when one person intentionally touches another in a sexual manner without consent (GOV.UK, 2004). However, in Australia, sexual assault is defined as “acts, or intent of acts, of a sexual nature against another person, which are non-consensual or where consent is proscribed” (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2008, p. 31). While the definitions vary, the same key principles of absence of consent and unwanted sexual behaviour remain constant across definitions.

Prevalence rates for sexual assault vary depending on the country and the population. For example, in the US 321,500 individuals (one in six women; one in 33 men) are sexually victimised per year (RAINN, 2018a). In the UK 38,094 individuals (34,547 females; 3,547 males) are sexually victimised per year (Ministry of Justice, 2013). Similarly, in Australia 23,052 individuals (18,861 females; 4,110 males) are sexually victimised per year (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016). These prevalence rates are based on self-report data and police recorded data. It is important to note that these figures are based on estimations and that actual figures are difficult to determine. This could be associated with the problem of under-reporting, and while under-reporting applies to both genders, research suggests men are more reluctant to report compared to women (WHO, 2009). Notwithstanding the reluctance of male victims to report, it

appears that females are more likely to be victimised compared to males. Furthermore, the risk of sexual assault is highest among university students (Ministry of Justice, 2013; National Union of Students, 2010; Universities UK, 2016; Williams, 2014). Approximately one in nine US university students (RAINN, 2018a), one in seven UK university students (National Union of Students, 2010), and one in ten Australian university students (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017) are sexually assaulted every year. Yet, only about 20% of US victims (Hefling, 2014), 10% of UK victims (National Union of Students, 2011), and 4.8% of Australian victims (National Union of Students, 2015) will report the assault to the police. In recent years however, reports of sexual assaults have become more publicised. For example, the #MeToo Movement (Metoomvmt, n.d.) has increased the public's awareness of sexual assault. Consequently, more attention is being directed towards the problem of sexual assault and more is being undertaken to reduce the number of cases. The increase in media awareness around sexual assault and given the low reporting rates, bystander research has begun to focus on sexual assault.

Bystander research generated increased attention after Kitty Genovese was raped and murdered on the streets of New York in 1964 (Merry, 2016). Initial reports stated 38 bystanders witnessed the assault and did not intervene, this sparked the development of bystander research lead by researchers Darley and Latané (1968). Typically, bystander research focused broadly on emergency and non-emergency situations to understand what influences bystander intervention (see Fischer et al., 2011 for a meta-analysis). Factors such as the bystander effect, which focused on the phenomenon that the more people that are present the less likely any one bystander would be to intervene (e.g., Darley & Latané, 1968). This is attributed to diffusion of responsibility that

suggests people believe someone else is going to or has already done something to intervene (Darley & Latané, 1968; Feldman & Rosen, 1978; Latané & Darley, 1968; Latané & Rodin, 1969). Furthermore, in recent years, in an effort to combat the prevalence of sexual assault, bystander research (e.g., Burn, 2009) has begun to focus on sexual assault on university campuses.

Research suggests that the risk of victimisation is highest among UK women aged 16 to 19 (Ministry of Justice, 2013; Universities UK, 2016) and Australian women aged 18 to 24 (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017), studying full-time, and who visit pubs or night clubs at least once a week (Ministry of Justice, 2013; World Health Organization, 2002). The consumption of alcohol in a party environment increases the risk of sexual victimisation (Tyler, Schmitz, & Adams, 2017). However, perhaps due to the social nature of these locations, researchers have also identified that while approximately a third of all sexual assaults are witnessed by a bystander, only 33% of bystanders intervene (Burn, 2009; Planty, 2002).

Given the high rates of sexual assault on university campuses and the need for greater bystander intervention, the present research focuses on what influences bystander intervention in sexual assault on university campuses. An understanding of what influences bystander intervention is needed to develop ways of enhancing the likelihood of bystander intervention and thereby reducing the rates of sexual assault. While both men and women can be victims of sexual assault, in order to reflect the higher reported rates of female victims, the victims of sexual assault portrayed in this research will be female university students. Research also suggests that males are more likely to be perpetrators of sexual assault (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2004;

Ministry of Justice, 2013; Towl, 2016). Therefore, males will be portrayed as perpetrators of sexual assault in this research.

A preliminary search of the literature suggests that the majority of research underpinning bystander intervention on university campuses has been conducted in the US. As such, there could be unintended implications in relation to the design and implementation of bystander intervention programmes in different countries. For example, US data has been utilised to inform the bystander intervention programmes within countries such as the UK and Australia. For example, in the UK, the University of the West of England has developed the bystander initiative toolkit (Fenton, Mott, McCartan, & Rumney, 2014) and New Zealand in conjunction with Australia has developed the “Who Are You?” video (WhoAreYou, n.d.), which focuses on the different points in time when a bystander could intervene. Relying on US data for the design of these programmes could be problematic, both regarding societal/cultural differences and as some aspects of university life are not directly comparable. For example, in the US, fraternities (primarily male-only) and sororities (female-only), which are exclusive social organisations, are often a norm of university life. However, these groups are rarely, if at all, present at universities outside the US.

Considering the differences between US universities (e.g., fraternities) and how their social structures vary, the context of sexual assault scenarios could vary as well. Therefore, in order to innovate this area of research, transnational comparisons are much-needed. Concerns about sexual assault at UK and Australia universities has been increasing. Initiatives such as the bystander initiative toolkit (e.g., Fenton et al., 2014) are being implemented in the UK to address the problem of sexual assault. Furthermore, there were reports from the Universities UK (Universities UK, 2016) and the Australian

Human Rights Commission (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017) that were released recently, that provided an overview of the scope of the problem and recommendations to address the problem on both UK and Australian university campuses. Given this progress and acknowledgement of the problem, research in the area of bystander intervention in sexual assault needs to be developed in both the UK and Australia. With this in mind, an opportunity to collaborate with an Australian University, in order to make this comparison, was taken advantage of. Comparisons are important in determining the extent to which findings from one country can be applied to the design of initiatives in another.

1.1 Research Aim and Research Question

The aim of this research was to develop the knowledge base around bystander intervention and sexual assault on university campuses. This research is needed to develop evidence-based interventions to improve bystander intervention programmes on university campuses targeting the reduction of the prevalence of sexual assaults. In order to accomplish this, the objectives of the present research are comprised of three parts. First is to review the existing research and identify any gaps or methodological issues and limitations. Second is to focus on transnationally examining the factors that influence bystander intervention – specifically in a UK and Australia university context. Lastly, to identify and implement a way to advance the area of research of bystander intervention in sexual assault.

The research questions below were formulated from the research aims in conjunction with the course of conducting the systematic review reported in Chapter Two (Labhardt, Holdsworth, Brown, & Howat, 2017):

- I. What are the perceptions and understanding university students have regarding sexual assault and how we can reduce it?*
- II. What factors increase or decrease the likelihood of bystander intervention regarding sexual assault within a university context?*
- III. How can the methods used in bystander intervention research be advanced to further our knowledge in this area?*

1.2 Thesis structure

To answer these questions, this PhD thesis will be structured as follows:

Chapter Two is a systematic review of the research on what influences bystander intervention in sexual assault on university campuses. This review was a main contributor in identifying the gaps within the literature and helped to refine the aim and research questions for this research project. This review was submitted and accepted for publication in 2017. The published version is presented as Chapter Two.

Chapter Three is the general methodology chapter. Details of the method for each study are presented in the corresponding chapter. This chapter provides a rationale for the mixed methodology adopted for the thesis. Furthermore, the epistemological position that determined how the thesis is analysed and interpreted is presented here.

Chapter Four presents the first of three empirical studies conducted. Qualitative research was conducted at Coventry University and at the University of the Sunshine Coast (USC) to explore what influences bystander intervention.

Chapter Five presents the second study. The aim of this study was to transnationally compare the factors that influence bystander intervention according to participating students at Coventry University and at USC.

Chapter Six is the last of the three studies. The study aim was to employ the factors identified in studies one and two to design an experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour.

Chapter Seven concludes the thesis with a synthesis and discussion of the research and how this addressed the aim and research questions. The limitations of the research, implications, and directions for future research are also discussed.

Chapter 2: You See But You Do Not Observe: A Review of Bystander Intervention and Sexual Assault on University Campuses

2.0 Chapter Aims

The aim of this chapter is to present a review of the literature on what is known about what influences bystander intervention regarding sexual assault on university campuses. The review is split into two sections: (1) bystander factors; and (2) bystander predictors associated with the likelihood of bystander intervention. This review provided the rationale and aim for the overall design and structure of the thesis. The literature review was published by *Aggression and Violent Behavior* in June 2017 (the full reference is provided below). The published paper can be found in Appendix 1.

Labhardt, D., Holdsworth, E., Brown, S., & Howat, D. (2017). You see but you do not observe: A review of bystander intervention and sexual assault on university campuses. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 35, 13-25. doi: 10.106/j.avb.2017.05.005

2.1 Introduction

Bystander intervention research began in the 1960s (e.g., Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Darley, 1968; Latané & Rodin, 1969) after the rape and murder of Kitty Genovese, where an alleged 38 witnesses failed to intervene (Merry, 2016). Researchers focused on both emergency and non-emergency situations (e.g., see Fischer et al., 2011 for a review) to understand the bystander effect, a phenomenon where likelihood to intervene decreases if other bystanders are present (Latané & Darley, 1970). Findings suggest that when a bystander is alone (Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Rodin, 1969; Levine, Cassidy, Brazier, & Reicher, 2002) and if the victim is a friend or in the same in-group as the bystander (Latané & Rodin, 1969; Levine et al., 2002) likelihood of intervening increases. Conversely, if the situation is ambiguous (Clark & Word, 1972; Latané & Nida, 1981; Latané & Rodin, 1969) or other bystanders are present (diffusion of responsibility; e.g., Feldman & Rosen, 1978; Latané & Darley, 1968; Latané & Rodin, 1969), the likelihood of intervening decreases. However, research demonstrated that when the seriousness of an emergency increases and was considered to be dangerous, the bystander effect was reduced (Fischer, Greitemeyer, Pollozek, & Frey, 2006). The situation was interpreted to be clearer and bystander intervention increased regardless of the presence of others due to the perceived danger to the victim. A sexual assault for example could be interpreted to be a serious event where the cost of not intervening could be high for the victim.

Sexual assault is a serious problem (Kimble, Neacsiu, Flack, & Horner, 2008; Martin, Fisher, Warner, Krebs, & Lindquist, 2011). It is legally defined under the sexual offences act – 2003 as one person intentionally touching another person in a sexual manner without consent (GOV.UK, 2004). Touching is defined as touching or

penetration of any part of the victim, with any part of the perpetrator's body or with anything else such as an object (GOV.UK, 2004). Approximately, one in four female students in the USA are sexually assaulted every year (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Kleinsasser, Jouriles, McDonald, & Rosenfield, 2015). Researchers in the USA focus on university students as the party culture increases the risk of sexual assaults occurring in a public or party location (Fischer et al., 2011); they are producing research to combat the problem (e.g., Potter, Stapleton, & Moynihan, 2008). Conversely, approximately one in seven female students in the UK are sexually assaulted every year (National Union of Students, 2010); risk of victimisation is highest among women aged 16 to 19, who are studying full-time, and who visit pubs or night clubs at least once a week (Ministry of Justice, 2013). Given the negative consequences associated with sexual assault such as post-traumatic stress disorder (Briere & Jordan, 2004), substance abuse (Kilpatrick et al., 2000), and risk of committing suicide (Ullman & Brecklin, 2002), it is vital to identify ways to decrease the alarmingly high prevalence rates of sexual assault on university campuses.

Differing views exist on how to address the problem of sexual assault on campus. One review suggests prevention of sexual assault should be the responsibility of women (see Söchting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004). Others say responsibility should be on the men as they are most often the perpetrators (see Berkowitz, 1992; McDermott, Kilmartin, McKelvey, & Kridel, 2015). Finally, some believe that bystander intervention is the way to decrease prevalence rates (see Latané & Darley, 1970 where they present the importance of bystander intervention and the five steps to intervening); bystanders (also known as third party witnesses) can be encouraged to intervene before, during, or after a sexual assault has occurred (McMahon et al., 2014). However, all

three perspectives fail to account for the effects of rape culture. Rape culture is defined as promoting sexual assault, excusing men (perpetrators), and increasing victim blaming (Armstrong, Hamilton, & Sweeney, 2006). Consequently, victims of sexual assault are hesitant to report due to low conviction rates, not being believed, or feeling embarrassed (Beckford, 2012).

Bystander intervention is needed as it could be used to reduce the prevalence rates of sexual assault on university campuses as the “numbers have remained stubbornly unchanged over 30 years” (Senn & Forrest, 2016; p. 607). An effective bystander intervention program should be able to impart knowledge and awareness regarding what sexual assault is, prevalence rates, negative consequences associated with victimisation, learning to identify possible warning signs, and the opportunity to develop the skills and confidence to effectively intervene with minimal negative repercussions. Bystander intervention programs could then be a tool utilised to debunk rape culture and provide victims with confidence and additional support to report a sexual assault. Most importantly, it could increase overall bystander intervention as currently, according to Burn (2009) and Planty (2002), a third of all sexual assaults are witnessed by a bystander, yet they only intervene a third of the time.

Progress has been made in utilising bystander intervention programs, such as the ‘Bringing in the Bystander’ (Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007) or the Green Dot bystander intervention program (Green Dot, 2016) to develop prosocial bystander behaviours. Researchers such as Senn and Forrest (2016) have been successfully evaluating and applying these programs to test the effectiveness of improving bystander attitudes and behaviour regarding sexual assault; their findings have confirmed the effectiveness of the workshop when included as part of the undergraduate curriculum.

Bystander intervention is therefore, a valuable resource that could be exploited to reduce prevalence rates (McMahon & Farmer, 2009; Senn & Forrest, 2016). However, while bystander intervention programs have produced positive results prevalence rates remain unchanged, suggesting further research is needed to investigate what influences bystander intervention. In order to identify the gaps within the field of bystander intervention and sexual assault on university campuses in the UK and develop the aims and rationale for this PhD project a thorough understanding of what affects intervention is required. Given the emergence of bystander intervention programs, it is essential that these programs are further developed and underpinned by the necessary evidence base in terms of bystander intervention and sexual assault research.

The review has two aims: (1) to define the different factors utilised in examining the likelihood of bystander intervention; and (2) examine the different measures used to identify the barriers and facilitators that influence bystander intervention. Gaining a comprehensive understanding of the factors that predict bystander intervention in relation to sexual assault on university campuses will provide a useful synopsis of the existing research that can be used to design and develop the studies that will comprise this project.

2.2 Method

A search of Academic Search Complete, MEDLINE, PsycArticles, and PsycINFO was conducted to locate peer-reviewed empirical articles focusing on factors that influence bystander intervention regarding sexual assault on university campuses. The search terms used included combinations, synonyms, and derivatives of the following terms: bystander; university; student; sex assault; bystander intervention; bystander effect; university campus; sexual assault on campus; university students;

likelihood of intervening; intervene; report; barriers; facilitators; and helping behaviour. No time restriction was applied. The search returned 89 studies. Studies were included if they utilised a university sample, and measured the likelihood of a bystander intervening in a sexual assault. Studies were excluded if they were dissertations, conference abstracts, analyzed the bystander scale, evaluated a bystander intervention program, or designed an intervention program as the purpose of the review was to define and examine what factors inhibit and facilitate bystander intervention during a sexual assault. A total of 28 studies met the criteria for the review.

2.3 Results

Table 2 provides a description of the 28 studies included in the review, as well as what factors were assessed regarding the likelihood of bystander intervention and sexual assault. The studies are diverse in terms of the aim(s) of the studies and they were all conducted within the USA. Twenty-three of the studies were quantitative in nature, three utilised a mixed methods approach, and two were qualitative. Of all 28 studies only two were experimental.

The results are divided into two sections with corresponding tables and links to figure 1. The first section focuses on the various factors (hereon in referred to as bystander factors) used to assess the likelihood of bystander intervention. The second section is comprised of a summary of the variables (hereon in referred to as bystander predictors) investigated in relation to the bystander factors to determine the likelihood of bystander intervention.

2.3.1 How Likelihood of Bystander Intervention is Assessed

A brief overview of the bystander factors and the respective definition is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Bystander Factors: Definitions and assessment tools

Bystander Factor	How Factor was Defined and Assessed	Authors
Rape Myth Attitudes	-False beliefs of rape that justify male sexual aggression and encourage victim blaming -Rape myths were measured using the rape myth acceptance scale	Amar, Sutherland, and Laughon (2014); Banyard (2008); Banyard and Moynihan (2011); Brosi, Foubert, Bannon, and Yandell (2011); Brown and Messman-Moore (2010); Fleming and Wiersma-Mosley (2015); Foubert, Brosi, and Bannon (2011); Hust et al. (2013); Hust, Maret, Lei, Ren, and Ran (2015); Katz, Olin, Herman, and DuBois (2013); McMahon (2010)
Bystander Efficacy	-Efficacy refers to one's confidence in their ability to intervene -Bystander efficacy was measured using the bystander efficacy scale	Amar et al. (2014); Banyard (2008); Banyard and Moynihan (2011); Brosi et al. (2011); Exner and Cummings (2011); Foubert (2013); Foubert et al. (2011)
Bystander Intent	-Bystander intent is the likelihood or willingness of a bystander intervening in a sexual assault -Bystander intent is measured using the bystander intent scale	Amar et al. (2014); Banyard and Moynihan (2011); Banyard, Moynihan, Cares, and Warner (2014); Brosi et al. (2011); Brown and Messman-Moore (2010); Foubert (2013); Foubert et al. (2011); Hust et al. (2013); Katz et al. (2013); Katz, Pazienza, Olin, and Rich (2015); McMahon and Farmer (2009); Nicksa (2014)
Bystander Behaviour	-Bystander behaviour measures actual behaviours one has used when intervening in a sexual assault -Bystander behaviour is measured using the bystander behaviour scale	Amar et al. (2014); Banyard (2008); Banyard and Moynihan (2011); Banyard et al. (2014); Bennett, Banyard, and Garnhart (2014); Brown, Banyard, and Moynihan (2014); Burn (2009); Carlson (2008); Harari, Harari, and White (1985); Koelsch, Brown, and Boisen (2012); McMahon, Banyard, and McMahon (2015); Shotland and Stebbins (1980)

2.3.1.1 Rape myth attitudes. Ten studies examined rape myth acceptance by utilising the rape myth acceptance scale (Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011;

Brosi et al., 2011; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; Foubert et al., 2011; Hust et al., 2013; Hust et al., 2015; Katz et al., 2013; McMahon, 2010). One study examined an equivalent: date rape attitudes using the college date rape attitude scale (Amar et al., 2014). Rape myth attitudes are the belief in prejudiced views and falsely advertised stereotypes promoting victim blame, rape normalization, and supporting or excusing sexual assault (Burt, 1980; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999). Date rape attitudes are similar to rape myths in that it measures rape attitudes, and societal bias regarding sexual assault (Amar et al., 2014; Lanier & Elliot, 1997). However, it differs in that there are only 20 items using a 5 point Likert scale (Lanier & Elliot, 1997; Lanier & Green, 2006).

The rape myth acceptance scale was developed by Payne et al. (1999). There are two forms of the rape myth acceptance scale: original and short form. The original is comprised of 45 questions – can identify what type of rape myth an individual holds and the short form is comprised of 20 questions – can identify whether an individual holds a rape myth, but not what type of rape myth (Payne et al., 1999). The scale consists of seven consistent aspects to assess rape myths including: (1) she asked for it; (2) it wasn't really rape; (3) he didn't mean to; (4) she wanted it; (5) she lied; (6) rape is a trivial event; and (7) rape is a deviant event (Payne et al., 1999). Each aspect has its own set of questions. Participants' answer each question on a scale of strongly agree to strongly disagree. A high rape myth acceptance score suggests the participant justifies the crime on some level (i.e., Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010). Therefore, a high score may be associated with a lower likelihood of intervening (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015). The rape myth acceptance scale has

construct validity of $r = .50 - .75, p < .05$ (Payne et al., 1999), making it a useful tool to measure rape myths.

Rape myth or date rape attitudes provide an insight into attitudes and intervening behaviour (e.g., Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015). The rape myth acceptance scale is favored as it provides an insight into what factors contribute to high rape myths; this will be examined in depth in section 2. Measuring rape myth acceptance is important in identifying what affects a bystander's likelihood of intervening and can be used to develop effective bystander intervention programs. However, it may be presumptuous to view one's score on the rape myth acceptance scale as the main contributing factor influencing the likelihood of bystander intervention. LaPiere (1934) suggested an alternative view that perhaps attitudes are not always predictive of behaviours, but perhaps behaviours can shape attitudes. Beliefs about how behaviours can produce certain outcomes can influence personal attitudes, intentions, and behaviours (Ajzen, 1985). This means if one believes that intervening is associated with a severe negative consequence, the person's attitude is likely to be against performing the behaviour. Consequently, this could negatively influence one's confidence, intent, and behaviour. This will be examined in more detail in section 2.

2.3.1.2 Bystander efficacy. Bandura (1977) defined self-efficacy as one's belief in his/her ability to perform certain actions or behaviours. Seven studies measured and defined bystander efficacy as a bystander's perceived level of confidence in their ability to perform the necessary behaviours to successfully intervene (Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Brosi et al., 2011; Exner & Cummings,

2011; Foubert, 2013; Foubert et al., 2011). The bystander efficacy scale was developed by Banyard, Plante, and Moynihan (2005) in 2002.

The scale depicts a variety of bystander behaviours. Participants have to report how confident they are, in percentage form, in performing the listed behaviour (Banyard et al., 2005). Measuring bystander efficacy could provide an insight into the likelihood of bystander intervention. A high score on the bystander efficacy scale suggests the bystander is confident in his/her ability to effectively intervene (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011); this suggests that when the pros of intervening outweigh the cons, individuals will have a higher self-efficacy score as they believe the cost (i.e., perpetrator is too intimidating) of intervening is minimal (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011). Consequently, the minimal cost to intervening may have a direct impact on one's intent and actual bystander behaviour (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011).

To conclude, utilising the bystander efficacy scale can be a good predictor of intervening behaviour (Ajzen, 1985; Bandura, 1977). Low self-efficacy scores decrease likelihood of intervening and high scores increase likelihood of intervening. However, a number of personal (i.e., personal and peer attitudes) and situational (i.e., presence of others) factors may influence self-efficacy. Bystander efficacy scales only predict intent and behaviour—this will be explored in detail in section 2. Therefore, bystander efficacy scales should be used in conjunction with rape myth acceptance and bystander intent. These two measures may aid in accounting for factors that influence self-efficacy and consequently intervening behaviour.

2.3.1.3 Bystander intent. Thirteen studies measured bystander intent (Amar et al., 2014; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Banyard et al., 2014; Brosi et al., 2011; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Foubert, 2013; Foubert et al., 2011; Hust et al., 2013; Katz et

al., 2013; Katz et al., 2015; McMahon & Farmer, 2009; Nicksa, 2014). Bystander intent is a self-report on the likelihood to engage in bystander intervention behaviour (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011); it provides insight into how factors influence one's willingness to intervene. Banyard et al. (2005) created the scale used to measure one's intent to intervene. The scale is comprised of 51 potential bystander intervening behaviours. The items are derived from the literature, discussions with professionals within the field, and a pilot study conducted with university students (Banyard et al., 2005). Participants rate each item using a five point Likert scale to indicate how likely they are to perform the mentioned behaviour. A high score on the bystander intent scale suggests the participant has a high self-reported intent to intervene if confronted with a sexual assault.

Bystander intent only predicts actual bystander behaviour if the bystander has a strong control over the situation and if audience inhibition – fear of negative reactions from peers – is not a factor (Ajzen, 1985; Latané & Nida, 1981). Typically, hypothetical scenarios are used to assess for bystander intent (e.g., Nicksa, 2014). A limitation to using hypothetical scenarios is that individuals often want to portray themselves in a favorable light (this will be discussed in further detail in section 2 under social desirability). However, what one says they will do is not always what they would actually do when confronted with a real sexual assault (McMahon et al., 2014). Contrary to this, the bystander intent scale has good internal consistency and internal reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .85 (Banyard et al., 2005). It can therefore, be considered a good tool to measure bystander intent if all situational factors are accounted for, as situational factors can sometimes contradict personal beliefs (Warner & DeFleur, 1969).

To conclude, bystander intent is not a factor that should be used alone to determine the likelihood of bystander intervention in sexual assault. Many factors influence bystander intent such as rape myth acceptance and self-efficacy; therefore, bystander intent should be used in conjunction with the previous factors to increase the predictive validity of the bystander intent scale. Higher predictive validity may then be associated with a higher likelihood of predicting actual bystander intervening behaviour.

2.3.1.4 Bystander behaviour. Twelve studies examined bystander behaviours (Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Banyard et al., 2014; Bennett et al., 2014; Brown et al., 2014; Burn, 2009; Carlson, 2008; Harari et al., 1985; Koelsch et al., 2012; McMahon et al., 2015; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980). Bystander behaviour accounts for actual behaviours used by bystanders to intervene in a sexual assault. It is measured using the bystander behaviour scale (BBS). The BBS is the same scale used to measure bystander intent (Banyard et al., 2005); however, now participants provide ‘yes’ or ‘no’ responses depending on if they have performed the behaviour in recent months.

Bystander behaviour can be demonstrated before, during, or after a sexual assault has occurred (McMahon et al., 2014). For example, one could intervene when sexist language (i.e., ‘ho’, ‘bitch’, or ‘slut’ is used to describe women) is used in a negative manner towards women - before, one could confront the perpetrator about taking advantage of a woman who is intoxicated or unconscious - during, or one could aid the victim in reporting the rape to the appropriate authorities - after (McMahon et al., 2014). Regardless, of the type of intervention, approximately $\frac{3}{4}$ of bystanders (McMahon et al., 2015) intervene immediately when they identify a situation that requires intervention (Shotland & Stebbins, 1980); this will be discussed in section 2.

The immediate reaction to intervene provides a direct link to confidence, suggesting a bystander has a high level of self-efficacy – see figure 1 for reference.

All the bystander factors mentioned are interrelated, producing a cause and effect relationship, increasing the predictive validity; for example, low rape myths allow an individual to see sexual assault as a problem (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Foubert, 2013; Katz et al., 2015) and increase the sense of responsibility and confidence for intervening (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Banyard et al., 2014; Katz et al., 2015). Measuring actual bystander behaviour could provide the answer in how the other factors influence intervention – see figure 1. However, actual bystander behaviour is difficult to measure as researchers rely on self-reports which is prone to memory recall problems (i.e., Amar et al., 2014; Brown et al., 2014). Therefore, utilising the bystander behaviour scale alone could result in misinterpretation of what intervening behaviour was actually performed – possible methods to account for the limitation are discussed in section 2.

Ideally, it would be best to measure actual intervening behaviour as it occurs in a real sexual assault to get the best representation of bystander behaviour. It would be easier to determine what factors are involved in facilitating behaviour. However, measuring actual behaviour in this manner is not feasible due to ethical and time constraints. Perhaps, there would be a way to conduct a lab induced experiment to measure actual bystander behaviour when a sexual assault scenario is presented. To conclude, bystander behaviour is what researchers are interested in. If one is able to predict behaviour, bystander intervention programs can be designed and implemented to reduce sexual assault prevalence rates.

Figure 1 is a single interpretation of the literature. The figure is derived from the bystander factors reviewed; it depicts a taxonomy of the factors investigated in relation

to the likelihood of bystander intervention and the relationships that may exist among these bystander factors. The review examines four main bystander factors as seen in figure 1: attitudes (short for rape myth attitudes), confidence (short for bystander efficacy), bystander intent, and bystander behaviour. Typically, it is suggested that there is a linear progression from attitudes to behaviour. However, the literature review suggests that the bystander factors are interrelated. It was interpreted that confidence and behaviour have a direct impact on each other; bystander intent can affect attitudes and confidence retrospectively; and bystander behaviour is seen as the ultimate goal in predicting future behaviour. The model depicted represents the information examined in section 1, as well as the possible bystander predictors that are demonstrated to have an effect on the bystander factors found within the literature. The different bystander predictors and their effect on bystander factors are examined in section 2.

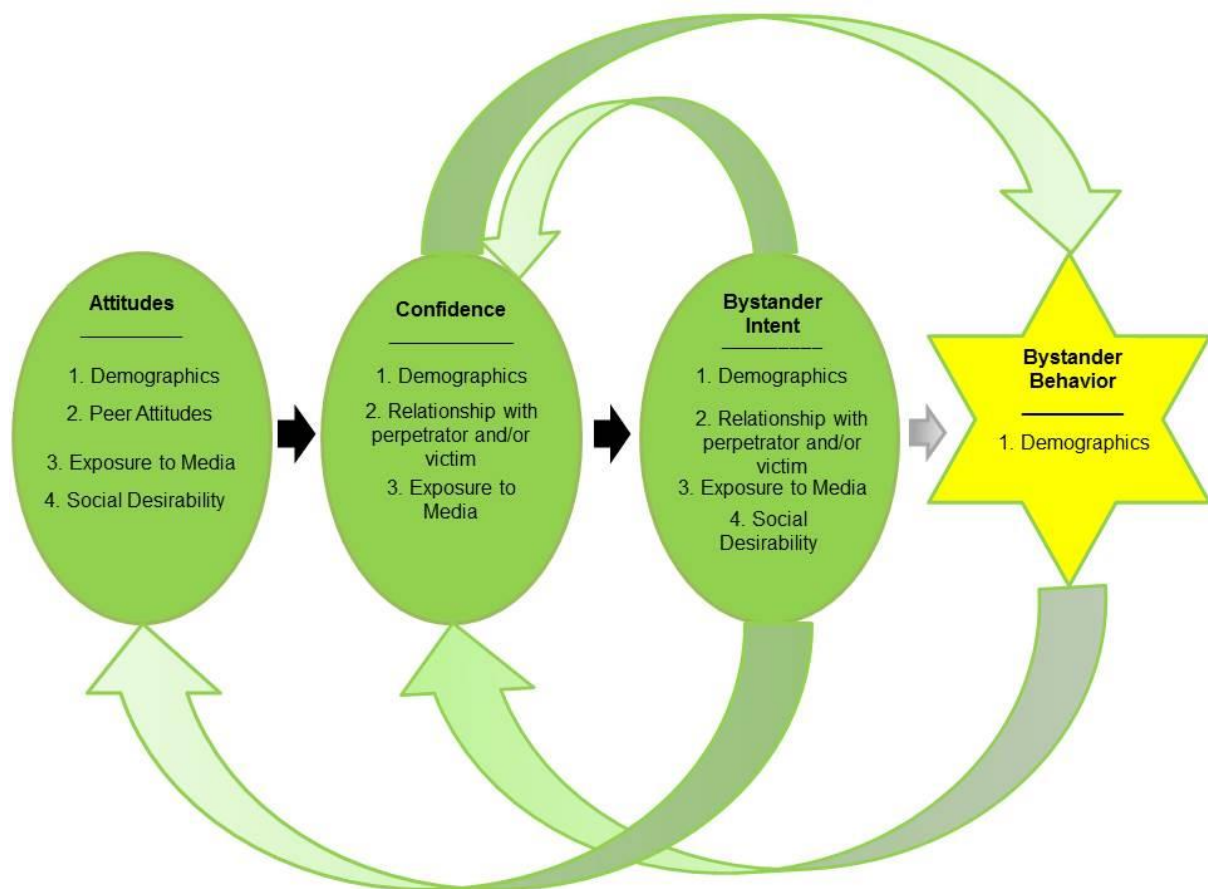


Figure 1: Model of the factors that determine how a bystander will behave in relation to a sexual assault

2.3.2 Bystander Predictors used to Assess Likelihood of Bystander Intervention

This section of the review is comprised of a summary of the different bystander predictors identified in influencing the likelihood of bystander intervention within the 28 studies identified. Table 2 provides a summary of the study aims, the main findings, and what bystander factors were assessed.

Table 2: Literature Review Articles Examined

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Amar et al. (2014)	-Primary aim: gender differences for date rape attitudes, bystander efficacy, bystander intent, and actual use of bystander behaviour -Secondary aim: Assess validity of Burn's (2009) gender specific behaviour	-Quantitative: questionnaire	-157 participants (83 women; 74 men), mean age 21, mainly white, upper middle class -USA	-gender is a sig. factor in rape attitudes, bystander confidence, and bystander behaviours -Gender specific barriers: men and women are equally likely to intervene if friends are involved	-Date Rape attitudes -Bystander efficacy -Bystander intentions -Bystander behaviour -Gender specific barriers: used items created by Burn (2009) that were not tested
Banyard, 2008	-determine the effect gender, know of someone previously victimised, personality, efficacy and social norms has on bystander attitudes and behaviours	-quantitative – questionnaires	-389 (271 women and 172 men) undergraduates, mean age 19, 90% Caucasian, 38.2% first year; 29.4% second year; 19.8% third year; and 12.4% fourth year -USA	-low rape myth acceptance linked to effectiveness of efficacy, increased bystander attitudes, increased bystander behaviour, and decisional balance scores with pros outweighing cons -positive outcomes related to being female, knowledge of sexual assault, know a victim, positive attitude and low rape myth acceptance	-Illinois rape myth acceptance -college date rape attitude survey -bystander attitudes and behaviour -Bystander behaviours -Bystander efficacy -Slaby bystander efficacy -MVP efficacy -decisional balance

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Banyard & Moynihan, 2011	Examine who the helpful bystanders are and what variables are associated those who self-report helping people at risk for relationship or sexual violence	Quantitative – surveys	-406 undergraduates, mean age 18, 93% white, 68% first year; 21.5% second year, 7.7% third year, and 2.7% fourth year -USA	- younger participants viewed SV as a problem, feel responsible, greater confidence, pros outweighed cons for intervening, low rape myths, believe peers do not support coercion all leads to higher likelihood of intervening -as students' progress in year of study it levels likelihood of intervening decreases	-peer support norms -Illinois rape myth -bystander efficacy -bystander intention -readiness to change -decisional balance scale -bystander behaviour scale
Banyard, Moynihan, Cares, & Warner, 2014	Improve and develop the assessment tools for prevention programs and learn how they impact on the attitudes and behaviours of participants	-Quantitative -analyze each individual assessment tool	-948 first year students (489 male; 454 female; 3 transgendered), mean age 18, 85.2% Caucasian -USA	- High intent to help affected by low rape myths, high efficacy, awareness of problem, high perception of peer helping, feeling responsible, and higher reported behaviours -Social desirability related to taking action and intent	-Bystander attitudes -Perceptions of peer helping -Bystander intent -Bystander behaviour
Bennett & Banyard, 2016	Determine how relationship with victim and/or perpetrator affects the likelihood of intervening	-Quantitative -vignettes and questionnaire	-545 participants (303 women; 242 men), mean age 19, 161 experienced unwanted sexual contact, 24 raped, 90.5% white -USA	- Relationship with victim and/or perpetrator positively influences bystander perceptions and likelihood of intervening. -Situation is only seen as problematic or potentially unsafe if bystander only knows victim and perpetrator is a stranger	-bystander perceptions: situation (is it a problem or not?) and safety (is it safe to intervene?)

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Bennett, Banyard, & Garnhart, 2014	Examine how intrapersonal facilitators and barriers influence one's intent to help/intervene. Examined helping behaviours that have been described in previous research	-Qualitative: two open-ended questions about perceived barriers and facilitators to intervening -Quantitative: survey	-242 first year students, mean age 18, 81.8% women, 92.6% Caucasian -USA	- High prosocial tendencies and low barriers influences intervening behaviours -36% feel responsible, 21% intervene -41% do not have the skills to intervene, 13% failed to help because of audience inhibition -Strangers act as barriers to helping	-prosocial tendencies -CES-D depression scale -sense of community scale -spheres of control scale -bystander barrier scale -bystander behaviour scale
Brosi, Foubert, Bannon, & Yandell, 2011	Sorority members' willingness to intervene, rape myth acceptance, and bystander efficacy based on the use of hard-core, sadomasochistic, and rape pornography	Quantitative: survey/questionnaires	-307 female sorority members, mean age 19, 89% Caucasian, 41% first year; 28% second year; 26% third year; 6% fourth year -USA based	-46% viewed hard-core pornography and 21% viewed sadomasochistic pornography -Exposure to pornography linked to high rape myth acceptance, lower likelihood of intervening, low efficacy, line between consensual and non-consensual sex is blurred, distorted perception of victim and perpetrator	-bystander efficacy scale -willingness to help scale -rape myth acceptance
Brown, Banyard, & Moynihan, 2014	Relationship between perceived social norms about sexual violence, intent to help, and experiences on intervening	Quantitative: survey and questionnaires	-232 (56 black women; 27 black men; 96 white women; 53 white men) students, mean age 19 -USA	- Intent to help influenced by peer support, lower rates of missed opportunities -Race unrelated to intentions but was predictor for actually intervening (Black men>White men)	-bystander intentions -perceived peer norms -reported behaviours -reported missed opportunities

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Burn, 2009	Determine whether Latané and Darley's (1970) 5 barrier situational model of bystander intervention is useful for sexual assault prevention and what barrier have more influence	-quantitative: survey/questionnaire	-558 (378 female and 210 male) undergraduate students, mean age 19, 73% white, 14% women and 19% men in a fraternity/sorority, 5% women and 16% men athletes -USA	- Failure to notice and intervene is the greatest barrier to helping, barriers had a greater effect on men than women, more likely to help friends, intoxication had a small effect on intent	-barriers to sexual assault bystander intervention: based on situational model by Latané and Darley -bystander intervention behaviour: gender specific
Carlson, 2008	Effect of masculinity on bystander intervention	-Qualitative: approximately 45 minute interviews consisting of open ended questions about masculinity -answers were judged to be truthful because of the struggle to answer them -read three real life occurrences	-20 college men between 18 and 19 -freshman and sophomores -17 Caucasian; 1 Philippino; 1 SE Asia; 1 half Asian -3 mentioned having girlfriends -USA	-Themes: men must not cry, be big and powerful (body size affects behaviour), fight, be conscious of physical stature, protect women, engage in heavy drinking, not be weak (i.e., feminine behaviours like crying), be decisive, do not regret decisions, and men think they are different from their peers -If one finds himself in a situation where they need to preserve their masculine reputations it may outweigh the victim's needs	Effect of masculinity in influencing bystander intervention

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Fabiano, Perkins, Berkowitz, Linkenbach, & Stark, 2003	Address men's misperceptions of both men's and women's norms	-quantitative: survey/questionnaire packets sent by mail to undergraduate students	-618 (28.5% men; 71.5% women) undergraduate students, 81.1% Caucasian -USA	- Strong belief in obtaining consent in sexual relationships -Men negatively misperceive their peers' norms on obtaining consent and intent to intervene, more for men than women	-national college health assessment survey -Violence related behaviours and beliefs -importance of consent -willingness to intervene
Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015	Examine role of alcohol in prosocial bystander interventions	-data comes from 2 projects -study 1: quantitative -study 2: quantitative -USA	-study 1: 888 (64% women and 36% men) undergraduate students, mean age 20, 94% Caucasian; 41% single -Study 2: 637 (70% women and 30% men) undergraduate students mean age 21, 93% Caucasian, 42% single	Study 1 -male use of alcohol is a decreases intent when they know perp -female relationship with victim positively influenced helping Study 2: -Helping higher for known perp. regardless of alcohol consumption -male participants consuming alcohol decreases intent to help -alcohol expectancies are predictors for females -males' consumption and females' alcohol expectancies are important factors in attitudes toward helping	Study 1 -rape myths -victimisation history -bystander intervention Study 2: -alcohol use -alcohol problems -bystander intervention

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Foubert, 2013	Examine how religious orientation influences pornography use and determine if religiosity influences bystander efficacy and intent in sexual assault scenarios	-quantitative: survey/questionnaire	-247 students (70% female; 30% male), 75% white, mean age 23 -USA	- Intrinsic religiosity can be seen as a protective factor linked to lower rates of pornography usage and higher bystander efficacy -Extrinsic religiosity does not affected exposure to pornography	-religious orientation: -bystander efficacy -bystander intent -exposure to internet pornography -reason for consuming pornography
Foubert, Brosi, & Bannon, 2011	Effect of mainstream pornography, sadomasochistic pornography, and rape pornography on fraternity men's intent, rape myth acceptance, and bystander efficacy	-quantitative: surveys	-489 male members of fraternities, 90% Caucasian, mean age 20.3, 5% first year; 36% second year; 34% third year; 25% fourth year -USA	-Viewing pornography linked to increased likelihood of committing sexual assault, high rape myths, low efficacy, and low intent	-bystander efficacy -bystander intent -Rape myth acceptance -likelihood of raping and sexual assault -frequency and type of porn viewed
Harari, Harari, & White, 1985	Likelihood a man will intervene in a sexual assault	-quantitative -simulated rape in a secluded outdoor area with 3 main avenues to act (direct, indirect, avoid)	-80 white men – 40 alone and 40 group representatives (first one to act in a group setting) -USA	-alone: 65% intervened; 35% did nothing -group: 85% intervened; 15% did nothing -indirect intervention more likely if confrontation with perpetrator is likely	-bystander behaviour

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Hust, Lei, Ren, Chang, McNab, Marett, & Willoughby, 2013	Effect of mainstream sports media on rape myths and intentions to intervene in sexual assaults by gender and after controlling for gendered personality traits	-quantitative: survey	-352 freshman (111 men; 241 women) -men: mean age 18; 84% Caucasian -women: mean age 18; 84.8% Caucasian,	-sig. gender differences on exposure to mainstream sports media, acceptance of rape myths, behavioural intentions related to bystander intervention, and expressivity -exposure to sports media linked with high rape myths, low intent to help, and low expressivity	-exposure to mainstream sports media -rape myth acceptance -behavioural intentions related to bystander intervention -instrumentality and expressivity
Hust, Marett, Lei, Ren, & Ran, 2015	Study one: differences in content between crime drama franchises (NCIS, CIA, and Law & Order) Study two: determine if crime drama viewing is associated with rape myth acceptance, intent, and importance of consent	-quantitative: online survey	-313 first year students (39% men; 61% women), mean age 18, 80.6% Caucasian	-Law & Order: lower rape myth; seek consent for sexual activity; refuse unwanted sexual activity; and adhere to consent decision -CSI: lowered intentions to seek consent; low intent to adhere to consent decision -NCIS: low intent to refuse unwanted sexual activity -female have lower rape myths, greater intent to refuse unwanted sexual activity especially if previously victimised, more intent to respect consent	-rape myth acceptance -intentions to seek consent for sexual activity -intentions to refuse unwanted sexual activity -intentions to adhere to sexual consent -frequency of watching the crime drama genre

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Katz, 2014	Examine male bystander inaction and barriers to intervene - 2 factors assessed: group status and victim gender	Quantitative: read a party rape scenario and filled in questionnaire/survey	-77 male undergraduates, mean age 19, 71% white -USA	- Group inhibition to intervening -Less likely to help or feel responsible for a male victim -Audience inhibition had no gender differences	-Bystander inaction -barriers to action -lack of responsibility -audience inhibition
Katz, Olin, Herman, & DuBois, 2013	Evaluate the effects of exposure and social self-identification to the Know Your Power bystander-themed posters	-Quantitative: survey	-95 first year students (69% female; 31% males), mean age 18, 86.3% attended a sexual assault program at college, 61 lived in experimental hall and 34 lived in control hall -USA	- Posters associated with high intent, low rape myth, moderate self-identification with poster, viewed as helpful -Intent to help did not differ for those who saw the posters and those who did not	-Illinois rape myth -bystander intent -exposure to posters -assess agreement of posters -assess perception of posters
Katz, Pazienza, Olin, & Rich, 2014	Gender differences for shared social group membership on bystander intent, barriers to help, and perceptions of victim of party rape	Quantitative: vignette	-151 undergraduates (75% females), mean age 19, 40% first year; 32% second year; 15% third year; and 13% fourth year, 84% Caucasian	- Bystander intent is higher for friends and linked to low barriers, low victim blame, high empathy, and feel responsible -men are more likely to blame victim, feel less empathy for victim	-Bystander intention -Barriers to intervening -Audience inhibition -perceived victim blame -empathic concern

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Koelsch, Brown, & Boisen, 2012	What factors influence or inhibit bystander intervention if one notices a sexual assault at a party	-Qualitative: semi-structured focus group interviews -Thematic Analysis (grounded theory)	-51 participants (27 males; 24 females) – 4 male and 4 female groups consisting of 4-9 participants, mean age 20, 35 white; 5 black; 4 Asian; 4 Hispanic; 1 Native American; 2 multi-racial -USA	-Severity of situation predicts intervention, ambiguity of situation prevents intervention -Sexual behaviour occurs but outside of the main party area -Rely on friends to protect one another -Negative sexual aspects: regret, wishing it would have been more than a one night stand, negative reputation, walk of shame, unprotected sex, memory lapse	-intervention -responsibility -visibility of sexual behaviour -precautions and protections -negative aspects of sexual behaviour
McMahon, 2010	Understand the relationship between rape myths and students' willingness to intervene as bystanders	-quantitative: surveys	-2338 (52% women; 48% men) students, 53% Caucasian, 23% pledging to a sorority or fraternity; 24% athletes; 36% have rape education; 29% know someone who has been raped -USA	-males, pledging, athletes, no previous rape education, low bystander attitudes, and don't know a victim have higher rates of rape myth than their counterparts	-rape myth acceptance -bystander attitudes
McMahon, Banyard, & McMahon, 2015	Examine the patterns of bystander behaviour reported by incoming university students	Quantitative: paper and pencil survey	-3670 (46.9% males and 52.9% females) students, 47.2% white -USA	-74.6% engaged in bystander behaviours in last 12 months and 37.3% participated in one type of bystander behaviour only -low risk situations are most frequently encountered	-bystander behaviours

Author	Aim	Methodology	Sample Characteristics	Pertinent Findings	Factors assessed
Nicksa, 2013	Examine how situational ambiguity, bystander gender, anonymity, and relationship with the offender influences intent to intervene	Quantitative – vignettes depicting a hypothetical situation using 4 IV's	-295 college students, mostly Caucasian students -USA	-crime type: largest predictor for willingness to intervene (physical → theft → sexual) -Women have higher intent to report -Knowing perpetrator decreases intent -more likely to report if perp is a stranger vs. a friend	Bystander intent
Shotland & Stebbins, 1980	Determine whether some of the audible signals to obtain help that have been suggested women try when being attacked are more effective in obtaining help than others	-Quantitative: questionnaire -Qualitative: unstructured interview to determine what the participant made of the experiment	87 male and female students -USA	-seeing and hearing situation increases likelihood of intervening -“help, rape!” message is more effective than “fire!” Men are more likely to intervene directly -interveners started quite quickly and perceive situation as rape, non-helpers tried to avoid the situation and perceive situation as an argument where perpetrator and victim know each other	Likelihood of intervening based on different variables

2.3.2.1 Demographics. Nineteen studies examined gender differences in bystander intervention (Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Bennett & Banyard, 2016; Bennett et al., 2014; Brosi et al., 2011; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Carlson, 2008; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Foubert, 2013; Foubert et al., 2011; Harari et al., 1985; Hust et al., 2013; Katz et al., 2015; Koelsch et al., 2012; McMahon, 2010; McMahon et al., 2015; Nicksa, 2014; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980). The effects of gender vary within the different bystander factors (i.e., rape myths, bystander efficacy, bystander intent, and bystander behaviour).

Males who pledge to fraternities (McMahon, 2010), have high exposure to sports media (Hust et al., 2013), with no previous rape education (McMahon, 2010), and no knowledge of someone who has been sexually victimised (Banyard, 2008) tend to have a higher belief in rape myths than women who have the opposite experience (Hayes, Lorenz, & Bell, 2013). That is not to say that men would never intervene; Brown and Messman-Moore (2010) found that men have high bystander intent to intervene. However, due to a lack of a female comparison group, no definitive conclusion can be drawn that men have a higher intent to intervene compared to women. One argument for why men have higher rape myths than women is that men have difficulty identifying with the victim in the same manner that women do (Bell, Kuriloff, & Lottes, 1994). Women tend to be perceived and portrayed as the victims in sexual assaults, increasing sympathetic attitudes towards the victim (Katz et al., 2015).

Women are more likely to intervene than men when: they know the victim (e.g., Amar et al., 2014); they are aware of the consequences associated with being assaulted (e.g., Banyard, 2008); they have been previously victimised (Hust et al., 2015); and/or just starting higher education – between the ages of 19 and 21 (Banyard & Moynihan,

2011). As a woman's confidence increases, in combination with low rape myths and high intent, she will be more likely to actually intervene; the higher her confidence is the faster she intervenes (Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Brosi et al., 2011; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Foubert, 2013; Foubert et al., 2011). However, confidence only increases if the bystander controls the situation (Bennett et al., 2014), has peer support (Bennett & Banyard, 2016); and encounters a low risk situation (McMahon et al., 2015). If any of these three factors are not present, the woman's confidence decreases, lowering the likelihood of bystander intervention (Exner & Cummings, 2011; Hust et al., 2013; Katz et al., 2015; Nicksa, 2014).

Finally, in regards to actual bystander behaviours performed, Carlson (2008) found that there is a correlation between a man's level of masculinity and the likelihood of intervening in a sexual assault. Stereotypically, men are portrayed to protect women and not harm them, implying that men are more likely to help (Carlson, 2008). However, if a man's masculinity could be implicated the likelihood of intervening decreases. For example, a man will not intervene if only men are present as it may interfere with the perpetrator's aim with the woman (Carlson, 2008) and risk of confrontation with the perpetrator is too high (Shotland & Stebbins, 1980). It is more likely the man will indirectly intervene by notifying a third party (Shotland & Stebbins, 1980). However, this research is limited as it focuses only on men. More comprehensive research shows that women intervene more frequently than men (Amar et al., 2014) and provide more details about their intervening behaviour, such as calling police or helping a victim get home safe, compared to men (Koelsch et al., 2012).

To conclude, when compared to men, women tend to have lower rape myths (Banyard, 2008; Hust et al., 2013; McMahon, 2010), higher self-efficacy (Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Brosi et al., 2011; Exner &

Cummings, 2011; Foubert, 2013; Foubert et al., 2011), higher intent to intervene (Exner & Cummings, 2011; Hust et al., 2013; Katz et al., 2015; Nicksa, 2014), and are consequently more likely to actually engage in bystander behaviours (Amar et al., 2014; Koelsch et al., 2012). However, studies are limited when directly examining gender differences. Researchers tend to focus heavily on quantitative data, expecting it to provide a major insight on gender expectations and behaviours regarding bystander intervention. However, the results are then limited to statistics. Instead, qualitative methods may be better suited as it would provide a more detailed description of how and why men and women engage differently if witnessing a hypothetical or real sexual assault.

2.3.2.2 Peer Attitudes. Five studies directly examined the influence of peer attitudes on one's personal attitudes towards sexual assault and intervention (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Banyard et al., 2014; Brown et al., 2014; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Fabiano, Perkins, Berkowitz, Linkenbach, & Stark, 2003). Moscovici, Heinz, and Sherrard (1976) stated that one's personal beliefs and attitudes are influenced by what their peers' beliefs and attitudes are. The social groups people are part of contribute to the construction of their attitudes and beliefs towards sexual assault.

In order to examine this phenomenon, studies focus on what people perceive their peers' norms and attitudes are towards sexual assault and the likelihood of them intervening. Peer attitudes supportive of sexual aggression (high rape myths) decreases the likelihood that bystanders will intervene (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Brown et al., 2014). Conversely, if peers are supportive of intervening the bystander is more likely to intervene (Banyard et al., 2014) leading to fewer missed opportunities where they could have intervened (Brown et al., 2014). Therefore, when peers are supportive of taking

responsibility, taking action, and the bystander has the intent to help, he/she is more likely to intervene and report more bystander behaviours (Banyard et al., 2014). The findings thus far begin to provide support to Moscovici et al. (1976) theory that personal attitudes are influenced by their peers. However, there are exceptions to the influence of peer norms and attitudes on one's personal attitudes and norms.

Studies conducted by Brown and Messman-Moore (2010) and Fabiano et al. (2003) found that men can hold low rape myths and have higher bystander intent, yet believe their peers are supportive of sexual aggression. This could be attributed to the role of masculinity (masculinity may entail drinking large amounts of alcohol or partaking in fights) where men often report that they are different from their peers (Carlson, 2008). Findings suggest men may perceive themselves as better than their peers when in fact they hold similar values (Carlson, 2008). More research is needed to investigate males' perception of their own masculinity compared to their perceptions of their peers' masculinity. Future research should examine the effect one's peers have on a bystander's likelihood of intervening.

To conclude, one's personal attitudes may be influenced by peer attitudes. Generally, if peers support intervention, self-efficacy increases alongside intent and bystander behaviour (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Banyard et al., 2014; Katz et al., 2015). However, peer attitudes alone cannot solely influence a bystander's likelihood of intervening (see Carlson, 2008). However, it can provide a unique perspective on how peer attitudes influence personal attitudes and intent.

2.3.2.3 Relationship with the perpetrator and/or victim. There is a level of loyalty among members of the same in-group (Norris, Nurius, & Dimeff, 1996; Zdaniuk & Levine, 2001) as members of that group share group norms, strengthening in-group

membership (Gini, 2006; Mullin & Hogg, 1999; Oldmeadow, Collett, & Little, 2008; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Acting in the interest of group norms allows researchers to predict behaviours and attitudes (Knifsend & Juvonen, 2013). Twelve studies examined the effect of having a relationship with the perpetrator or the victim regarding a bystander's intent to intervene (Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Banyard et al., 2014; Bennett & Banyard, 2016; Bennett et al., 2014; Burn, 2009; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; Katz et al., 2015; McMahon, 2010; McMahon & Farmer, 2009; Nicksa, 2014). Knowledge of the perpetrator or the victim will influence a bystander's perception of the situation and determine bystander intent (Bennett & Banyard, 2016). Bystander intent is influenced by having a relationship with the perpetrator and/or the victim, the situation the bystander is in (i.e., alone or in a group), and whether the sexual assault is ambiguous or non-ambiguous.

Bystanders sharing in-group membership with the victim or the perpetrator have a greater sense of responsibility, confidence, and intent to intervene (Bennett et al., 2014; Burn, 2009; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; McMahon, 2010). Acting in an altruistic manner prevents the group from being negatively affected by the sexual assault. If the situation is clearly depicting a sexual assault (non-ambiguous) the likelihood of bystander intervention increases (Carlson, 2008; Harari et al., 1985; Koelsch et al., 2012; McMahon et al., 2015; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980) alongside feelings of responsibility and the perception that pros outweigh cons to intervene (Banyard, 2008; Banyard et al., 2014; Bennett et al., 2014; Burn, 2009). An example of a clearly depicted sexual assault is seen in Shotland and Stebbins (1980) study; they found that response rates increase when a woman calls out 'Help! Rape!' Additionally, a study by Harari et al. (1985) found that when confronted with a clear sexual assault 65% of men who were alone intervened and 86% of men in a group intervened; these

results also suggest that being in a group, versus alone, provides a safer environment and more support for the bystander(s) to intervene (Brown et al., 2014; Harari et al., 1985). Therefore, it would appear reasonable to conclude that in an ambiguous situation where the bystander has no relationship with either the perpetrator or the victim, likelihood to intervene decreases.

There are exceptions to these findings. People tend to hesitate if they know the perpetrator has previously offended (McMahon & Farmer, 2009). Fear of the negative repercussions to intervening, such as misperceiving the situation or getting hurt negatively affects bystander intent (Exner & Cummings, 2011). Also, if the victim or the perpetrator is a stranger then a bystander's intent to intervene decreases (Bennett & Banyard, 2016; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; McMahon & Farmer, 2009; Nicksa, 2014). Strangers are not a part of a bystander's in-group, decreasing feelings of responsibility and empathic concern for the victim (Katz, 2015). However, more research needs to be conducted to determine how the relationship with the victim or the perpetrator affects bystander intent, as well as whether being with friends, strangers, or alone influences likelihood of intervening. Understanding how the presence of friends or strangers affects the likelihood of bystander intervention would provide more support for the influence of peer attitudes on one's own attitudes towards sexual assault and bystander intervention. Finally, the studies identified whether any type of relationship would influence intent. However, they did not account for how well they knew the victim or the perpetrator. Also, examining the dynamic of in-group membership and the loyalty to the group could provide insight into the likelihood of bystander intervention if they share group membership with the parties involved.

2.3.2.4 Exposure to Media. The effect of media exposure on bystander intervention and sexual assault is a relatively new phenomenon that has been recently developed. Researchers have started to examine how exposure to pornography (Brosi et al., 2011; Foubert, 2013; Foubert et al., 2011), religion (Foubert, 2013), sports media (Hust et al., 2013), crime television (Hust et al., 2015), and bystander intervention posters (Katz et al., 2013) affect one's intent to intervene. These six studies examine the effects of media on a bystander's likelihood of intervening in a sexual assault.

2.3.2.4.1 Pornography. Normalization of sexual assault is prominent in how media depicts sexual relations. Pornography for example normalises sexual assault (Norris, Davis, George, Martell, & Heiman, 2004). Sadomasochistic and hard-core pornography portrays women being on the receiving end of physical aggression either enjoying it or indifferent to it (Bridges, Wosnitzer, Scharrer, Sun, & Liberman, 2010). Approximately 90% of men and 60% of women have been exposed to pornography prior to the age of eighteen (Sabina, Wolak, & Finkelhor, 2008). Bystanders exposed to pornography do not view sexual assault as a problem as pornography distorts one's perception of sexual assault (Davis, Norris, George, Martell, & Heiman, 2006). Consequently, evidence suggests that early exposure to pornography (Bridges et al., 2010; Carroll et al., 2008; Davis et al., 2006) is negatively associated with rape myths (Brosi et al., 2011; Foubert et al., 2011).

The earlier an individual is exposed to pornography (Bridges et al., 2010; Carroll et al., 2008; Davis et al., 2006), the higher the rape myths are and the lower their confidence is in regards to intervening (Brosi et al., 2011; Foubert et al., 2011). However, a unique study conducted by Foubert (2013) suggests that religion can act as a protective factor against the negative consequences of pornography. When one is

intrinsically religious, following the ways of their religion and immersed within the religious practices, one is less likely to view pornography and have higher rates of self-efficacy (Foubert, 2013). However, research on this front is still in its infancy and needs to be further developed.

To conclude, only three studies (Brosi et al., 2011; Foubert, 2013; Foubert et al., 2011) were found that directly examined the effects of pornography and bystander intervention, lowering the reliability and validity of the findings. Future research should continue to examine the effects of pornography and bystander intervention regarding sexual assault by including control groups of individuals who do not watch pornography; this will determine whether pornography alone distorts perceptions of the reality and severity of sexual assaults. Also, increasing awareness of the negative effects of pornography, the problem of sexual assault, and the negative consequences of being sexually victimised may lower rape myths, increase bystander efficacy, and increase bystander intent.

2.3.2.4.2 Sports media, crime television, and bystander intervention posters.

Sports tend to over sexualise women (i.e., women shown in skimpy or provocative clothing) and depict the man as ‘manly’ (Hust et al., 2013). Women are often depicted as sex objects by emphasizing their physical attributes such as cheerleaders in American Football games (Hust et al., 2013) or Sport’s Illustrated Swimsuit Edition (Daniels, 2009). However, women in sports receive far less attention than men; instead the media portraying women as athletes, they are sexualised (Daniels, 2009). Therefore, the media can have a significant influence on the development of rape myth attitudes among potential bystanders because it blurs the lines of sexual consent and promotes the idea of

sexual aggression (Brosi et al., 2011; Foubert, 2013; Foubert et al., 2011; Hust et al., 2013).

Crime shows (Hust et al., 2013) such as *Law & Order: Special Victims Unit* and bystander intervention posters (Katz et al., 2013) can counteract the negative side effects of sexualizing women. Negative side effects can be diverted by highlighting the problem of sexual assault and increasing one's intent to intervene. *Law & Order* depicts how victims are supported, the negative consequences of sexual assault, and the prosecution of perpetrators (Hust et al., 2015). The posters on the other hand provide bystanders with different methods of intervening, demonstrating that sexual assault is not appropriate behaviour (Katz et al., 2013). Preliminary evidence also suggests high scores on expressivity traits, such as being kind or compassionate, are linked with higher scores on the bystander intention to help scale (Hust et al., 2013).

To conclude, research regarding media influence on intent can be controversial. The studies found tend to depict one aspect and demonstrate how it influences bystander intent. Researchers need to examine different aspects of media together in one study to determine the true validity of the findings. For example, if looking at the influence of sports media, researchers cannot just select sports where women are sexualised (Hust et al., 2013). Instead, there should be an equal balance between sexualised sports and non-sexualised sports to determine the relationship to bystander intent. Finally, preliminary research on religion (Foubert, 2013), and the bystander intervention posters (Katz et al., 2013) provides a starting point for where research should continue in order to raise awareness of sexual assault, consent, and increase the likelihood of bystander intervention (Fabiano et al., 2003).

2.3.2.5 Social desirability. Only two studies accounted for social desirability bias (Banyard et al., 2014; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010). Social desirability bias occurs with self-report data, influencing participants to answer in a socially acceptable manner instead of providing answers that are reflective of their own opinions (Grimm, 2010). Social desirability is assessed using Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). The scale is comprised of 33 true or false statements. The socially desirable responses are tallied up to provide an overall score of social desirability.

Accounting for social desirability allows researchers to identify when participants respond in a socially acceptable manner. For example, social desirable responding was negatively correlated with personal and peer attitudes about rape myths, but positively correlated with intent to intervene (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010). Majority of the studies failed to account for social desirability. A possible explanation for why researchers may neglect to account for social desirable bias could be that they believe no dominant social norm exists regarding what one should do if they witness a sexual assault (ipsos-mori, 2012). If a topic has a strong social norm, socially desirable responding is highly likely (ipsos-mori, 2012). Future research should account for socially desirable responding (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010). Some methods to account for social desirability include: the social desirability scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960); participants complete the study without the researcher present; avoid direct reference to subject matter in the beginning; word questions in a manner that suggests others have these views and the participant has to choose the view that fits best with their view; and ask participants what they would do instead of asking for opinions (ipsos-mori, 2012). Including this within future studies may determine if people intend to intervene because they want to or because they have to – to maintain appearances

(Banyard et al., 2014; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010). This measure may increase the reliability of people's self-reported responses regarding intention to intervene without directly observing actual bystander behaviour (see Harari et al., 1985).

2.4 Discussion

Considering that sexual assault on university campuses is an ongoing problem (Kimble et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2011), studies examining bystander intervention and sexual assaulted were limited. Only 28 articles were found that directly examined intervention for a sexual assault (see table 2). The review revealed that overall research followed the logical progression of the model depicted in Figure 1. However, upon interpreting the literature, the model suggests there is a direct relationship between confidence and bystander behaviour; intent retrospectively influences attitudes and confidence; and bystander behaviour is the ideal predictor of future behaviour. The bystander predictors listed below each factor can positively or negatively affect a bystander's likelihood of intervening. In an ideal world the model demonstrates that one must have low rape myth attitudes, positive peer support, high self-efficacy, and a high score on bystander intent in order to accurately predict behaviour.

Researchers tend to examine how attitudes influence behaviour, when they should also take into account Ajzen's (1985) theory of planned behaviour; the theory suggests that beliefs regarding possible consequences of behaviour can influence one's attitudes, intent, and behaviour. The interacting relationship between confidence and behaviour suggests there is a direct impact between the two. Future research should examine how confidence levels can be increased instead of focusing solely on changing people's attitudes towards sexual assault and intervening; especially considering that attitudes are not always accurate in predicting behaviour (e.g., LaPiere, 1934).

Bystander intervention regarding sexual assault focuses primarily on bystander intent and hypothetical bystander behaviour highlighting possible barriers and facilitators to bystander intervention. Data gathered in this manner is used to implement bystander intervention programs to decrease the prevalence rate of sexual assault. However, this method fails to account for the complexity of intervening in a sexual assault (Bennett et al., 2014). Actual bystander behaviour, while a rare event, needs to be observed to determine what inhibits and facilitates the likelihood of intervention; personal investment should influence likelihood of intervention.

Currently, all research examining bystander intervention and sexual assault originates from the USA. The USA data is used to develop bystander intervention programs. However, no known research was found within the UK that examines factors that inhibit or facilitate bystander intervention. Instead, UK researchers have adopted USA findings to design and implement bystander intervention programs such as the Bystander Initiative Toolkit (Fenton et al., 2014). UK researchers may be adopting the USA data until UK data is conducted and available to combat the problem of sexual assault; especially since UK University students are more likely to be victimised than the general population (Ministry of Justice, 2013). Therefore, to address the lack of research being conducted in the UK, this research project will address this limitation by conducting research within the UK to understand what influences bystander intervention regarding sexual assault.

There are likely to be a variety of differences that exist between UK and US students and the contexts within which sexual assault on university campuses occurs. Therefore, the UK needs to develop programs independently that are based on a very clear and nuanced understanding of the factors that influence sexual assault, through the use of qualitative studies. There were only two studies (Carlson, 2008; Koelsch et al.,

2012) reviewed that used qualitative research methods, yet this approach is essential to developing an insight in terms of the nuanced situations in which sexual assault occurs. While the prevalence rates of sexual assault have remained unchanged over the last 30 years (Senn & Forrest, 2016), it is quite likely that with the growth of many universities over recent years, the scenarios where sexual assaults take place have changed.

Qualitative enquiries can begin to establish sexual assault scenarios on university campuses and inform the design of realistic scenarios to be implemented in awareness-raising program designs to prevent sexual assault or at the very least, increase the likelihood of bystander intervention. To account for the possible change in how sexual assaults are perceived and where they take place, one of the aims of this project will be to develop a qualitative study examining university students' perceptions of sexual assault (Chapter Four).

Finally, current research relies on hypothetical scenarios or memory recall in order to gather information on bystander intent and behaviours previously used to intervene (i.e., Amar et al., 2014; Brown et al., 2014). Given the usefulness of hypothetical scenarios in understanding what influences bystander intention and behaviours, vignettes will also be included within this project (Chapter Five; the rationale for the inclusion of hypothetical scenarios will be presented in Chapter Three). While past use of hypothetical scenarios were susceptible to socially desirable responses, they are beneficial when trying to understand how various factors could affect likelihood of intervening. Additionally, while researchers have started to account for this when evaluating the effectiveness of bystander intervention programs (e.g., Senn & Forrest, 2016), it has been neglected within research examining what factors influence bystander intervention. Therefore, social desirability will be controlled for in Chapter Five, using the social desirability scale (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). In addition

to controlling for social desirability in lab based studies, conducting experimental or observational research could also directly account for this limitation. Experimental research has previously been conducted and evaluated within the review (Harari et al., 1985; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980). However, these studies would pose ethical and practical concerns today. For example, the Harari et al. (1985) study depicted a man dragging a woman into the bushes while unsuspecting bystanders were present. Rather than moving away from experimental methods towards a reliance on self-reports, an experimental methodology will be designed based on findings from the qualitative study (Chapter Four) and findings from the quantitative study (Chapter Five). This experimental methodology will harness the strengths of these early experimental studies but develop a more ethically-appropriate and ecologically valid method that can measure actual bystander behaviour when witnessing signs leading up to a sexual assault.

In conclusion, evidence shows that bystander intervention and sexual assault on university campuses is a complex area of research still in its infancy (McMahon et al., 2015). Researchers are keen to utilise similar strategies to those used in the initial bystander research (e.g., Latané & Darley, 1968) and applying those findings from one culture (USA) to another (UK) without accounting for possible differences and implications of doing so. Sexual assault is still viewed as a taboo subject and possible cultural differences between the USA and the UK may implicate the transferability of bystander intervention findings. Therefore, this project will address the gaps identified within the literature using three studies (Chapter Four, Five, and Six). Research on bystander intervention and sexual assault on university campuses may be an invaluable tool to raise awareness of the problem and get people involved to decrease the prevalence rates on campuses.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the overarching research design for the project, starting with the rationale for the design of the project. The design of the thesis is explained through the sequential triangulation methodology approach that was adopted, followed by how each study method was selected, and how ethical considerations were considered, in order to best address the research questions and aims (the detailed method for each study is discussed in Chapters Four to Six). This is followed by the perspectivalist epistemological position that influenced the research, what it is, and how it relates to this thesis. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

3.1 Research Rationale: Mixed Methodology

Based on the findings from the systematic review presented in Chapter Two (Labhardt et al., 2017), two major gaps were identified. One was that the majority of the research on bystander intervention and sexual assault on university campuses is based in the US. Consequently, this area of research within a UK and Australia context is in its infancy. To address this limitation, UK and Australia university students were recruited. Two, with the exception of two known studies that measured actual bystander behaviour (Harari et al., 1985; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980), bystander and sexual assault research relies primarily on self-report data. Based on these limitations, the project was designed starting with the end goal and working backwards to ensure high quality, rigorous research would be conducted.

The end goal was to develop and use an experimental methodology that would be ethically appropriate and could measure *actual* bystander behaviour. This would ensure that the study and findings were ecologically valid as they would represent what

people actually did compared to what they think they would do. The design of the experimental methodology would have to be realistic and representative of what actually happens. Therefore, the scenario would have to account for what people believe influences bystander intervention when witnessing signs leading up to a sexual assault, such as the individual (e.g., bystander efficacy) and contextual (e.g., clear what is happening) factors. To ensure that individual and contextual factors were accurately represented, a quantitative study using vignettes would need to be conducted to understand what individual and contextual factors influence the likelihood of bystander intervention. However, to determine how to design, not just the vignette scenarios but also the scenario for the experimental methodology, an understanding of university students' perceptions of what sexual assault is and how bystander intervention could reduce the prevalence of sexual assault would need to be gained. To address this, qualitative research would need to be conducted. This would identify how UK and Australia university students understand sexual assault, where it is most likely to occur, and what influences bystander intervention.

The order in how the studies were designed and conducted was important. The qualitative interviews would have to be conducted first, in order to inform the design of the second, quantitative study. Findings from both study one (Chapter Four) and study two (Chapter Five) would then directly influence the design and development of the experimental methodology reported in study three (Chapter Six). A triangulation research design was therefore deemed appropriate and implemented to answer the three research questions. Triangulation is a comprehensive methodology that uses a minimum of two methods (e.g., qualitative and quantitative) to answer a research problem (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2017; Morse, 1991). Specifically, sequential triangulation was employed, which means that the results of one study were essential for the set-up of the

following study (Morse, 1991). For example, study one (Chapter Four) was needed to create the vignettes for study two (Chapter Five). Using this method, samples must be independent of each other across studies, to maintain validity of the findings (Morse, 1991). Moreover, the mixed methodology design of this thesis allowed for a more nuanced and contextualised understanding of human behaviour. Human behaviour is complex and utilising a mixed methodological approach can capture the complexity of the phenomenon of bystander intervention and sexual assault (Plano Clark, 2017). Qualitative research is about “exploring, describing and interpreting the personal and social experiences of participants” (Smith, 2015, p. 2). It allows researchers to capture expressive (Berkwits & Inui, 1998) and nuanced descriptions of participants’ views on the phenomenon in question (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Cohen et al., 2017). Qualitative research can be used to facilitate change, provide direction for future research, and create insight that cannot be obtained using quantitative research (Berkwits & Inui, 1998). However, qualitative research alone cannot examine prevalence or predictive power (Plano Clark, 2017). To address that gap, quantitative research is used as it can identify significant predictors and the level of predictive power those predictors have regarding the outcome variable.

3.1.1 Study Order and Design Using Sequential Triangulation

The order of the studies is important in terms of addressing the aims of this research. Therefore, from this point forward, they will be discussed in the sequential order that they were conducted in. The first study examined what leads to bystander intervention, specifically exploring university students’ perceptions of sexual assault and the factors that influence intervention. The study was conducted using a qualitative

method (semi-structured interviews, analysed using thematic analysis) to explore perceptions of sexual assault and factors influencing bystander intervention.

Following on from the first study, the second study (Chapter Five) used quantitative methods (using a questionnaire comprised of vignettes, demographics, questions, and scales that were analysed using an ANCOVA and ANOVAs) to examine the effect these various factors had on intent to intervene. This study was designed based on the key findings from study one (Chapter Four). The different versions of the vignettes were designed based on the findings of study one (Chapter Four). For example, the party scenario used featured a ‘typical’ party, depicting what participants from study one (Chapter Four) believed were signs leading up to a sexual assault. This also allowed data to be quantified using a larger sample, for generalisability, in order to understand the predictive power of various individual and contextual factors.

Study three was a mixed-methods experimental design based on both qualitative methods (using thematic analysis) and quantitative methods (using a questionnaire comprised of demographics, scales, and coded bystander behaviour analysed using ANOVAs) to measure *actual* bystander behaviour. This last study was directly influenced by the preceding two studies (Chapter Four and Five). The themes around student perceptions of the victim and perpetrator and what comprises signs leading up to a sexual assault that were discussed in study one (Chapter Four) were used in the design of study three (Chapter Six). For example, what participants found to be clear signs leading up to a sexual assault (e.g., victim appearing uncomfortable) was depicted by the actors in study three (Chapter Six). Additionally, the different individual (e.g., bystander efficacy) and contextual factors (e.g., being alone or with friends) identified in study one and two were also used to design study three (Chapter Six). For example, participants were given the bystander efficacy to determine if confidence was associated

with their behaviour. The rationale for the selection of each of these methods in the overall triangulation will now be discussed in turn.

3.1.2 Rationale for Data Collection and Thematic Analysis

To start, exploratory research needed to be conducted (Sofaer, 1999) within the UK and Australia to explore and understand the nuanced perceptions of sexual assault and what positively and negatively influences bystander intervention among university students. The aim of the first study (Chapter Four) that explored students' perceptions of sexual assault was examined. Based on the aims, a semi-structure interview style was adopted. This style is ideal when researchers want to explore what participants think and feel about a specific topic (Fylan, 2005). In contrast to structured interviews where there is a predetermined set of questions that need to be answered in a certain order, semi-structured interviews are flexible and can be adjusted based on participant responses to gain an in-depth understanding of the topic at question (Fylan, 2005). The interview schedule is comprised of general questions that aim at covering the main areas of importance, while maintaining flexibility. This is in contrast to unstructured interviews where no boundaries around the topic areas are set (Fylan, 2005). Lastly, participants were made aware that if they were not comfortable with answering certain questions, they do not have to. This format therefore is an ideal method to adopt considering the sensitive nature of the topic under discussion (Fylan, 2005).

Semi-structured interviews are best suited to gather the information to address the aim. In addition to generating that knowledge, the topics discussed in the interview will also be used to inform the two subsequent studies (Chapters Five and Six). An appropriate qualitative approach will need to be selected to address this. There are a number of different qualitative approaches in the social sciences that could be

considered suitable for this project, such as thematic analysis, grounded theory, discourse analysis, and interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). When selecting the most appropriate methodology, the overall aims of this research and the research questions were considered. Based on the aims and that findings would need to be suitable to develop subsequent studies, thematic analysis was the selected method. Thematic analysis is a good method if it will be used to inform quantitative research designs (Boyatzis, 1998). Therefore, it would be ideal to use this method as it would inform vignette scenarios for the second study (Chapter Five) and be used to develop the experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour (Chapter Six). However, to ensure suitability, it was important to consider competing alternatives (i.e., grounded theory, discourse analysis, and IPA).

Grounded theory is used to collect and analyse data with the aim of developing a theory (Charmaz, 2015; Charmaz & Belgrave, 2007). To build the theoretical analysis, researchers begin by examining individual cases, incidents, and experiences (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2007). From there, the research develops to become more complex and conceptual. Patterned relationships are identified, and the findings are then synthesised and understood. Developing a theory is the main aim of this approach (Charmaz, 2015; Charmaz & Belgrave, 2007). The aim of the first study was not to develop a theory, but to explore students' perceptions of sexual assault. The next to be considered was discourse analysis. Discourse analysis is used to examine how language is used (Wiggins, 2009). The focus is often on people's interactions with each other. It is key in understanding human relationships (Wiggins, 2009). Analysing talk and text and how participants use language to construct social realities versus it being a reflection of it (Wiggins, 2017; Willig, 2015) was eliminated as it is not ideal. Furthermore, it is not

ideal when subsequent studies are built on the findings. A reflection of what people perceive was required.

IPA is used to understand the meanings participants attribute to particular events and experiences (Smith & Osborn, 2015). Experience is the main focus for this method (McLeod, 2001). The aim of the qualitative study was not to understand participants' experiences, particularly as participants will not necessarily have experienced sexual assault, or witnessed a sexual assault, but to understand their perceptions. The patterns, including similarities and differences in perspectives was of interest. Therefore, thematic analysis was selected over the other approaches. It is a flexible approach that can be used to reflect reality, while providing rich, detailed, and complex accounts of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis examines different participants' perspectives and can generate unanticipated insights (Braun & Clarke, 2006; King, 2004), which is better suited for the aim of this project. For similar reasons, thematic analysis was also used for the qualitative aspect in the third study (Chapter Six).

3.1.3 Rationale for Quantitative Method

A quantitative methodology was used for the second study (Chapter Five) and aspects of the third study (Chapter Six). Both studies examined what factors influenced bystander intervention in sexual assault. However, the focus of this aspect varied. For the second study (Chapter Five), it was the primary aim. For the third study (Chapter Six), while not the primary focus, it was a secondary aim of the study. As identified in Chapter Two, previous research has been primarily conducted in the USA, using quantitative measures (Labhardt et al., 2017). The findings discussed how various individual (e.g., bystander efficacy) factors influence bystander intent to intervene in a sexual assault (e.g., Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, Rizzo, Bencosme, Cares, & Moynihan,

2018; Kania & Cale, 2018). These individual factors were accounted for in both Chapters Five and Six. Moreover, emerging research also demonstrated that contextual factors (e.g., knowing the victim) could have an influence on likelihood of intervening. These contextual factors were also included in the second and third studies (Chapters Five and Six).

The research question (what factors influence likelihood to intervene) lends itself to a quantitative research design because the predictors that significantly influence the outcome variable (intent to intervene) and the predictive power those factors have are of interest. This design is ideal when the researcher has a clear idea of the potential outcomes (Robson, 2011) and there is a need to identify statistically significant predictors (Plano Clark, 2017) of what influences bystander intervention. Quantitative research allows for consistency and predictability (Cohen et al., 2017). Findings from quantitative methods can be used to summarise and compare data (Kruger, 2003) allowing researchers to produce a generalisation of the human behaviour being analysed (Cohen et al., 2017).

Data being collected for the second study (Chapter Five) and the third study (Chapter Six) were based on numerical data originating from established, valid, and reliable scales (details of those scales are provided in the corresponding chapters). Therefore, quantitative analysis of what influences the likelihood of intervening in a sexual assault was needed. Qualitative research would not have been appropriate to compare mean differences between groups.

3.2 Ethical Considerations

It is very important for all research, and especially with this topic, that research is conducted ethically. Hence, the BPS and APA ethical guidance and principles were

adopted throughout the research to ensure that this research was conducted ethically, and participants were not harmed by the research in the pursuit to develop our understanding on this issue. This included for example, how to initially inform participants about the research and how to effectively debrief participants at the end of each study. Regarding informing participants, the British Psychological Society (2014, p. 18) states that normally participants should be offered “a clear statement of all those aspects of the research that are relevant for their decision about whether or not to agree to participation”. To debrief participants American Psychological Association (2017) recommends that participants are provided with the information about the purpose of the study and what the results will be used for. Furthermore, “when psychologists become aware that research procedures have harmed a participant, they take reasonable steps to minimize the harm” (American Psychological Association, 2017, p. 12).

Ethical approval was obtained for all three studies (Chapters Four to Six) from Coventry University Research Ethics Committee to recruit university students. Ethical approval was also obtained from the USC Human Ethics Committee for all three studies (Chapters Four to Six). Additionally, approval was needed from Student Survey at USC for the first (Chapter Four) and second (Chapter Five) study, in order to recruit university students. Confirmation of ethical approval and student survey approval can be found at the start of this thesis.

Before participating in any of the studies, all participants were provided with a participant information sheet that explained the nature of the study (a copy of the participant information sheet for the first study, Chapter Four is in Appendix 2). However, the participant information sheet for the third study (Chapter Six) was different. It was felt that *actual* bystander intervention cannot be studied if people know what the study is about, consequently deception was needed (as discussed in more detail

in Chapter Six). Therefore, the participant information sheet for that study reflected the deceptive aim of the study (see Appendix 3). All participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any point, during and up to two weeks after their completion of the study, with no negative consequences.

Informed consent was obtained from all participants for the first and second study (see Appendix 4). Due to the length of the online survey, the second study had a second consent question at the end of the study to ensure participants were still happy to submit their responses (see Appendix 5 for the full questionnaire used for the second study). Following completion of all the studies, participants were thanked and provided with a debrief form that restated the aim of the study, their right to withdraw, and contact information if further information or help is required (see Appendix 6).

Regarding the third study, due to the deceptive nature of the study and the development of a new experimental methodology, there were additional ethical considerations. A detailed breakdown of the ethical considerations for the third study can be found in Chapter Six. However, generally, to maintain the deception of the study, a general consent form (see Appendix 7) was administered prior to commencing the study. Information about the deception used and what participants were told initially about the study is presented in Chapter Six. Consequently, participants in study three were also debriefed slightly differently, using a funnelling debrief interview approach (Boynton, Portnoy, & Johnson, 2013) that helps to mitigate some of the negative impacts resulting from the deception (details of the funnelling debrief are provided in Chapter Six; Appendix 8 provides the funnelling debrief interview schedule); following the funnelling debrief, participants were given an informed consent form (Appendix 9) where they could state whether they wanted their data to be included for analysis and a

debrief form that included the rationale for the study, their right to withdraw, and contact information if help or support is required (see Appendix 10).

Anonymity was maintained across all studies through the use of participant ID codes. No identifying information was kept with the anonymised data. Participants who took part in the interviews in the first study, were reassured that confidentiality would be maintained and no identifying information (e.g., names) would be reported. However, in the third study, due to the social nature of the experiment, while confidentiality was maintained among the research team (American Psychological Association, 2017), controlling participant confidentiality and anonymity outside of the study (e.g., in social circles) was not possible by the research team, which is a limited risk in any human study. In accordance to ethical guidelines, participants were informed of this risk prior to data collection (American Psychological Association, 2017; British Psychological Society, 2014). The development and ethical considerations of study three are discussed in more detail in Chapter Six.

3.3 Epistemological Position

Epistemology is the “study of knowledge or truth” (Hersch, 2003, p. 63). A researcher’s epistemological position determines how a project is conceptualised, how the data is analysed, and informs interpretation (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Bystander intervention is influenced by the environment and the bystander’s knowledge, attitudes/beliefs, experience, and awareness of the situation (e.g., Banyard et al., 2018; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; Potter et al., 2016). Considering that a likelihood of intervening is dependent on each bystander’s particular perspective at that moment in time, a non-dualistic epistemological approach was adopted. I would argue that likelihood to intervene cannot be examined only

subjectively, in how attitudes or beliefs influence intervention, or only objectively, in that societal or cultural influences affect intervening (Hersch, 2003). Instead they are interwoven and vary for each bystander. This therefore, lends itself to a perspectivalist or perspectival realism epistemological approach.

A perspectivalist approach expands on realism which assumes that there is a unidirectional relationship between meaning, experience, and language (Potter & Wetherell, 1987) by accounting for the fact that reality is not just subjective (Hersch, 2003). Perspectivalist is a combination of the subjective and objective, which I would argue could better account for human behaviour. Personal perspectives of a situation, like sexual assault, provide insight into reality, yet the reality is socially understood, allowing for an infinite amount of perspectives (Orange, 1995). This would mean that as knowledge and awareness about sexual assault increases (objective), there is the possibility that attitudes, and beliefs could change (subjective). This creates a bidirectional relationship; aligning with the model created that explains how different factors influence bystander behaviour (see Chapter Two).

3.4 Summary

Working backwards from what I wanted to achieve, developing an experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour, a mixed methodological approach was used to accomplish three aims. While the different study ideas were initially designed in reverse order (i.e., study three, two, then one), they are designed, analysed, and presented in chronological order using the sequential triangulation method. The first aim (and study) is to understand how sexual assault and bystander intervention is perceived among university students. Second, study two examined the differences in what factors influence bystander intervention. The third aim, study three, was to

develop an experimental methodology to measure actual bystander behaviour. The sequential triangulation employed meant that the first study (Chapter Four), a qualitative design, was necessary to inform the design and development of the second study (Chapter Five). Findings from both of these studies were then used to develop the experimental methodology for the third study (Chapter Six). What participants discussed in the interviews and their responses to the vignettes was used to create an innovative experimental methodology. This design was based on a realistic immersive environment that emulated the environment university students believe sexual assaults tend to take place within. With the aim of achieving as much ecological validity as possible, *actual* bystander behaviour could then be measured experimentally. Details of the methodology, measures, and findings are presented in the relevant chapters.

Chapter 4: Let's talk about sex: The nature and scope of sexual assault, and intervening behaviour, on university campuses

4.0 Chapter Aims

The aim of this chapter is to present university students' perceptions of sexual assault. Through the use of semi-structured interviews, the aim of the study was to explore the similarities and differences between Coventry University in the UK and USC in Australia. The focus is on students' understanding of sexual assault, the consequences associated with it, and what they believed positively or negatively influences bystander intervention. Data are developed into themes and discussed in turn.

4.1 Introduction

Sexual assault on university campuses is not just prevalent in the US but occurs around the world. Prevalence rates vary depending on the country and how much research has been conducted. In the UK, approximately one in seven university students are sexually assaulted (National Union of Students, 2010). In Australia, sources tend to vary. Some state that approximately one in four university students are sexually assaulted (National Union of Students, 2015), others suggest one in ten are sexually assaulted (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017). However, it is evident that the risk of sexual assault is highest among female university students (Diego, Bertolote, & Lester, 2002; Ministry of Justice, 2013) regardless of country.

As identified in Chapter Two (Labhardt et al., 2017), researchers based in the US have been the lead on understanding what influences bystander intervention and it could be invaluable in helping to prevent a serious sexual assault from occurring if witnesses are encouraged to intervene. To effectively design bystander intervention programmes, an understanding of the scope of the problem such as what factors influence bystander intervention is needed. In the USA, for example, research demonstrates that university students are at an increased risk (Kimble et al., 2008) because young students are encouraged to partake in more social activities and consume large amounts of alcohol (Abbey, Ross, McDuffie, & McAuslan, 1996; Breitenbecher, 2001; Koss & Dinero, 1989; Sorenson, Joshi, & Sivitz, 2014). This would imply that sexual assaults originate in social activities and could be starting, if not taking place, in public areas. There is research, that focuses heavily on the influence of alcohol, that provides insight into the problem of sexual assault (e.g., Abbey et al., 1996; Crowe & George, 1989; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016). Due to the scope of information on sexual assault alone that exists in the USA, research has focused on quantifying the problem of

sexual assault and how bystander intervention can be utilised to address the problem. Consequently, qualitative research, which is exploratory research to understand the nuances of a problem, is limited and quantitative research is relied upon as it can be projected for a larger population. This is evidenced by the quantity of research produced in the USA. The US has utilised quantitative studies to understand what factors influence bystander intervention in sexual assaults (e.g., Bennett & Banyard, 2016; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; Katz, 2015; McMahon et al., 2015) and their findings are the basis for bystander intervention programmes ('Bringing in the Bystander'; Banyard et al., 2007).

The findings originating from the USA, alongside the intervention programmes developed are then used around the world, including the UK and Australia. However, this could be problematic as there may be cultural and societal differences between the US and the UK and Australia. For instance, some research has focused specifically on fraternities and sororities (mainly US based social organisations) to identify their intent to intervene (e.g., Foubert et al., 2011). Furthermore, the drinking age is 21 in the US (Centers for disease control and prevention, 2018), whereas in other countries such as the UK and Australia it is 18 (GOV.UK, n.d.; Queensland Police, 2012). Consequently, findings present in the USA, may not apply in the UK and Australia. The UK and Australia have some research on the extent of the problem (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017; Ministry of Justice, 2013; Universities UK, 2016), however, it is not to the same extent as the US in that there is limited research that has been conducted in the UK (e.g., Camp, Sherlock-Smith, & Davies, 2018) and Australia (e.g., Kania & Cale, 2018) regarding what influences bystander intervention.

To address the problem, both the UK (e.g., bystander initiative toolkit; Fenton et al., 2014) and Australia (e.g., Who are you? video; WhoAreYou, n.d.) have utilised

findings from the USA. Given the likely differences in culture, this could impact the outcomes (e.g., it may not be representative of UK and Australian students experiences). Exploratory research is therefore needed in the UK and Australia to understand how university students perceive the problem of sexual assault, what could influence bystander intervention, and ultimately how sexual assaults among university students can be reduced. As discussed in Chapter Two, predominantly quantitative US-based research has been conducted, using surveys into the prevalence of sexual assault. It has neglected to investigate students' perceptions towards sexual assault and intervention. In order to develop an effective bystander intervention programme, psychologists must understand all the factors that may influence an individual's willingness or ability to intervene. For this reason, the present study employed a qualitative approach to fully explore and develop a nuanced and comprehensive understanding that could not be achieved from quantitative data alone (Sofaer, 1999). The findings can then provide direction for future research to develop bystander intervention programmes specific to each country (Berkwits & Inui, 1998).

The aim of this exploratory study is, therefore, to explore university students' perceptions of sexual assault, its consequences, what influences bystander intervention, and identify any similarities and differences in perceptions between students in the UK and students in Australia.

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Design

Qualitatively-analysed one-to-one semi-structured interviews were employed to identify explanations for (Sofaer, 1999), and perceptions of, sexual assault, facilitating researcher's understanding (Fylan, 2005).

4.2.2 Materials

To elicit relevant and in-depth responses on this potentially sensitive topic, the interview schedule, comprising of open-ended, flexible questions, was designed around five information points associated with sexual assault and bystander intervention (see Table 4.1) and a case study on the Stanford rape case.

Information points and the case study were used as the topic of sexual assault is sensitive and participants could be hesitant to discuss it without the use of a prompt. The facts and case study were in place to provide a bit of information to the participant in the likelihood they were not familiar with it. These were used to generate a conversation. This allowed for participants to reflect on what the facts meant to them and how these perceptions reflected in current awareness and knowledge in society.

Each point was presented to participants, one at a time, followed by the case study. The facts were adjusted according to the country to ensure cultural relevance. However, the questions asked remained the same. For example, questions could include, “what is your understanding of consent?”, “can you describe what a risky situation looks like?”, or “in your opinion why do pubs or night clubs increase the risk of sexual assault?” (a copy of the interview schedule can be found in Appendix 11).

Table 4.1

Five facts that were used in both the UK and in Australia as part of the interview

Five Facts		
Fact Number	United Kingdom	Australia
1	Sexual assault – when one person intentionally touches another in a sexual manner without consent (GOV.UK, 2004)	Sexual assault – acts, or intent of acts, of a sexual nature against another person, which are non-consensual or where consent is proscribed (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2008)
2	Approximately one in seven UK university students are sexually assaulted every year (National Union of Students, 2010)	Approximately one in four Australian university students are sexually assaulted every year (National Union of Students, 2015)*
3	Risk of victimisation is highest among women aged 16-19, who are studying full-time, and who visit pubs or night clubs at least once a week (Ministry of Justice, 2013)	Risk of victimisation is highest among women aged 18-24 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012), who study at university, and who visit pubs or night clubs at least once a week (Diego et al., 2002; Ministry of Justice, 2013)
4	Approximately 2% of victims of less serious sexual assault (i.e., touching, molesting, or unwanted kissing) report to either the police or the institution; approximately 10% (report to police) and 4% (report to the institution) of victims report serious sexual assault (i.e., attempted or successful rape/penetration) (National Union of Students, 2010)	Approximately 5.5% (report to the institution) and 4.8% (report to the police) of victims report sexual assault (National Union of Students, 2015)
5	Approximately 33% of witnesses of a sexual assault intervene (Burn, 2009; Planty, 2002)	Approximately 33% of witnesses of a sexual assault intervene (Burn, 2009; Planty, 2002)

*Note: Once data collection commenced and most participants had been presented with the one in four figure, the Australian Human Rights Commission released a report from 39 Australian universities reporting that one in ten students are sexually assaulted (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017). To maintain consistency the one in four statistic was presented to remainder of participants

4.2.3 Participants

For qualitative research, there is no hard rule on how many participants are needed (Robinson, 2014). When planning the study, considerations needed to be made about approximate participant numbers. For the purpose of this project, the sample size needed to be manageable to allow for comparison between groups and to allow for participants to be given an identity within the analysis (Robinson & Smith, 2010). It was recommended that a sample of approximately 15-20 was required, the final number was determined when point of data saturation was reached (Robinson & Smith, 2010). There is no formal guideline for data saturation, however the researcher makes a judgement that data saturation is reached when no new information is being added to the data already collected (Bowen, 2008).

The sample ($n = 39$) consisted of 19 students from a UK university and 20 students from an Australia university. The majority of participants in both samples identified as White and were undergraduate students at the time of the study with the exception of one postgraduate student in Australia. Details of the demographics are provided in Table 4.2. To identify participants in their interviews and the extracts presented, UK participants were allocated a letter. For example, participant A is identified in the interview extracts as P.A. Participants at the Australian University were allocated a number. For example, participant 1 is identified in the interview extracts as P.1. Lastly, participants in the UK were awarded 120 research credits and participants in Australia were given a monetary incentive of AUD\$20.

Table 4.2

Sample Demographics

	Transnational Sample	
	N = 39	
Demographics	UK (n = 19)	Australia (n = 20)
Gender		
Male	31.6% (n = 6)	35.0% (n = 7)
Female	68.4% (n = 13)	65.0% (n = 13)
Mean Age (SD)	20.32 (2.41)	30.75 (11.50)
Range	18-26	18-52
Heritage		
White	57.9% (n = 11)	85.0% (n = 17)
Asian	21.1% (n = 4)	5.0% (n = 1)
Black	21.0% (n = 4)	0.0%
Latino	0.0%	5.0% (n = 1)
Indigenous Australian	0.0%	5.0% (n = 1)
Studies		
Psychology	84.2% (n = 16)	30.0% (n = 6)
Criminology	0.0%	20.0% (n = 4)
Double major in	15.8% (n = 3)	10.0% (n = 2)
Psychology/Criminology	0.0%	40.0% (n = 8)
Other discipline		
Relationship status		
Single	68.4% (n = 13)	60.0% (n = 12)
In a relationship	31.6% (n = 6)	40.0% (n = 8)

4.2.4 Procedure

Ethical approval was obtained from Coventry University in the UK and USC in Australia. Participants were recruited using SONA and BlackBoard, to attend a one-to-one semi-structured interview. Those that signed up via SONA selected the date and

time they were available and those that signed up via BlackBoard were given a selection of dates and times to choose from. On arrival the day of the study, participants were provided with a participant information sheet and an informed consent form. All participants were made aware of their right to withdraw at any point and to choose to not answer certain questions. Each interview progressed with basic demographic questions, discussion on each information point, and concluded with a discussion around the Stanford Rape Case and any suggestions for how to raise awareness around sexual assault. Participants were fully debriefed and provided with a debrief form. The debrief form included contact information about available support in the possibility they, or someone they know requires it. Interviews lasted between 60 and 90 minutes, depending on how much information the participant provided.

4.2.5 Data Analysis

Each interview was transcribed verbatim. Using NVIVO (QSRInternational, n.d.), a software tool that aids in managing and reporting data (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013), an inductive thematic analysis approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was used to code and analyse the data. The researchers utilised an essentialist or realist approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to allow the findings to be driven by the data itself and limit the influence of personal preconceptions of the topic under investigation. Following the six steps by Braun and Clarke (2006) the transcripts were first read and re-read until the researcher was familiar with the data. Second, initial codes were created by the researcher and reviewed by the director of studies. The codes were analysed to identify patterns in the data: similarities, differences, and overlap of codes. Themes and sub-themes were generated based on the analysis and interpretation of the codes. They were reviewed to ensure that the theme accurately reflected the data, there was enough data to

evidence the theme, and that each theme was coherent. Following this, extracts were selected that best represented the theme. Each theme was defined and named to reflect the structure of the argument. Themes, sub-themes, and extracts were created by the researcher and reviewed by the director of studies to ensure the extracts reflected the theme. Lastly, the report was produced with themes ordered in a logical, meaningful manner. A compelling, comprehensive narrative was designed (Braun & Clarke, 2006), to present an understanding of university students' perceptions of sexual assault.

4.3 Findings

Six overarching themes were derived with 21 sub-themes. Table 4.3 provides an overview of the themes as well as any themes that are specific to one country. Each theme and sub-theme will be explained and discussed in turn to develop the understanding around the UK and Australian university students' perceptions of sexual assault.

Table 4.3

Themes, sub-themes, and how the UK sample and Australian sample align

Themes and Sub-Themes	Country reflected in theme	Same (✓) or different (X) view
1. Complexities surrounding sexual assault		
Understanding of the vague sexual assault definition	UK and Australia	✓
The shared understanding of consent	UK and Australia	✓
The changeable nature of consent, depending on relationship	UK and Australia	✓
Ambiguity surrounding sexual nature/manner	UK and Australia	✓
Incongruences/similarities between risk factors and signs of an impending sexual assault		
Risk factors for a sexual assault	UK and Australia	X
Signs of an impending sexual assault	UK and Australia	✓
Environment where a sexual assault is most likely to occur	UK and Australia	✓
2. Contributing risk factors for sexual assault		
General acceptance and adherence to the norms of university party life	UK and Australia	✓
Protective factors decreasing the risk of victimisation	UK and Australia	✓
Risk of victimisation: Unfamiliar surroundings; surrounded by many people; naivety of young students; partying as a way to alleviate stress; and the 'hook-up' culture	UK and Australia	X
Perceptions of the negative impact of alcohol	UK and Australia	✓

Themes and Sub-Themes	Country reflected in theme	Same (✓) or different (X) view
3. Individual perceptions and justifications of the victim and perpetrator		
Conceptualisation of who the victim is	UK and Australia	✓
Conceptualisation of who the perpetrator is	UK and Australia	✓
The victim and perpetrator relationship	UK and Australia	✓
Distancing or dissociating from victim or perpetrator	UK only	
4. Intricacies surrounding victim experiences and decision-making		
Why victims report: Support system and seeking justice	UK and Australia	✓
Why victims do not report: Fear of not being believed, lack of support, revictimisation, not comfortable reporting, and shame	UK and Australia	X
Negative consequences associated with being a victim of sexual assault	UK and Australia	✓
5. To intervene or not to intervene		
Contextual interpretations affecting helping behaviour	UK and Australia	✓
Personal internalisations, beliefs, and the impact on bystander intervention	UK and Australia	✓
It is friends, not gender, that influence helping behaviour	UK and Australia	✓
6. Techniques to raise awareness on sexual assault		
Societal constructs impeded forward momentum to reduce prevalence rates	UK and Australia	X
Implementing personal beliefs and technology to raise awareness and educate others	UK and Australia	✓

4.3.1 Complexities Surrounding Sexual Assault

Five main sub-themes were identified that provide an overall insight into how individuals navigate through the complexity of what they believe sexual assault is. The

ambiguity and complexity around this area is evidenced by the subjective interpretation, which will be depicted throughout this theme.

4.3.1.1 Understanding of the vague sexual assault definition.

All participants indicated that they understood the definition of sexual assault but found it vague in terms of what sexual assault entail specifically. The perception was that overall the definition accurately reflected what they personally viewed sexual assault to be.

“I agree that’s true. Where it’s assumed, the victim does not necessarily give consent. Then it happens because the predator has ulterior motives [...] I feel like it can go more into detail. [...] Depends on how the person perceives it as well.” P.9., Female, Australia

This demonstrates that participants viewed sexual assault to be perpetrator driven. The perpetrator was thought to have a hidden motivation for engaging in this behaviour. Consequently, it could be argued that the ulterior motive and lack of consent on the victim’s behalf are the key factors distinguishing a healthy sexual relationship from a sexual assault.

Although while generally participants agreed with the definition, when examining it more closely most described it as vague and subject to individual interpretation.

“it’s very vague. Some people wouldn’t um, consider certain things sexual assault, but others would. So, the same situation would just be perceived differently I guess. [...] some people might not actually um, perceive what’s happening as assault and some people would, depending on the situation. Not everyone views it the same.” P.P., Female, UK

The ambiguity around interpretation could increase the difficulty in identifying a sexual assault. Consequently, this could negatively impact both people's understanding of sexual assault and also the prevention of it. Even with a clearer definition, how a person perceives or interprets behaviour could vary.

4.3.1.2 The shared understanding of consent

There was a general consensus in both countries where all participants were clear and consistent in their understanding of what consent means. Some even mentioned the tea consent video¹ (Group, 2015) to highlight the simplicity of what is and is not considered to be consent.

“Consent would definitely be mutual agreement from both sides” P.S., Male, UK

Participants agreed that consent is agreeing. Both parties need to be active and willing participants for consent to be present.

Participants in Australia, however, provided more detailed responses for what consent means. This could be due to an existing program on campus called Consent is Sexy; a Sexual Rights Awareness Campaign (Consent is Sexy, 2011) that promotes respect, consent, and talk about sexual relationships.

“I think it is a mutual and respectful word or saying you give someone permission and you give it freely and with full understanding. It's not coerced and it's informed. You have an understanding of what it means when you give it or when you received it from someone.” P.11., Female, Australia

¹ Sexual assault is sex without consent (Group, 2015). The tea consent video was created to explain the concept of giving and receiving sexual consent, using tea as an example. For instance, if someone said yes to tea, but became unconscious in the time if took you to make tea “don't make them drink the tea... unconscious people don't want tea” (Group, 2015).

This participant talked about what consent meant to her. She talked about what it means to give consent. The respect two people show to one another in a sexual relationship.

The participant then goes on to say:

“That it’s basically an agreement to participate or to engage in some sort of reciprocal participation, whether that be like what we’re saying, whether it be in a sexual activity, or enjoyment in sexual banter, or physical sensations. What you’re saying is I choose to partake in this with you.” P.11., Female, Australia

This suggests that regardless of the type of relationship and the sexual act, all parties need to consent to that activity. Consent is what distinguishes a healthy sexual relationship from a sexual assault.

Participants’ perceived consent to be fluid and something that could change constantly.

“I don’t care how much you’ve led someone on or stuff like that. You can always say no at the end of it. And I think that’s really important [...] even if it’s been leading up to that and you still don’t want to, it’s just as much of a sexual assault.” P.N., Female, UK

Consent needs to be given freely and can be revoked at any stage. It is not a blanket agreement. Agreeing to one thing, such as kissing, does not automatically imply agreeing to have sex with that individual. Based on findings, it could be perceived that participants have a strong understanding of the fluid nature of consent and what it entails.

4.3.1.3 The changeable nature of consent, dependent on relationship

While consent may be fluid, it became evident throughout that the methods of giving consent vary, increasing the complexity of the problem. Consent can be given

verbally or via body language. Some expressed the belief that consent should be primarily verbal.

“Verbal communication is definitely more easier to interpret cause you know [...] you’re 100% sure, because you probably asked, are you sure? And the person probably said yes, and you can know that that’s a 100% yes from that.”

P.4., Female, Australia

Verbal consent appears to remove the ambiguity about whether someone is agreeing or not to engaging in sex. Given the newness of one-night stands or early relationships it is suggested that both parties should rely on verbal consent to increase clarity, as the trust and knowledge of each other may not yet be present.

Conversely, some held the perception that verbal consent would be awkward regardless of the relationship. Verbal consent is believed to not feel natural. Instead, body language and the natural progression of activities would be relied on as the primary method of giving consent.

“It’s not like you ask. Yes. Do you consent to me touching you? [...] I think you can tell from body language and stuff. If someone didn’t want it you would be able to tell. [...] But if they reciprocate your reactions or you know, then obviously that’s giving consent.” P.J., Female, UK

Some people are adept at reading body language. However, while some may be able to communicate this way it could be perceived that this is an ability that is often developed as a relationship develops. If this is missing, body language as a method of consent becomes ambiguous and is open to misinterpretation.

“body language can signal what they do want and it can be used. But [...] it could just be the person and they’re quite playful when talking to other people [...] Which I think could happen at parties and stuff like that, playfully talking to people.” P.4., Female, Australia

It appears, based on responses that the method of consent is subject to how each individual interprets it and how comfortable or confident they feel. Some people will opt for verbal consent, whereas others perhaps fear rejection and therefore use body language as a method. It is dependent on the individual, increasing the complexity of giving consent in a sexual relationship.

4.3.1.4 Ambiguity surrounding sexual nature/manner

Similar to consent, it was clear that the understanding of sexual nature/manner is ambiguous and open to subjective interpretation; however, there was general agreement between the participants.

“anything relating to a sexual act or sexual acts or sexual behaviour like sex or even gestures. Ya, just intimacy. Even people being very close with you. Just touching your body. [...] The context as well. What that person means. The way they’re coming across. The way you feel.” P.20., Female, Australia

There was a general consensus that sexual nature/manner refers to some level of sexual arousal or intimacy between people. However, it appears that it is not just the actions between two people but also the context and emotion tied to those actions. Whether a situation is interpreted as sexual or not is subjective and open to interpretation. What one person may not consider sexual, such as a touch on the arm, another person may interpret as sexual. This creates some ambiguity in what is considered sexual nature/manner.

4.3.1.5 Incongruences/similarities between risk factors and signs of an impending sexual assault

There were inconsistencies between the UK and Australia in terms of what the risk factors were for a sexual assault but also in terms of signs of an impending sexual assault and the environment this could occur in. There are three sub-themes that examine these inconsistencies.

4.3.1.5.1 Risk factors for a sexual assault

Perceptions of factors that could increase the risk of sexual assault varied depending on country. Most UK responses and a small proportion of Australian participants provided very stereotypical responses.

“Um, night time, um, young girl or boy, walking home after being out with friends, had a couple drinks, generally not knowing what’s happening around them, and being caught off guard by someone else who’s been following you”

P.O., Male, UK

While rare that a sexual assault would occur in this type of situation, there was a belief among most UK and some Australian participants that this is a likely scenario. It could be argued that believing in a stereotypical response is a way for people to remove themselves from the risk of becoming victimised. They can acknowledge that it happens, but place the risk in a scenario, they believe they are unlikely to find themselves (e.g., walking home alone, at night).

While a small proportion of Australian participants believed the stereotype in alliance with the UK participants, the majority had more realistic perceptions of what would constitute a risk for sexual assault.

“[...] a single female in a pub with a guy who really wants to [...] pick up girls, or looking for an escape from the pub. I think that’s risky.” P.15., Female, Australia

Australian participants may have a more accurate perception of risk as there are several awareness and educational programmes in place within the University, such as Consent is Sexy (Consent is Sexy, 2011). These programmes could increase university students’ awareness about risk factors and signs to look out for regarding sexual assault.

4.3.1.5.2 Signs of an impending sexual assault

Both the UK and Australian university had similar, realistic perceptions when describing the signs of an impending sexual assault. This included describing either ambiguous or clear situations. An ambiguous situation, naturally, would be harder to detect, or at the very least decreases the likelihood of intervention as there would be a fear of misinterpreting the situation.

“I think the victim would be not as obvious about wanting to get away and stuff because they would be a lot more vulnerable and weaker. Yeah just um, you’re a lot slower when you’re drunk, so if you’re trying to push them away or something. [...] I think if they just not, not speaking much, I think they’d really be, um, and struggling to hold themselves up.” P.P., Female, UK

It could be difficult to identify a potential sexual assault if the victim were intoxicated. The victim may not be overly responsive, and it could be perceived that they are receiving help from someone. Consequently, it may not be clear that something is wrong and the likelihood of intervening decreases.

The opposite perspective, the clear situation, depicts a different scenario describing signs of an impending sexual assault.

“it’s usually body language. [...] You can see, if it’s something light, as in your passing by someone, and they slap your butt. And you react and complain and the bystander will look at this, [...] body language is the more obvious signal or sign of the abuse. And it draws attention and bystanders can come and see what’s happening.” P.6., Male, Australia

If a potential victim is seen to be refusing the perpetrators actions and trying to get away. It would be clear that the victim is not giving consent. Additionally, there would be a possibility that the victim would be asking for help. The victim’s body language draws attention to the unwanted behaviour. Some participants felt that body language is the key factor that influences intervening behaviour. If the body language is clearly depicting that the victim is uncomfortable, the likelihood of bystander intervention increases.

4.3.1.5.3 Environment where a sexual assault is most likely to occur

There were discrepancies among participants’ perceptions regarding where they felt a sexual assault is most likely to occur. Some felt that the risk of victimisation was highest in pubs and clubs while others felt the risk was at house parties. Those who felt pubs and clubs were riskier attributed this to the environment and the anonymity around that.

“I think it might be more in clubs because there is the sense of I guess, anonymity if that makes sense. Cause it’s dark and everyone is crowded, and squashed in around other people. So, you feel like no one can see you. So, I guess, those are easier to target people because people are busy dancing and

stuff and drinking. And so, they're not really focusing on anything.” P.4.,

Female, Australia

The number of strangers and people present in these venues created a riskier environment in their perceptions. These distractions present at clubs could decrease the likelihood of spotting signs for a sexual assault. At a house party however, there are more familiar people present.

Familiarity with people lowers suspicion and people tend to feel more at ease.

“In a house party I would say people [...] know someone, at least a few people.

So, I would say in a house party it would be less ah, happening, these situations, sexual assault.” P.R., Male, UK

Participants are reluctant to believe that someone they know would sexually assault them, even though research suggests a perpetrator is likely someone the victim knows. Therefore, it could be argued that these people are trying to remove the risk from house parties because they do not want to acknowledge their own personal risk.

Conversely, a few UK participants and a large proportion of Australian participants had the opposing view, that house parties are riskier.

“at a house party I think it's hard to be accounted for. So, if I'm in a night club, I'd feel like everyone sort of knows who the group is that they came with.

There's also bouncers and other staff that are potential guardians that are sort of there.” P. 11., Female, Australia

Night clubs have security measures (e.g., bouncers) in place to protect people. These safety measures are believed to provide protection if something were to go wrong. P.11. then goes on to say that this is missing from house parties.

“If you're at a house party I think it would be very easy to get someone down a hallway or into a room and no one else is going to go into that room or knock on

the door. They're going to assume that you've both gone there willingly. I think at a house party it's less policed as in the amount of alcohol or different things."

P.11., Female, Australia

House parties are less controlled. There are more private areas that are not monitored, such as bedrooms. These areas provide 'privacy' increasing risk and decreasing the likelihood of the victim and perpetrator being seen. Therefore, some believed parties provided a greater risk compared to pubs or clubs.

4.3.2 Contributing risk factors for sexual assault

There are four sub-themes identified that contribute to the risk of sexual assault. This includes the effect of the university party life, the different protective factors (e.g., being with friends), and risk factors (e.g., alcohol).

4.3.2.1 General acceptance and adherence to the norms of university party life

The acceptance and adherence to the university party life was mentioned by all participants. Partying in university is seen as a way of life. It has become a norm, a way for students to release energy.

"when I go out to a night club and when some of my friends go out to a night club, we go [...] because it's fun, we enjoy being drunk, and having loud music, and just generally enjoying ourselves." P.E., Male, UK

Partying is seen as fun and part of university life. The combination of music and alcohol is something that appears to appeal to university students. It is a way for friends to spend time with each other. Some even referred to partying as a priority, where studying comes in second.

“I think it’s just student priorities I guess. [...] a lot of students prioritise party rather than studying. [...] I think it’s also the expectation and peer pressure as well, because a lot of students go. And create all these party pages on Facebook as well.” P.10., Female, Australia

To party, is to make friends and socialise. It appears to be perceived as a norm and an expectation. Not to go out could make one ‘different’ in comparison to their peer group.

4.3.2.2 Protective factors decreasing the risk of victimisation

When participants discussed the risk for sexual assault, how they personally combat risk came up. A key finding in terms of protective factors is that people take precautions on a night out to maintain their safety. A main safety precaution taken is going home with the friends you went out with.

“if you are there with your friends, they know you are there somewhere and they’ll hopefully bound to check on you and make sure you’re okay [...] if anything goes wrong they can see you and they know like our friend does not usually behave like this, she needs help.” P.A., Female, UK

P.A. argued that friends know each other, their body language, what they would or would not be willing to do and will most often notice if something is wrong. Friends may be a protective factor as they look out for each other and want to prevent any harm as they are invested in each other’s wellbeing. Arguably, they will have more confidence in their ability to intervene if they notice something wrong.

Both countries shared this perception. However, it appears this safety precaution is primarily carried out by females but is noticed by men.

“I do notice more so with girls like they are, it’s well, in my accommodation they will always go out and like, together in groups so never like go out alone.”

P.I., Male, UK

It could be argued that women acknowledge their risk of being sexually victimised and try to protect themselves. However, that men do not have a similar safety precaution could suggest that the view of females being weak and vulnerable has become normalised and that not only men but also women believe that women are the most likely to become a victim.

4.3.2.3 Risk of victimisation: Unfamiliar surroundings; surrounded by many people; partying as a way to alleviate university stress; and the ‘hook-up’ culture

When faced with what increases the risk of victimisation, there was a difference between the UK and Australian responses. In the UK responses primarily focused on lack of familiarity with surroundings and distractions.

“when you move away you are somewhere you don’t know. where you’ve never been before, you’re not familiar with your surroundings. You, it’s easier to get caught off guard really.” P.O., Male, UK

It was said that most people move away from home to go to university. This could also be the first time they are away from home. It could be argued that with the excitement of starting something new, people do not pay attention to their surroundings, increasing the risk for sexual assault.

Additionally, university life is also comprised of a number of distractions, such as the number of new people around. Distractions increase the vulnerability and risk of potential victims.

“I feel like it happens a lot more. Only because, especially if you live in dorms [...] You are surrounded by a lot more people and you are having like parties and stuff and so it’s easier to be like drugged or something like that. And be taken advantage of.” P.A., Female, UK

In Australia, however, responses primarily focused on partying as a way to alleviate university stress and the ‘hook-up’ culture. Young university students tend not to think about the risk. University comes with a lot of expectations such as deadlines for assessments. Consequently, students experience a level of stress many have not experience before.

“When you’re stressed you drink. When you’re stressed you want to let your hair down more often as well. So, I reckon that and plus you’re young and you’re trying to find yourself.” P.18., Female, Australia

To combat this, some said students may party as a way to alleviate that stress. It gives them the opportunity to temporarily abandon their responsibilities.

University is also a time for students to learn about themselves, both as individuals and sexually. The hook-up culture associated with partying is another method that allows for that to happen.

“it is also the venues where people go to meet potential sexual partners. [...] In addition to the party culture there’s also the pickup culture. And the hook-up

culture. Those places are hot spots for all of it. It's like a melting pot." P.19.,

Male, Australia

It appears that parties may not just be for drinking, but about finding a sexual partner for the night. However, not everyone is looking for a 'hook-up'. Consequently, the combination of misinterpreting body language and consent, as well as the influence of alcohol could increase the risk for sexual assault.

4.3.2.4 Perceptions of the negative impact of alcohol

The common ground between the UK and Australia is their perceptions of alcohol and how it can increase the risk of sexual assault. Risk and vulnerability are exponentially increased by the presence and consumption of alcohol.

"I think it (alcohol) factors into it highly because it um, lowers inhibitions and generally people are more willing to do whatever you tell them. Whereas they might regret it the next day." P.S., Male, UK

Alcohol was perceived by participants to be the key aspect to sexual assault. It can lower people's inhibitions, impairs the ability to make sound judgements, and increases vulnerability. If a victim is heavily intoxicated they are less in control, impairing their ability to get away. While it negatively affects the victim, alcohol also affects the perpetrator.

Alcohol can lower a perpetrator's inhibitions. It blocks out the rational part of someone that says this behaviour is wrong.

"I think that they're precursors (alcohol) for basically the absence of morality in times like, they stop that little voice in the back of your mind that says no this a wrong thing to do. No this is probably not a good thing to do with this person

[...] you've got a situation with male or female perpetrators actually using alcohol and drugs to prey basically." P.12., Male, Australia

Therefore, instead of viewing alcohol as a facilitator to sexual assault from the perpetrator's perspective, it could be argued that it could potentially be used as a way to minimise or excuse sexual assault. For example, if the perpetrator had no alcohol, the sexual assault would not have taken place.

Participants agreed that alcohol is the key contributing factor for a sexual assault. However, the impact of alcohol can be manipulated based on the perspective taken. Alcohol can be used to target a victim by lowering their inhibitions. It can also be used to excuse the perpetrator, as he/she was not in the right frame of mind.

4.3.3 Individual perceptions and justifications of the victim and perpetrator

This theme is comprised of four sub-themes, the last of which is only reflected among UK participants. Overall insight is created, reflecting how participants perceived the dynamic of the victim and the perpetrator individually as well as together.

4.3.3.1 Conceptualisation of who the victim is

Participants overwhelmingly conceptualised that while the victim for sexual assault can be anyone, they stated that most often, the victim tends to be a woman.

"a vulnerable girl, young girl. Like 18 to 20. I think they, they're just more vulnerable anyway and that's when you're going out as well. So, it's more, you're more accessible" P.K., Female, UK

"a bit more naïve about the world, [...] probably who haven't had as much life experience and [...] they are a bit more weaker, they can't really get out of it, unless someone helps them." P.4., Female, Australia

Participants believed that young women are more likely to be victimised; the lack of life experience and knowledge puts young women at risk. They may not be aware of the dangers and how to protect themselves. Prior to entering university, providing some age appropriate awareness raising sexual education (e.g., what a healthy relationship looks like, consent, etc.) could potentially decrease the prevalence of sexual assault.

4.3.3.2 Conceptualisation of who the perpetrator is

Some participants stated that they believed women could be perpetrators of sexual assault. However, in terms of frequency, there was no uncertainty among participants when they stated that men are often the perpetrators of sexual assault.

“It’s probably a man that has very low respect for women. Ya, maybe someone with very conservative views. Someone with low regard for other people’s feelings and wellbeing. Self-centred people.” P.19., Male, Australia

Participants described the perpetrator as someone with a low opinion of women and minimal empathy. Importantly, this highlights that not every man is a perpetrator. But in fact, it could be a belief or attitude a perpetrator has, that could be addressed to reduce perpetration.

Additionally, an interesting finding emerged when discussing perpetrators. Female participants acknowledged the risk for a man to be a perpetrator, similar to how they acknowledged the risk for a woman to be a victim, with no justification or defence. It was presented as a statement of fact. Male participants however, felt the need to justify their responses.

“There are some people who go out to clubs, [...] intentionally to bring someone back home with them. [...] They just, they want to take someone back with them.

They want to have someone to like play around with or something. I think that's really bad. [...] I don't think the sort of, you know the, the sort of sexual side of it is, I don't think that's particularly positive in any way. I don't think it's normal." P.E., Male, UK

It appears as if men are trying to keep themselves separate from the men that would perpetrate. The 'sexual side' is addressed as well. Perhaps it is something biological influencing perpetration. However, participants did not appear to agree with this. Instead, it appears as if it is a choice that a perpetrator makes or a belief they have. If this is the case, it can be addressed and used as a way to prevent sexual assault.

4.3.3.3 The victim and perpetrator relationship

The perceptions and understanding of the relationship between the victim and perpetrator were mixed. Some believed the relationship between the victims and perpetrators could be anything from strangers to two people in a relationship.

"they, they could just be completely random to be honest, but could be anything, [...] I think these days, that you don't even have to know a person or you could be in a relationship with the person, to sexually assault them" P.D., Female, UK

For these people, there appears to be no pattern or reason for who perpetrates and who is victimised. It could be anyone. However, this was not the case for all participants. Others expressed a belief that is reflective of the literature that sexual assault tends to occur between two individuals who know each other on some level.

"a majority of assaults happen between people that know each other in one way or another because you're more likely to be socialising together and maybe you're even not thinking twice about lowering your inhibitions together and that

can end up in a bad situation where someone thinks one thing and the other things another thing” P.19., Male, Australia

From this, it appears as if the trust two people have between each other can be impaired when under the influence. The lack of inhibitions can cause people to misinterpret signals potentially leading to a sexual assault.

Finally, a proportion of participants adopted a stereotypical stance, believing victims and perpetrators are strangers to one another.

“well as we were talking about the clubs and going out and partying and drinking alcohol [...] I guess they would be strangers mostly because you know ya. They don’t know each other.” P.R., Male, UK

This belief could be another attempt at trying to downplay personal risk, where some participants do not want to acknowledge that someone they know could violate them. It could be a safety measure these people have adopted to protect themselves. However, overall there were mixed perceptions on the relationship between a victim and perpetrator; perhaps due to lack of education. If so, it needs to be addressed to increase knowledge regarding sexual assault.

4.3.3.4 Distancing or dissociating from victim or perpetrator

Distancing or dissociating from the victim or perpetrator was only reflected among UK participants. The way UK participants discussed the victim and perpetrator appeared to be done in a way to downplay personal risk. There are two aspects of this: distancing from being a victim themselves and distancing from being or knowing the perpetrator. There were some extreme examples of participants distancing themselves from being a victim.

“There’s children from normal families, and children from benefits family, you know. Those kids are mostly sensitive and ah, have bad life for their families. [...] they are not the same as normal children. They are more sensitive [...] and those children are mostly victims because they are easy (targets).” P.G., Female, UK

This could be interpreted as a way for the participant to distance herself from being part of the ‘victim category’. It could be construed as a method of protecting oneself. She places herself in the ‘normal’ category and provides an explanation for why someone else is more likely to be victimised.

There was also evidence of participants distancing themselves from the perpetrator. Male participants tended to distance themselves as in, they would not be perpetrators. They would agree that the perpetrator is most likely a man but were quick to take themselves out of the equation.

“Just thought about men, well not me personally. But men in general, seem to objectify women more than they should be.” P.O., Male, UK

They do not want to be stereotyped into the same category as a possible perpetrator.

Finally, women also expressed ways of distancing themselves from perpetrators. Not from being a perpetrator, but about the type of person that perpetrates.

“Maybe, who have mental illness or some kind. It’s not good minds. Cause normal people do not do that. Normally. But I think that mostly the person who will, who has just bad life don’t, they’re lonely in the uni for example, and in that way they want to um, express their self.” P.G., Female, UK

She believed that a perpetrator would have to be mentally ill to commit a sexual offence. In this instance it could be argued that perpetrators are abnormal. That something would have to be inherently wrong with the person in order to commit such

an offense. This allowed the participant to distance herself by implying she associates with normal people who would not sexually assault someone. Since a perpetrator is not normal, her friends would therefore not be perpetrators.

4.3.4 Intricacies surrounding victim experiences and decision-making

Three main sub-themes are discussed that comprise the intricacies around victim experiences. This includes how victims of sexual assault are perceived, why they do or do not report, and the negative consequences a victim experiences post assault.

4.3.4.1. Why victims report: Support system and seeking justice

A multitude of reasons arose for potential explanations on why victims would report a sexual assault. Participants suggested that perhaps older victims would be more likely to report as they are more confident to do so. Additionally, knowledge of where to go to report was a motivator to report. However, there were two main reasons that participants believed would prompt victims to report: justice and moral support. There was a belief that justice should be sought to prevent others from becoming victims of sexual assault.

“they just want to have ah, um, what’s the word, justice. Because it’s not okay for someone who is sexually assaulted. I don’t know how I would feel but I would be really down. I would be angry, I would be, I would want the person to be judged for what he or she did.” P.R., Male, UK

According to this, the likelihood of reporting increases when the victim is angry and wants justice. By reporting and having the perpetrator held accountable, it could allow the victim to move forward and aid in the healing process.

Additionally, a large percentage of participants also believed that having moral support would increase the likelihood of reporting. Moral support could include family or friends who encourage the victim to report.

“I would have to say that support (family or friends) would have to be one of the major things. And the support can also come from like, if you’ve got somewhere on campus at a university where a student who has been assaulted can go speak to somebody. [...] But there’s, they’ve got to have some kind of support.” P.5., Female, Australia

While it is believed that support may often come from family and friends, professionals (e.g., psychologists or university staff) could also be an important source of moral support. The trust the victim has in their support network is the key factor. The support obtained can make the experience of reporting less daunting.

4.3.4.2 Why victims do not report: Fear of not being believed, lack of support, revictimisation, not comfortable reporting, and shame

There was a plethora of reasons for why victims would not report. For example, while there were varied responses between the UK and Australia, one major reason students from both countries agreed on was that victims could fear not being believed; potentially because they were under the influence of alcohol at the time.

“I think that a lot of people, they don’t remember it, just because they were drunk they think they’re never going to recognise them again, so they probably think it’s pointless going forward.” P.K., Female, UK

The fear of not being believed appears to be primarily with authority figures such as the police not believing the victim. Fear of not being believed or fear that no conviction will

be reached after they report, could deter victims from reporting altogether. While both countries agreed about the fear of not being believed, that is where the similarities end.

The UK suggested that while support can influence rate of reporting, discouragement from support systems could also negatively impact reporting rates.

“they don’t feel like they can report it because they don’t want to come across as someone who is seeking attention they feel like they can’t speak out about it. Not having anyone around them, being told that they shouldn’t report it by their friends or family.” P.A., Female, UK

Arguably not having the support to report or being seen in a negative light could reduce the likelihood of reporting., This could link back to the fear of not being believed.

In Australia, however, it was found that the fear of revictimisation or retribution had a greater impact on reporting rates. They believed that victims would choose not to report because they could be afraid of what the perpetrator would do if they found out the victim reported them.

“The type of person [the perpetrator] they are, are they dangerous, could they hurt you, could they hurt your family. Are they going to start a smear campaign over social media, victimise you? A lot of things. Will it happen again?” P.20., Female, Australia

Discussion was also present among UK participants about the difficulties female victims might experience if they had to report to a male police officer.

“um, I feel like with the police um, there’s like a lot more like male officers and if we’re just going by statistics I guess um, then they might not be comfortable around like, like an entirely men environment and ya, I think that might be it as well.” P.I., Male, UK

“the fact that like there’s so many men working within the legal system as well. And most of the men that commit this kind of crime. So if a woman is raped, she first was raped by a man, then she has to go to the legal system and be treated by men, all saying that you realise that these are serious convictions. There’s such a, there’s such a big disbelief.” P.N., Female, UK

Female victims may find it disconcerting to report to a male officer, if they were victimised by a man. Consequently, the disbelief and having to report to a man after being assaulted by a man could reduce the likelihood of reporting. Possibly having supportive female officers take statements may be beneficial and could encourage more victims to come forward.

Finally, Australian participants spoke about beliefs about how victims may experience shame or embarrassment about the event.

“feeling like they’ve done something wrong. That they’ve brought it on themselves. Some things like that.” P.5., Female, Australia

Victims could potentially blame themselves, for ‘letting’ someone sexually assault them. Often, they may think they should have done something more or been clearer in saying no. Victims could be ashamed that they did not do something to stop it. Consequently, this could prevent them from reporting the assault.

4.3.4.3 Negative consequences associated with being a victim of sexual assault

Participants had a general understanding and conceptualised what possible negative consequences a victim could experience post assault. It was stressed that no one experience would be the same. Some victims may not have any explicit negative reactions. They may continue on with their lives as normal. Whereas, others may

completely alter their lives because of the assault. However, there was a consensus that for most, sexual assault would have negative implications on a victim's mental health, as well as her social life.

"I think that um, they will stop, they will stop um, going out and being ah socialising with other people. I think that it would be quite introvert after that. And um, prefer to stay at home and, and ah, refuse to go out with friends, people they will be afraid with someone else again. And um, being at the same situation again." P.L., Male, UK

The perceptions of negative emotions and associations a victim may experience post assault could cause victims to drastically alter their lifestyles. A victim's lifestyle could change from being outgoing to becoming more reclusive as a way to protect oneself from future victimisation.

Additionally, another key negative aspect associated with victimisation is difficulty in trusting others.

"It would probably influence the confidence for future relationships. Trying to trust someone could be an issue. Committing to someone. Being open to someone. Um, personal boundaries. Might be a lot um, tighter. Like you might sort of have different boundaries afterwards." P.3., Female, Australia

Sexual assault was viewed as a violation of trust between two people. If the perpetrator took advantage of the victim, taking away her autonomy could have a negative impact on future relationships. This could apply to both platonic relationships and sexual relationships, depending on the circumstances. Lack of trust in people would limit the amount of people the victim would meet and befriend. It would also affect the

likelihood of whether the victim would want to enter into a sexual relationship with someone after the assault.

4.3.5 To intervene or not to intervene

Three main aspects appear to influence the decision of whether one should intervene or not. The areas included are contextual factors, personal beliefs, and friends.

4.3.5.1 Contextual interpretations affecting helping behaviour

The context of the situation a bystander is in or encounters when witnessing a sexual assault can strongly impact how one makes the decision to intervene or not. Situational cues are widely affected, primarily by the clarity of the situation. Clarity directly impacts how a situation is interpreted. If a situation clearly depicted a sexual assault, the likelihood of intervening would increase. There would be no doubt regarding what is going on and that it is not socially or morally acceptable. However, findings suggested that while this is an acknowledged fact, no one could describe what a sexual assault would look like without using stereotypical, rare responses that would make it clear the actions witnessed are unwanted.

“There’s some signs of I don’t know, screaming or something. Or arguing or you know. So, words.” P.R., Male, UK

Research suggests that P.R.’s response is not a typical response for a victim of sexual assault. It is therefore, interesting that people hold onto this belief of how to spot a sexual assault. It could be argued that people want to hold onto this misconception of what a sexual assault looks like so that there is direct instruction for what to do next. For example, if someone screams, it means the actions are unwanted, and the person is in need of help.

In reality, sexual assaults tend to be much more ambiguous due to the number of variables present in an environment where sexual assault may take place.

“it depends on your environment I think [...] at a house party or night club you’re not really focused on that, you’re kind of focused on, like why you’re there, which is to have fun and drink and stuff.” P.D., Female, UK

The complexity of where sexual assaults take place could increase the difficulty in spotting the signs. If people are there to have fun, they may be less aware of their surroundings and more focused on what they are doing. Consequently, it could reduce the likelihood of intervention. Bystanders may see an assault, but due to the ambiguity of the situation, they may hesitate on intervening.

“not sure of the situation, that that’s what’s happening, that it’s sexual assault or like not being aware of what sexual assault is. Thinking that if they don’t know the people that, if they don’t know that’s how they normally act or if that’s what always happens. Maybe they’re a couple, if something. If it’s more.” P.10., Female, Australia

Some believe bystanders may rationalise the event in a manner that suggests that it is not a big deal, it is something other than an assault, or they remove the responsibility to act. For example, the bystander may interpret that the two people are in a relationship and that perhaps that behaviour is normal for them. All these rationalisations act to reduce the likelihood of intervening.

Sexual assaults tend to be difficult to spot and intervening is considered to be even harder. However, it is agreed that the seriousness of the situation drastically increases the likelihood of bystander intervention.

“I think that intervention actually happens in more like serious situations because it’s visible that something here is happening that should not be happening.” P.S., Male, UK

The seriousness of the situation removes the ambiguity and doubt a bystander may encounter when witnessing the assault. It assures the bystander that the victim is in distress and requires help. There is no doubt that what is occurring is unsolicited and needs to be stopped.

This is further supported by people’s interpretation of the Stanford Rape Case.

“if they saw that she was unconscious, well that would make you wonder what the hell is going on. So, you would intervene. Ya you would be wondering what’s going on. You would have to see that she’s unconscious. And if she’s unconscious somethings wrong.” P.5., Female, Australia

The seriousness of the situation facilitated bystander intervention. There was no ambiguity about what was going on. The bystanders knew something was wrong and successfully intervened to stop it from continuing.

4.3.5.2 Personal internalisations, beliefs, and the impact on bystander intervention

How a bystander internalises the situation depicting sexual assault and their personal beliefs on helping can positively or negatively affect intervention. In order to intervene, a bystander has to notice the event first. People often pay more attention when in an unfamiliar area.

“I think them being in a different environment, maybe they were just more aware of what was going on around them because um, you know they just know that

they are in a different place. [...] I do think when you're not from somewhere, your senses are heightened. You're thinking more about the things that are around you." P.Q., Female, UK

If a bystander is relatively new to the area, whether it is a new city or country, or they are relatively new to the university, the bystander may be more aware of their surroundings. Consequently, they could be more likely to spot a sexual assault.

How a bystander interprets the situation emotionally, which is influenced by his/her beliefs, affects the likelihood of intervention.

"sometimes when you are in certain situations, you get like this feeling, like oh no this uncomfortable for me to watch, so it must be uncomfortable for the person in the situation. Maybe I should do something before it goes bad." P.A., Female, UK

Participants talked about the different emotions surrounding witnessing a sexual assault. If they experience strong emotions and interpret the situation as wrong, they believe they would feel morally obligated to intervene to reduce the negative arousal to the situation.

Even if potential bystanders could successfully spot the signs of an impending sexual assault and felt as if they should do something, intervention could still decrease.

"somebody who's not very confident is not going to be very forthcoming about stepping into a situation. They would be very wary about that. Whether it be lacking confidence physically, because it might be somebody 3 times their size. Or confidence in just talking to people." P.5., Female, Australia

Participants provided a multitude of explanations for this. For example, the perpetrator could be bigger than them, or they could lack the confidence in their ability to intervene. Fear appears to be the common element in all of the explanations present. Therefore, fear could be a major contributing factor that can decrease the likelihood of intervening.

4.3.5.3 It is friends, not gender, that influences helping behaviour

While various situational factors such as being alone when witnessing a sexual assault could influence bystander intervention, it was found that when the victim is a friend, helping behaviour increases. However, controlling for friendship at the start, it was found the type of person one is will influence intervention. There was a difference in opinion regarding whether being surrounded by friends while witnessing a sexual assault would be beneficial or not. Some argued that being with friends would provide a distraction, decreasing the risk of intervening. The person would be too involved with his/her own situation to even notice the assault. Additionally, being with friends could also reduce personal responsibility for taking action, resulting in diffusion of responsibility. However, a large portion of participants took the opposing view.

“if your friends are with you, you have the confidence anyway. You’re given that boost of you’re in a group, so even if it’s not what you think it is, because [...] you are a bit more confident to say something whereas if you are on your own, you’re crippled by the fear [...] I think that togetherness is what gives people the confidence to step in when things are you know going wrong” P.C., Female, UK

Being with friends would be a contributing factor to intervening. Friends could increase confidence, aid in maintaining personal safety, and encourage direct intervention.

Additionally, it could also be viewed that perhaps bystanders do not have to be friends in the traditional sense.

“I think there’s power in numbers, and I think the more people that are empowered with knowledge and tools and methods and skills. [...] Them all being able to look at each other and share a social connection, they share a common goal, um, and then I think there is a power there for people to speak together [...] I think the people that do say something, have really defined rules.” P.1., Female, Australia

Instead, it was believed that people with shared commonalities and beliefs could foster a connection. That shared interest could positively influence intervening behaviour as they are working towards a common goal. For example, both parties, with no previous relationship to each other, were able to identify the signs, knew it was wrong, banded together for support, and intervened.

Situational factors such as having support to intervene are important. However, accounting for possible friendships with the victim, it appears that knowing or having a relationship with the victim could dramatically affect the rate of intervention.

“O ya my friends [...] drink got spiked and she was lucky that one of her friends around her noticed immediately that there was something wrong with her and stopped her from drinking it because it was like an immediate effect. Cause she was just drinking coke or something but that’s the scary thing about, like open glasses, someone can put something in there.” P.Q., female, UK

Arguably, there is a strong, explicit moral obligation to help a friend, that does not necessarily exist between strangers. There is an intrinsic understanding of behaviours and mannerisms between friends. They look out for each other and maintain one another’s safety. It is therefore, easier for friends to pick up on suspicious behaviours, than it is for strangers.

Conversely, knowing the perpetrator also generated similar responses.

“If it was someone that you knew and um, if you saw them doing something like that cause they were drunk or something you would just go and stop them. Cause if you know them you’re not going to be afraid of them really.” P.P., Female, UK

Some participants believed they are more likely to step in, if they had some relationship with the perpetrator. It removes some of the risks a bystander perceives to his/her personal safety. Knowing the perpetrator boosts a bystander’s confidence in his/her ability to do something. The trust they have in their relationship with the perpetrator reduces fear for personal safety.

While Australian participants generally agreed, some took it the extra step stating that if the perpetrator is known, then intervening can become situation dependent.

“The bystander needs to be really good people to stop that. I think it’s easier to omit yourself in this case. Sometimes people just don’t want to actually break their relationships.” P.6., Male, Australia

Those participants thought that some bystanders could find it daunting to tell their friend that their behaviour is not acceptable. It would therefore, require more courage to intervene. However, this does not mean a friend would never stop a sexual assault if they knew the perpetrator, but that some would not, primarily to protect their friendship.

Finally, while there is some research that suggests women may be more likely to intervene in a sexual assault, most believe that there would be no gender difference.

“I think that’s very equal. But I think that men are more likely to go into the situation alone and women are more likely to be as a group to intervene.” P.19.,

Male, Australia

They believed that men and women are equally as likely to intervene because it is the right thing to do and they have the confidence to do so. It does not matter if a bystander knows the victim or the perpetrator. Instead, it is the perceived commonalities with either the victim or perpetrator and the morals the bystander(s) possess that influences intervention.

4.3.6 Techniques to raise awareness on sexual assault

The last theme is comprised of two sub-themes: what impeded awareness and what can be done to raise awareness on sexual assault.

4.3.6.1 Societal constructs impede forward momentum to reduce prevalence rates

There were numerous speculations among participants for why they believed awareness of sexual assault was not reaching its full potential. The majority of those explanations were grounded in societal constructs. Others were grounded in the lack of sexual education. Participants talked about how sexual education does happen but how it was limited.

“I think you’re never told. [...] it’s only recently that I’ve been finding out that these things can be sexual assault. Which is, it shows my ignorance as well [...] I think people just don’t know it counts. Even females don’t know it counts. So, if a female doesn’t even know that that is sexual assault. She is not going to report it, is she? She’s just gonna think it was a bad night I guess.” P.C., Female, UK

Sexual assault does not appear to be explicitly mentioned in school. Instead, talk revolved around safe sex (e.g., condoms), and the biology of it. It was believed that the lack of education on what is a healthy relationship and what is assault perpetuates the problem. This also highlights the fact that if one does not know what a healthy relationship is, how can an unhealthy relationship be identified.

In conjunction, while education is perceived to be lacking, so too is talk about sex. Participants viewed talking about sex as a taboo. That it is not something that is openly welcomed in conversation.

“making it a subject that is not taboo. I find myself in interesting situations where I will start talking about these issues with people and you get the deer in the headlights sort of thing, like oh my god he’s talking about sex, you can’t do that. [...] if you can’t be vocal about issues of this nature, if you can’t just talk about even a general sexual encounter. If you can’t talk about that to a friend, then how can you ever talk to them about something that went wrong.” P.12., Male, Australia

The perceived taboo on talking about sex could be a problem that aids in perpetuating the problem of sexual assault. This needs to be rectified. Talking about healthy sexual relationships needs to become a norm in society. If one can talk about healthy sex in a regular context, talking about an assault could become easier.

In the UK only, participants also discussed the effect the media has on people’s perceptions of sexual assault. These perspectives can often perpetuate rape myths, where the girls are blamed for ‘letting’ the assault occurred. These perspectives affect how sexual assault is perceived.

“um, the media influences [...] We can clearly see that they are trying to make it seem like not a big deal (regarding the Stanford Rape Case) [...] you can be influenced by it (media) and then say like oh it really isn't that big of a deal this person only got 6 months and it's fine and they could be like really influenced by like the comments.” P.I., Male, UK

Most of the UK participants expressed the view that with the Stanford Rape Case, there was a heavy focus on the perpetrator. Information such as what the perpetrator stands to lose, who he is, and what effect the whole case has had on him was mentioned in the media. However, what is not mentioned in as much detail is information about the victim and the affect the assault had on her and the potential impact on her future. Perhaps creating a more supporting view of the victim could help balance out the story, providing a comprehensive, unbiased story.

4.3.6.2 Implementing personal beliefs and technology to raise awareness and educate others

Knowing what can impede awareness of sexual assault, a discussion formed around what could be used to raise awareness of the problem. There was a common belief that as people get older, their life experience and worldly knowledge about sex and what is right and wrong develops. Older people are seen to be less naïve and more confident to step up for what they believe.

“I think the more educated you are about a topic the better you can understand what's happening when you do see something like that happen. [...] I would also say as an older person you have a lot more perspective so you know what's actually not okay and what is. Probably a lot easier than a younger person.”

P.14., Female, Australia

It was argued that there are fewer barriers impeding helping behaviour as one ages and their knowledge increases. As age increases and education is attained it could be argued that a bystander has better skills to effectively intervene. These older bystanders are perceived to have less worries about what others may think regarding their behaviour. Consequently, they may be better able to stand up for their beliefs.

Due to the perceptions that participants had about older people intervening and personal beliefs, there was no shortage of suggestions for what could be done to raise awareness and educate people about sexual assault.

“So, if you just, there would be more awareness, some application on the phone you can like download it so you can just like, hey guys you’re just doing like a bad thing and I’m like putting you on some record list, our criminal list.” P.R., Male, UK

Suggestions included utilising technology to create an online reporting system to facilitate reporting. Adapting the intervention to the target group using their interests, such as technology would be beneficial. This could ensure that people are more likely to use it, if it is something they are already using anyway (e.g., cell phones). Additionally, participants also recommended further developing existing programmes such as Consent is Sexy (Consent is Sexy, 2011) or the Respect.Now.Always (RNA) campaign (Australia, 2018) to facilitate reporting.

Finally, while ensuring that education is further developed, an argument was also made to adopt a grass roots approach by starting education in early childhood. It is believed that introducing some of this education at university, may already be too late.

“I wouldn’t implement this in a university because this has already [...] this is where people will probably come into contact so this should be implemented earlier on in school so as they’re informed as to what’s happening, what is considered misconduct and all that, so that people when they are growing up, and come to university will be able to identify and um potentially stop this form of misconduct from happening” P.S., Male, UK

Some participants argued that having education earlier, using age appropriate content could be more beneficial. If children start learning age appropriate information in early education, they may be more likely to take that with them as they grow up and move into the university sphere.

The early education should also aim to reduce gender stereotypes and move towards gender equality.

“I think it’s so ingrained in girls that they have to kind of be okay with, and let things go and just kind of let whatever happen (be passive). Whereas, boys are taught to take control of situations and you know play the aggressive sports and you know be the alpha male. [...] I think that being passive is really something that we need to destroy.” P.14., Female, Australia

While changing gender stereotypes and introducing early education is a slow cultural change, participants argued that it would be highly beneficial in the long run. The attitude that females need to be passive and males need to be aggressive should be changed. Gender equality could help reduce the risk and alongside early, age appropriate, education could potentially have a strong impact on beliefs towards sexual assault. This societal change could have a positive impact on reducing prevalence of sexual assault.

4.4 Discussion

Perceptions of sexual assault, the consequences associated with it, and what influences bystander intervention was generally similar between the UK university participants and the Australian university participants. Six overarching themes were established from the data collected: complexities surrounding sexual assault; contributing risk factors for sexual assault; individual perceptions and justifications of the victim and perpetrator; intricacies surrounding victim experiences and decision-making; to intervene or not to intervene; and techniques to raise awareness on sexual assault. Participants initially agreed with the definition for sexual assault. However, as the discussion developed, it became increasingly clear that most found the definition to be vague; specifically, when examining sexual nature/manner. Each person had their own interpretation of what sexual nature/manner entailed.

The ambiguity associated with sexual nature was also present around consent. There is an element of miscommunication around consent between parties engaging in sex that can lead to sexual assault (Curtis & Burnett, 2017). There was a distinction between whether consent is verbal, portrayed through body language, or a combination of the two. Participants were clear that consent is necessary, however, the chosen method of giving and receiving consent is subject to individual personal norms, confidence, and experiences. This method reflects the sexual scripts developed in the 1970s (Gagnon & Simon, 2017). Sexual scripts take into account sexual norms and gender differences where men actively pursue sex and women are seen as the gatekeepers, resisting initial advances (Wiederman, 2005). Alongside the lack of education surrounding consent, this could offer useful explanations for the varying responses relating to how consent is given.

When discussing the factors that could contribute to the risk of sexual assault, first year students are at an increased risk of being victimised (Kimble et al., 2008). The first year of university is referred to as the 'red zone' (Kimble et al., 2008). Often this will be the first time students are living away from home. This new, unfamiliar situation could increase the student's vulnerability to becoming sexually victimised (Towl, 2016). During this initial time, the risk of victimisation increases. Research suggests that this risk early on is associated with the high frequency of students attending parties and the consumption of large amounts of alcohol (Abbey et al., 1996; Breitenbecher, 2001; Kimble et al., 2008; Koss & Dinero, 1989; Sorenson et al., 2014). Partying is seen as a way of life (e.g., Armstrong et al., 2006). Many participants agreed with and acknowledged that it could be a key contributing factor for sexual assault.

Partying can increase one's vulnerability to being victimised and while anyone can become a victim of sexual assault, participants overwhelmingly believed that typically women are victims and men are perpetrators; this aligns with what is reported (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016; Ministry of Justice, 2013). Following this, it could be argued that while bystander intervention is already quite low, if the potential victim is male, transgendered, or in a same sex relationship, the likelihood of bystander intervention could become even more unlikely. Additionally, most believed that the victim and perpetrator would know each other on some level, which is the most common occurrence (e.g., García-Moreno, Jansen, Elssberg, Heise, & Watts, 2005). However, a small percentage of participants held the common misconception that the relationship between the victim and perpetrator is more often than not, a stranger dynamic (Abrahams et al., 2014).

In addition to having a good understanding of the relationship between the victim and perpetrator, participants had a clear understanding of what the negative

ramifications are for becoming sexually victimised and what life would be like afterwards. It was perceived that there are several barriers preventing victims from reporting, such as fear of the perpetrator or believing the assault was not a 'big deal'; these barriers are accurate common perceptions (e.g., Abrahams et al., 2014; Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2006). However, while reporting rates are low, in support of existing research, participants' perceptions were that victims are more willing to report if they have an emotional and social support network that encourages reporting (e.g., Abrahams et al., 2014).

Regardless whether a victim reports or not, most victims suffer from mental health issues such as depression or anxiety after an assault (World Health Organization, 2013). Participants were aware of these negative consequences and the effects they can have. Consequently, bystanders are more likely to help a victim if the victim is a friend to prevent their friend from enduring these consequences. This was supported by the findings of the current study, as well as previous research (e.g., Burn, 2009; Katz et al., 2015; Levine & Crowther, 2008; Nicksa, 2014). This shared identity that is derived from being a member of the same in-group, positively influences the likelihood of intervening behaviour (Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005; Tajfel, Billig, Bundy, & Flament, 1971; Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Knowing the victim removes the ambiguity around the situation, thereby increasing the likelihood of intervention. However, if the victim is a stranger, the level of ambiguity increases, reducing the likelihood of intervention. For example, if the relationship between the victim and perpetrator is unknown this could cause a fear of misinterpreting the situation, thereby reducing the likelihood of intervention (e.g., Humphreys, 2007). Additionally, ambiguity is also present regarding the signs leading up to a sexual assault. Many stated that it could be difficult to spot the signs leading up

to a sexual assault. Some participants stated that they were not aware of what could constitute as leading up to an assault. Additionally, bystanders might be under the influence of alcohol, which would then likely impair reaction time and decision making (e.g., Monks, Tomaka, Palacios, & Thompson, 2010).

Lastly, lack of education was frequently mentioned throughout the interviews. Participants found this a major concern. It was explained that their sexual education was limited to safe sexual practices and the biology of it. Developing the education surrounding sexual assault (awareness and prevention) and consent is important. A clear understanding of how to give consent could limit the prevalence of sexual assault (Beres, 2007). In accordance, talk regarding sex is also perceived to be limited. If one cannot talk about a healthy sexual relationship with friends, how will someone ever be able to talk or recognise an unhealthy sexual relationship. In an effort to address this, universities have been trying to combat this. For example, in Australia, some universities have implemented Consent is Sexy (Consent is Sexy, 2011), a “Sexual Rights Awareness campaign”, to teach about consent, respect, and increase talk about sex. In the UK some universities have something similar (e.g., Consent Matters: Boundaries, Respect, and Positive Intervention (Durham University, 2018)). By increasing knowledge about sexual relationships, both healthy and unhealthy, and addressing sexual scripts, it could be possible to increase awareness and reduce prevalence of sexual assaults.

To conclude, this transnational qualitative study examined UK and Australia university students’ perceptions about sexual assault. Findings show that there are more similarities than differences in how sexual assault is perceived between the two countries. Overall, there is some ambiguity on the interpretation of what sexual assault entails. Consequently, this impacts on responses regarding spotting and intervening in a

sexual assault. Future research should expand this area of research in the UK and Australia to develop a clear picture of how university students perceive cues to sexual assault and bystander intervention. As awareness raising programmes such as 'Consent is Sexy' grow in number, evaluations are much needed to ensure that universities implement the most effective means of increasing bystander interventions and ensure that they are having the desired effect by ultimately reducing sexual assaults on campus.

Chapter 5: Things are not always what they seem: The influence of individual and contextual factors on bystander intent to intervene

5.0 Chapter Aims

The aim of this study was to examine how individual factors and contextual factors influence the likelihood of bystander intervention, comparing the responses of participants from Coventry University and USC. Using findings from past research and the findings from Chapter Four, a vignette was designed where the situation, clarity of the situation, and relationship between the perpetrator and victim was varied. The study is the first transnational experimental comparison between two countries outside of the USA. Findings suggest that contrary to past research findings, individual factors alone are not the main contributor to intervening behaviour, with contextual factors having a greater influence on intent to intervene. They should therefore, be taken into account when designing strategies to strengthen bystander intervention programmes.

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Two (Labhardt et al., 2017) found that the majority of research is US based (e.g., Bennett & Banyard, 2016; Burn, 2009; Nicksa, 2014) and focuses primarily on self-report data, typically using methods such as vignettes. Vignettes are a frequently used method for sensitive topics such as sexual assault, removing uncomfortable interactions from face-to-face communication, allowing researchers to measure attitudes and beliefs regarding the topic area (Gourlay et al., 2014). A weakness of vignettes and self-report data is that it allows for the possibility of socially desirable responding. However, aspects of this can be controlled for by using a social desirability scale. A strength of vignettes is that it provides an unobtrusive insight into what influences bystander intervention and allows factors to be examined that cannot be manipulated in real life settings due to the potential to cause harm.

Using self-report methods like vignettes for the bystander research has been fruitful. Most research has used individual-level measures to investigate what influences bystander intervention such as the gender of bystander; the Illinois rape myth acceptance, which examines a bystanders belief in rape myths (IRMA; Burt, 1980; Payne et al., 1999); bystander intent, which measures the intent to intervene (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011); peer attitudes which accounts for a bystander's perception of his/her peers and the influence their attitudes have on the bystander's attitudes (Banyard et al., 2014); and bystander efficacy, which accounts for a bystander's level of confidence in his/her ability to intervene (Banyard et al., 2005). Overall, the findings are similar across studies. Generally women are more likely than men to state an intent to intervene (e.g., Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, 2008; Hust et al., 2013; Hust et al., 2015) and low scores on rape myth acceptance increases a bystander's intent to intervene (e.g., Banyard, 2008). Having supportive peers who do not condone sexual assault behaviour

also increases the likelihood of intent to intervene (e.g., Banyard & Moynihan, 2011), as does bystander efficacy (e.g., Exner & Cummings, 2011).

Although the main focus of research has been on individual-level factors, some researchers have considered contextual factors, such as whether the bystander knows the victim or not; the ambiguity of the situation; and whether the bystander is alone or with friends, when witnessing a sexual assault. In general, if the bystander has a relationship or connection with the victim, the intended likelihood of intervening increases (e.g., Banyard, 2008; Bennett & Banyard, 2016). Furthermore, if the clarity of the situation is clear (i.e., not ambiguous) (e.g., Carlson, 2008; Koelsch et al., 2012; McMahon et al., 2015) and witnessing the sexual assault alone, versus with friends, increases the intended likelihood of intervening (e.g., Latané & Rodin, 1969). However, there is limited research that examines what affect the contextual factors have on intervening, when controlling for the individual factors. Developing a better understanding of the interaction between contextual factors and individual factors is vital when developing bystander intervention programmes.

Lastly, there is evidence that suggests that there is an interchangeable relationship between actual bystander behaviour and intent to intervene. Research has demonstrated that actual bystander behaviour can be used to predict intentions to intervene (Banyard, 2008; Banyard et al., 2007; McMahon, 2010). Conversely, high intent to intervene can also increase the likelihood of actual bystander behaviour (e.g., Banyard et al., 2007; Brown et al., 2014; McMahon, 2010). However, various contextual factors can also affect intent to intervene (Moschella, Bennett, & Banyard, 2016). Consequently, the influence of individual and contextual factors needs to be examined in relation to intent to intervene and among those who report having previously intervened in a sexual assault.

The aim of the current study was to determine if there are differences in the intent to intervene in a sexual assault using vignettes, through a transnational study of university students from a UK and an Australian university. The study examines how the contextual factors (being alone or with friends, clarity of the situation, and relationship with victim) influence intent to intervene, while controlling for individual-level factors (i.e., gender, social desirability, rape myth acceptance, bystander intent, peer attitudes, and bystander efficacy), which have been identified within the existing research as related to the likelihood of intervention.

There were three research questions:

- (1) How do individual and contextual factors influence the intent to intervene?
- (2) How does intent to intervene compare with actual bystander intervention?
- (3) What are the similarities and differences in factors contributing to bystander intervention between students at Coventry University and at USC?

5.2 Methods

5.2.1 Participants

To determine what sample size was needed for the statistical test, a power analysis was run on G-Power for an ANCOVA (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). For a large effect size, where there are 8 covariates, a sample of 162 participants is needed. A combined sample of 289 UK and Australia participants is therefore an acceptable size to detect differences.

The original sample consisted of 387 participants. Upon examination, 98 surveys were identified as incomplete and were removed, leaving a total sample size of 289 student participants (82 males, 204 females, two transgender, and one gender fluid) from Coventry University (hereon referred to as UK) and USC (hereon referred to as

Australia). The majority of participants were completing their undergraduate studies, (UK: $n = 98$ [71%]; Australia: $n = 128$ [84.7%]). Details of the demographics are provided in Table 5.1. There were no significant differences in age between male ($M = 25.04$, $SD = 9.14$) and female ($M = 26.23$, $SD = 10.13$) participants, $t(284) = -.93$, $p = .36$, $d = .12$.

Table 5.1

Sample Demographics

Transnational Sample N = 289		
Demographics	UK (n = 138)	Australia (n = 151)
Gender		
Male	33.3% (n = 46)	23.8% (n = 36)
Female	66.7% (n = 92)	74.2% (n = 112)
Transgender		1.3% (n = 2)
Gender Fluid		0.7% (n = 1)
Mean Age (SD)	23.54 (7.66)	27.91 (11.08)
Range	18-61	18-61
Heritage		
White	56.5% (n = 78)	85.4% (n = 129)
Asian	26.8% (n = 37)	4.6% (n = 7)
Black	10.1% (n = 14)	0.0%
Other	6.5% (n = 9)	6.0% (n = 9)
Indigenous Australian	0.0%	4.0% (n = 6)
Studies		
Psychology	68.6% (n = 95)	13.2% (n = 20)
Criminology	0.0%	23.8% (n = 36)
Double major focusing on Criminology	7.2% (n = 10)	28.5% (n = 43)
Other discipline	24.2% (n = 33)	34.5% (n = 52)
Relationship status		
Single	50.0% (n = 69)	47.1% (n = 71)
In a relationship	50.0% (n = 69)	53.1% (n = 80)

5.2.2 Measures

5.2.2.1 Vignettes. Eight versions of a narrative description of a sexual assault were designed as vignettes using two sources. The first source was the interviews with

19 students from a university in the UK and 20 from a university in Australia, which focused on perceptions of sexual assault (Chapter Four). The second source was the Who Are You? bystander video (WhoAreYou, n.d.). The interviews and video were used to determine the typical scenarios or contexts in which sexual assaults on university campuses occur.

Participants were randomly assigned a vignette to read, each describing a hypothetical sexual assault. For each of the eight vignettes, three variables (being alone or with friends; clarity of situation; and relationship with victim) were manipulated. The first part of the vignettes varied situationally, where the bystander was either alone (vignettes 1-4) or with friends (vignettes 5-8) when witnessing the sexual assault. In the second part of the vignette the relationship with the victim (know victim or do not know victim) and the clarity of the situation (if the scene was clear or ambiguous) varied (see example vignette below).

You are at a student party alone, not talking to anyone at the moment [talking with your two close friends]. From what you can see there is a lot of alcohol at the party. While at the party you notice a girl you know [that you've never met before], who is obviously flirting with a guy, which is why you noticed her. As the night progresses you can't help but notice that every time you see the girl and the guy they have a drink in their hand. But you notice that the guy seems relatively sober, while the girl is getting increasingly drunker; she is stumbling and slurring her speech. The guy becomes more physically intimate with the girl. He is touching her arm, whispering in her ear, and kissing her neck. The girl however, does not seem to be reciprocating. You see the girl trying

to push him away, shaking her head no, and it looks like she is saying “no” [but does not pull away either]. Even so, you see the guy begin to lead her out of the room to what you suspect is a more private location [while the girl looks really out of it].

5.2.2.2 Questionnaire. Participants were asked a series of questions after reading the assigned vignette. These included where they imagined the party to have taken place, and their likelihood of intervening, using a 7-point (1 = extremely unlikely to 7 = extremely likely) Likert-type scale. Based on the responses to likelihood of intervening, participants were provided with follow-up questions to develop an understanding about what could influence, or inhibit, their intervention. Respondents who scored between 2 and 7 on the likelihood to intervene scale were asked to rank order the reasons influencing their intent to intervene. Participants were provided with seven options (see first column in Table 5.2) and were prompted to rank the top three reasons influencing their decision in order of most influential. This was followed by a series of 7-point scales (1 = extremely unlikely to 7 = extremely likely) to determine what method participants were most likely to use as a method of intervening (e.g., how likely are you to go up to the girl and ask if she needs help?). Those who scored 1 (extremely unlikely) did not complete this question, as they were at the extreme end of not intervening.

Any participants that scored between 1 and 6 on the intent to intervene scale were asked to rank order the reasons inhibiting their intent to intervene. Participants were provided with 7 options (see column 2, Table 5.2) and were prompted to rank the top three reasons in order of importance that would prevent them from intervening.

Those who scored 7 (extremely likely) did not complete this question as they were at the extreme end of intervening.

Table 5.2

Reasons influencing or inhibiting likelihood of intervening

Reasons influencing intervention (Scores between 2 and 7 on the likelihood to intervene scale)	Reasons inhibiting intervention (Scores between 1 and 6 on the intent to intervene scale)
You wanted to help the victim in the scenario	You thought the victim was consenting
You felt responsible to intervene in the situation	You did not feel like it was your responsibility
You felt the situation called for intervention	You were not sure what was really going on
You felt that you would be supported in intervening	You felt that you would not be supported in intervening
You did not think anyone else would do something	You thought that someone else would do something
You thought the girl was drunk and needed help	You were afraid of being retaliated against
Other (please specify)	Other (please specify)

Participants then completed questions for the second research question, on whether they had ever personally witnessed a sexual assault, if they intervened, what method they used to intervene (e.g., called the police), and where the assault occurred. Finally, six scales (social desirability, IRMA short form, bystander intent – friend, bystander intent – stranger, peer attitudes, and bystander efficacy) were completed to measure individual-level factors associated with the intent to intervene, that would go towards answering the first research question.

5.2.2.3 Social desirability scale. This scale (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) was included as a covariate due to the sensitive nature and content of the questions. The scale by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) consisted of 10 items from the original 33 developed by Crowne and Marlowe (1960). In accordance to Strahan and Gerbasi (1972), one point is given for each “true” response to statements 16, 17, 25, 26, and 33; no point is given for each “false” response to these statements. One point is given for each “false” response to statements 11, 15, 19, 22, and 23; no point is given for each “true” response to these statements. As per Strahan and Gerbasi (1972), scores were calculated and multiplied by 3.3 to obtain the total score. High scale scores indicate high conformity and concern for social approval. The validity of the scale was established by Fischer and Fick (1993). Cronbach’s alpha for the overall sample was .50. The Cronbach's alpha for the UK was .53 and for Australia was .46. These scores are low compared to Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) Cronbach’s alphas tested across four different samples .70, .66, .61, and .59 (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). However, given that this measure does not influence the overall results and it is used strictly as a control variable, the measure was retained.

5.2.2.4 Illinois rape myth acceptance scale – short form. This scale (IRMA-SF) consists of 20 items (Payne et al., 1999); a short form of the original scale consisting of 45 items. While the original scale can identify the type of rape myth held, the IRMA-SF can only assess general rape myth acceptance. The short form was used because the purpose of this study was to examine how contextual factors influenced intent to intervene. Rape myth acceptance was used as a control variable to account for its influence on intent to intervene. The type of rape myth held was therefore not necessary. The IRMA-SF consists of 17 items from the original scale, alongside 3 filler

items (e.g., all women should have access to self-defence classes). Participants indicated on a 5-point scale (1 - strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree) how strongly they agreed with each item. As per Payne et al. (1999), scores were summed together with a maximum score of 100. Higher scores indicated a higher belief in rape myth acceptance. The validity of the scale was established by Payne et al. (1999), as was the reliability with a Cronbach's alpha .87. The Cronbach's alpha for the UK sample in the present study was .88 and for Australia, .81.

5.2.2.5 Brief bystander intent to help scale – short form. Banyard et al.

(2014) assessed 79 items based on the original 51 items (Banyard, 2008). The intent to help measures are long and to increase feasibility short forms were created for friend (10 items) and stranger (8 items) by Banyard et al. (2014). The validity of the scale was established by Banyard et al. (2014). The brief intent to help scale is separated into intent to help a friend (10 items) and the intent to help a stranger (8 items) as relationship can influence intent to help (Bennett et al., 2014). Participants indicated on a 5-point scale (1 - extremely unlikely to 5 - extremely likely) how likely they were to engage in the behaviour. As per Banyard et al. (2014), scores for each sub-scale were summed together, higher scores indicated a higher intent to help friends/strangers. This measure is reliable; for the current sample for intent to help friends, with a maximum score of 50, the Cronbach's alpha for the UK was .90 and for Australia .90. This is comparable to Banyard et al. (2014) Cronbach's alpha .93. For intent to help strangers, with a maximum score of 40, the Cronbach's alpha for the UK was .92 and for Australia .93. This is comparable to Banyard et al. (2014) Cronbach's alpha .94.

5.2.2.6 Peer attitudes scale. The 20 item peer attitudes scale (Banyard et al., 2014) was developed to determine how peer support can influence bystander

intervention. The measure was also validated by Banyard et al. (2005). Participants are asked to indicate how likely they believe their friends are to engage in the behaviour using a 5-point scale (1 - extremely unlikely to 5 - extremely likely). As per Banyard et al. (2005), scores were averaged with a maximum score of 5. High scores indicate that the participant views their friends to be an active bystander. This measure is reliable with a Cronbach's alpha .95 (Banyard et al., 2014). The Cronbach's alpha for the UK was .92 and for Australia .94.

5.2.2.7 Bystander efficacy scale. The bystander efficacy scale (Banyard et al., 2005) was developed to identify a participant's level of confidence in performing each of the 14 bystander behaviours listed. The validity of this measure was established by (Banyard, 2008). Participants were asked to rate on a scale of 0% (can't do) to 100% (very certain) how confident they were to perform each behaviour. As per Banyard (2008), scores were averaged with a maximum score of 100%. High scores indicate that the participant has high confidence in their ability to effectively intervene. This measure is reliable with a Cronbach's alpha .87 (Banyard et al., 2005). The Cronbach's alpha for the UK was .89 and for Australia .90.

5.2.3 Procedure

Ethical approval was gained from Coventry University in the UK and USC in Australia. Participants were recruited to complete an anonymous online survey via Qualtrics to answer the first research question on how individual and contextual information surrounding a university campus-based party scenario influences their likelihood of intervening. The survey took approximately 30 minutes to complete. All participants were randomly allocated a vignette depicting a potential sexual assault. They were required to read the vignette and respond to a series of questions about the

scenario. Due to the online format, participants were given a second consent form at the conclusion of the study, where they could choose to withdraw their data, followed by the debrief form (see Appendix 5 for a copy of the questionnaire). A monetary incentive via a prize draw was provided for all participants who completed the survey.

All data was transferred from Qualtrics and analysed using SPSS Statistics 24. To answer the first research question, a 2x2x2x2 ANCOVA was used to compare gender and contextual factors with likelihood to intervene while controlling for individual factors. A frequency analysis was run to determine what influenced bystander intervention. To answer the second research question, two one-way ANOVAs were conducted to compare intent to intervene with previous personal experiences of intervening in a sexual assault. Partial eta squared effect sizes are reported for the ANCOVA and eta squared effect sizes are reported for the ANOVA, where .01 is a small effect, .06 is a medium effect, and .14 is a large effect (Cohen, 1988). Lastly, to answer the third research question, comparisons between the UK university and the Australian university were examined throughout each step.

5.3 Results

Initially, participants identified where they imagined the scenario to be taking place. The majority of participants both in the UK and Australia imagined the scenario to be taking place at a house party (UK: $n = 123$ [89.1%]; Australia: $n = 138$ [91.2%]). This was followed by night club (UK: $n = 9$ [6.5%]; Australia: $n = 6$ [4.6%]) and pub (UK: $n = 6$ [4.3%]; Australia: $n = 3$ [2%]). Two participants from Australia (1.99%) also selected “other” specifying that they imagined the scenario on the university campus.

Next, an ANCOVA was conducted to answer the first research question, to determine what contextual factors (i.e., country, whether one was alone or with friends, the clarity of the situation, and whether the bystander had a relationship or not with the victim) influenced the likelihood of intervening, while controlling for gender, the six individual-level (social desirability, rape myth acceptance, bystander intent – friends, bystander intent – stranger, peer attitudes, and bystander efficacy) factors, and whether the participant had previously witnessed a sexual assault in their personal experience.

Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure there was no violation of the assumptions. All assumptions were met except for the assumption of normality, which was significant at $F(15, 273) = 2.73, p = .001$. However, an ANCOVA is considered to be robust enough to overcome this violation so long as there is a large sample size with equal groups, with acceptable levels of skew and kurtosis (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). Skew and kurtosis levels need to be within ± 1 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). All except rape myth acceptance and bystander intent – friends were within this range. Prior to conducting the ANCOVA, these two measures were successfully log transformed (Field, 2009).

Three covariates significantly impacted on the likelihood of intervening: Bystander intent – friends, $F(1, 265) = 24.25, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .08$, peer attitudes, $F(1, 265) = 4.10, p = .04, \eta_p^2 = .02$, and rape myth acceptance, $F(1, 265) = 3.93, p = .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$. There were no statistically significant findings for bystander intent – stranger, bystander efficacy, or having previously witnessed a sexual assault. Controlling for the effect of all the covariates, significant findings were detected for country, where Australian university participants were significantly more likely to report likelihood to intervene compared to UK university participants, $F(1, 265) = 5.24, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .02$.

Being friends with the victim, $F(1, 265) = 33.31, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .11$, and clarity of the situation, $F(1, 265) = 11.14, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .04$ also significantly influenced the intent to intervene (see Table 5.3 for means and standard deviations for each group). There was no statistically significant finding for the context in which the bystander was alone or with friends.

There was only one main significant interaction in the ANCOVA between country and the relationship with the victim condition. The UK university participants were significantly less likely to intervene if the victim was a stranger, compared to Australian university participants, $F(1, 265) = 10.47, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .04$ (see Figure 5.1 for a visual depiction). To identify the difference in effect size between the UK and Australia, a separate ANCOVA was conducted. There was a difference in effect size, where UK university participants had a large effect size ($F(1, 122) = 28.83, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .19$) compared to the small effect size for Australian ($F(1, 135) = 3.91, p = .05, \eta_p^2 = .03$) university participants regarding association between relationship with the victim. The only difference between the two countries was for Australia; low rape myth acceptance significantly influenced intent to intervene ($F(1, 135) = 10.18, p = .002, \eta_p^2 = .07$) among Australian participants. There were no other statistically significant findings.

Table 5.3

Means and standard deviations for all factors in ANCOVA

	UK (n = 138) Mean (SD)	Australia (n = 151) Mean (SD)	Total (n = 289) Mean (SD)
<hr/>			
C1: Context			
Alone	N = 68	N = 87	N = 155
With friends	N = 70	N = 64	N = 134
C2: Relationship with victim			
Stranger	N = 71	N = 59	N = 130
Friend	N = 67	N = 92	N = 159
C3: Clarity of situation			
Ambiguous	N = 63	N = 79	N = 142
Clear	N = 75	N = 72	N = 147
Gender			
Female	N = 92	N = 112	N = 204
Male	N = 46	N = 36	N = 82
Transgender		N = 2	N = 2
Gender fluid		N = 1	N = 1
Social desirability	17.41 (6.61)	18.93 (5.89)	18.20 (6.28)
Rape myth acceptance	40.59 (11.23)	38.81 (8.51)	39.66 (9.92)
Bystander intent – friends	41.78 (6.79)	45.05 (5.31)	43.48 (6.27)
Bystander intent - strangers	23.67 (7.87)	26.03 (8.51)	24.90 (8.28)
Peer attitudes	3.82 (.64)	4.01 (.66)	3.92 (.66)
Bystander efficacy	75.25 (16.72)	84.10 (14.54)	79.92 (16.20)
Previously witnessed a sexual assault	Yes: 22 No: 116	Yes: 44 No: 107	Yes: 66 No: 223

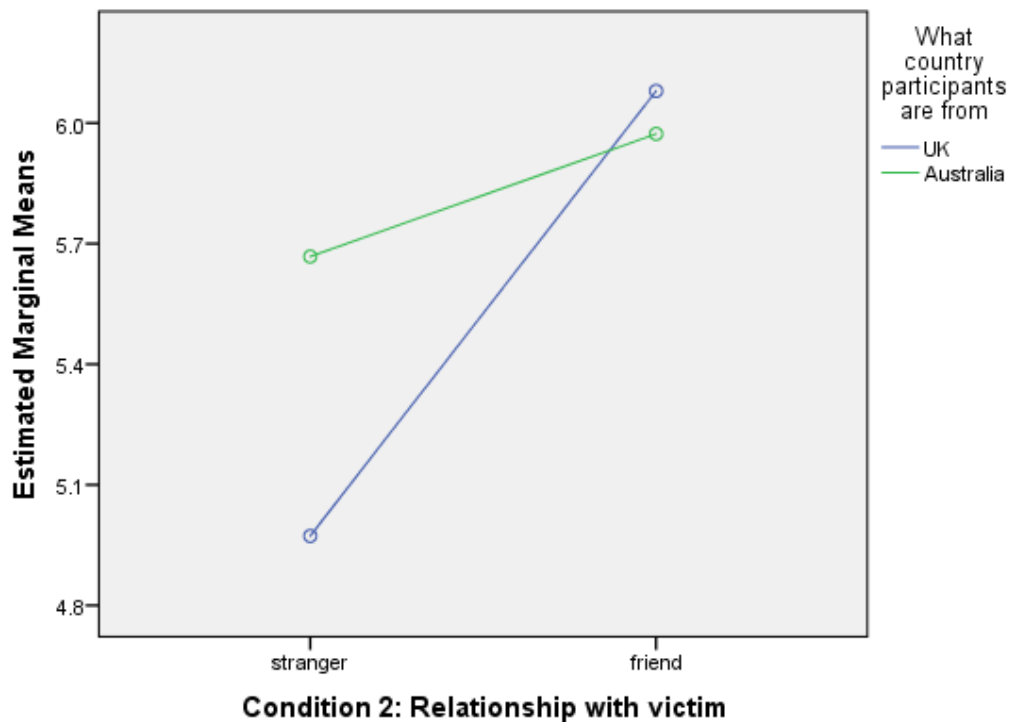


Figure 5.1: Estimated marginal means for likelihood of intervening

Participants rank ordered reasons that would positively influence their intent to intervene. In the UK, the response ranked first (most frequently) was “you wanted to help the victim in the scenario” ($n = 54$). The most frequently selected second ranked choice was “you felt the situation called for intervention” ($n = 40$), and the most selected third ranked choice was “you thought the girl was drunk and needed help” ($n = 39$). In Australia, the response ranked first (most frequently; $n = 48$) and the most frequently selected second ($n = 45$) ranked choice was “you thought the girl was drunk and needed help”. The most selected third ranked choice was tied between “you thought the girl was drunk and needed help” and “you did not think anyone else would do something” ($n = 32$). These findings showed that for both the UK and Australia, the seriousness of the situation was detected prompting participants to intervene.

The findings demonstrated that when participants report an intent to intervene, they were more likely, both in the UK and in Australia, to intervene directly, instead of indirectly. The order was the same for both countries: (1) ask the girl if she is okay; (2) interrupt the situation directly; (3) tell the man to back off; (4) report to someone in authority; and (5) report to the police.

Participants rank ordered reasons that would inhibit their intent to intervene. Seventy-six UK and 58 Australian participants reported that “you were not sure what was really going on” as a key contributing factor to inhibiting intervention: 43 UK and 30 Australian participants ranked it this response as their first choice and 33 UK and 28 Australian participants ranked it as their second choice. The third most selected response in the UK for inhibiting intervention was “you did not feel it was your responsibility” ($n = 22$). In Australia the third most selected response was “you did not feel you would be supported in intervening” ($n = 18$).

5.3.1 Actual Behaviour

To provide a more comprehensive understanding between intent to intervene and actual bystander behaviour and answer the second research question, participants were asked an additional question about whether they had ever personally witnessed a sexual assault and if they did or did not intervene. In the UK, of the 138 participants, 22 (15.9%; $M = 5.91$; $SD = 1.38$), reported that they have personally witnessed a sexual assault. There was a statistically significant difference demonstrating that individuals who have personally witnessed a sexual assault were more likely to report an intent to intervene in a hypothetical scenario than those who had not, $t(136) = 2.06$, $p = .04$. Of the 22 UK participants who had witnessed an assault, eight participants reported witnessing the sexual assault at a night club; six in a public location (e.g., street, car

parks, park); five at a house party; two at a pub and one at a hotel. Of these 22 participants, three (18.8%) male and 13 (81.2%) female participants said that they had intervened or helped: 12 (9 females and 3 males) directly intervened; four females also indirectly intervened.

Comparatively, in Australia, of the 151 participants, 44 (29.1%), reported that they had personally witnessed a sexual assault in the past. Similar to the UK, there was a statistically significant difference demonstrating that individuals who have personally witnessed a sexual assault are more likely to report an intent to intervene in a hypothetical scenario, compared to those who had not, $t(134.26) = 4.93, p < .001$. In contrast to the UK, of the 44 Australian participants who had witnessed an assault fifteen reported witnessing the sexual assault at a house party; 14 at a night club; seven in a private location not associated with a party (e.g., house, military barracks); six in a public location (e.g., park, train, restaurant); and one at a pub. However, similarly to the UK, there were more females than males who reported intervening. Of the 44 participants, four (11.8%) male, 29 (85.3%) female, and one (2.9%) transgender participant said they had intervened or helped: 31 (26 females, four males, and one transgender) directly intervened, and three (100%) females indirectly intervened.

Two one-way ANOVAs were conducted; one for each university. Individual factors (i.e., gender, rape myth acceptance, bystander intent – friend, bystander intent – stranger, peer attitudes, and bystander efficacy) were compared with actual intervening behaviour (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4

Factors related to and how they reflect in past actual intervening behaviour

		UK		Australia	
		N = 22		N = 44	
		Intervene	Did not	Intervene	Did not
		(n = 16)	intervene	(n = 34)	intervene
		Mean (SD)	(n = 6)	Mean (SD)	(n = 10)
			Mean (SD)		Mean (SD)
Bystander		M = 86.91	M = 72.13	M = 92.77	M = 87.44
efficacy		(11.55) *	(14.75)	(5.39)	(14.61)
Bystander					
intent					
	Friend	M = 46.06	M = 42.83	M = 48.21	M = 45.30
		(3.49) *	(2.48)	(2.75) *	(4.11)
	Stranger	M = 28.56	M = 19.17	M = 30.91	M = 26.20
		(8.56) *	(4.02)	(7.37)	(8.74)
Peer attitudes		M = 3.96 (.72)	M = 3.92 (.53)	M = 4.26 (.62)	M = 3.89 (.87)
Rape myth		M = 36.31	M = 42.33	M = 35.59	M = 39.90
acceptance		(9.70)	(10.54)	(4.78)	(10.28)

Note: $p^* < .05$

Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions. The same adjustments were made as in the ANCOVA: the log transformations of rape myth acceptance and bystander intent – friends were used. In the UK sample, the homogeneity of variances was met for all individual factors except social desirability.

Therefore, for social desirability alone, the Welch and Brown-Forsyth outputs was consulted for statistical significance. Those in the UK that had personally witnessed a sexual assault and intervened scored significantly higher on bystander efficacy, $F(1, 20) = 6.17, p = .02, \eta^2 = .24$, bystander intent – stranger, $F(1, 20) = 6.54, p = .02, \eta^2 = .25$, and bystander intent – friend, $F(1, 20) = 4.44, p = .05, \eta^2 = .18$. There were no other statistically significant differences.

In the Australia sample the homogeneity of variances was met for all individual factors except gender, rape myth acceptance, and bystander efficacy. Therefore, for those three factors, the Welch and Brown-Forsyth outputs were consulted for statistical significance. Similar to the UK, those in Australia that had personally witnessed a sexual assault and intervened scored significantly higher on bystander intent – friend, $F(1, 42) = 7.56, p = .009, \eta^2 = .15$. However, that was the only similarity as there were no other statistically significant differences.

5.4 Discussion

The present transnational comparison study was conducted between a UK university and an Australian university. Using vignettes to answer the first research question, individual factors (i.e., gender, social desirability, rape myth acceptance, bystander intent – friend, bystander intent – stranger, peer attitudes, bystander efficacy, and previously witnessing a sexual assault) were controlled for, so that contextual factors including country, context (alone or with friends), clarity of situation (ambiguous or clear), and relationship with the victim could be examined to see how they influenced the likelihood of bystander intervention.

Previous studies have suggested that there are gender differences, whereby women are more likely than men to intervene in a sexual assault (e.g., Amar et al.,

2014; Banyard, 2008; Hust et al., 2013; Hust et al., 2015), which was also demonstrated in a study in Australia (Kania & Cale, 2018). However, contrary to past research, some researchers have found no gender differences for intent to intervene (Brown et al., 2014; Katz et al., 2015). This aligned with the current study; there were no gender differences in either the UK or the Australian sample. This could be due to the level of media-related topics, such as the Stanford Rape case (e.g., Baker, 2016), or the Jimmy Savile case (e.g., BBC, 2016) being aired around the time of data collection. Additionally, the #MeToo movement (Metoomvmt, n.d.) could also have influenced the results. These campaigns could be increasing knowledge around sexual assault, potentially removing any gender differences. However, further examination of this is required.

There were, however, some control variables in the present study that had a significant impact on intent to intervene: rape myth acceptance, peer attitudes, and bystander intent – friends. Findings showed that, in line with previous research (Banyard, 2008), having low rape myth acceptance was associated with increased intent to intervene, although the effect size was small. Peer attitudes also had an influence on intent to intervene, which supports past research (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011) in that, if bystanders' perceive their peers to be supportive of intervening, a bystander's intent to intervene increases. Similarly, to rape myth acceptance, peer attitudes had a small effect size. The last covariate, bystander intent – friend had a medium effect size, which suggests that this is the most important of the three variables. Participants in both the UK and Australia were significantly more likely to intend to intervene if the victim was a friend. This corresponds with past research demonstrating that having a relationship with the victim increases the likelihood of intervention (Bennett, Banyard, & Edwards, 2017; Bennett et al., 2014; Katz et al., 2015).

These findings are important as US based data has indicated that it is attitudes and beliefs that influence intervening behaviour (e.g., Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; McMahon, 2010). While some of the individual factors have had an impact on intent to intervene, it could be argued that perhaps it is not attitudes directly influencing bystander intervention, instead it is more about the interaction between individual and contextual factors that influence and inhibit intervening behaviour (e.g., Mischel, 1996, person-situation interaction developed in 1968). For example, a bystander who is a friend of the victim has a higher likelihood of intervening. This is also supported by the significant association with bystander intent – friends in relation to intent to intervene among both the UK and Australian sample, which is in line with US based bystander research (e.g., Banyard, 2008; Bennett & Banyard, 2016). A possible explanation for why bystanders are more likely to intervene if they know the victims could be supported by the social identity approach. Levine and Manning (2013) used the social identity approach to argue that people's perceptions of their relationship with others influences bystander intervention. Having that relationship, identifying with the victim as a member of the in-group could increase intent to intervene. Another possible explanation could be that if the victim is a friend, bystanders will know the victim and can tell when they are feeling uncomfortable, making the situation clear, prompting intervention (this was demonstrated in Chapter Four).

The clarity of the situation can have an impact on bystander intervention. The results demonstrated that participants in the UK and Australia viewed an unambiguous scenario as a facilitator to intervening, consistent with previous research findings (e.g., Carlson, 2008; Koelsch et al., 2012; McMahon et al., 2015). However, the small to medium effect size for a situation suggests that it may not have the greatest impact. It

could be argued that when compared to the relationship with the victim variable, the clarity of the situation is not as strong a motivator. Alternatively, knowing the victim could be what makes the situation clear. Previous research showed that if a victim was a friend the situation was perceived to be more severe (Bennett et al., 2017). While in the present study clarity of the situation was measured and not seriousness of the situation (Bennett et al., 2017), perhaps being friends with the victim is closely related with clarity of the situation.

In general, most participants in both the UK and Australia believed that they would intervene and would do so directly. Participants reported that the vulnerability of the victim and the need to help are the main motivating factors prompting intervention. Conversely, the ambiguity of the situation or lack of perceived support could also inhibit intervening behaviour. Since bystander research started, Latané and Darley (1968) found that ambiguous situations negatively impacted likelihood of intervention. This is further supported by Nicksa (2014) who found that when a sexual assault is interpreted as ambiguous, likelihood of intervening decreased. Additionally, if a bystander does not feel they have peer support, they are less likely to intervene (e.g., Banyard et al., 2018; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010).

In accordance with the second research question, reports of actual bystander behaviour demonstrate that those who have previously intervened in a sexual assault are more likely to report an intent to intervene. There was a large effect size for both the UK and Australian university for those who previously intervened, as they scored significantly higher on bystander intent – friends scale. This falls in line with what was found previously, that when a bystander knows the victim they are more likely to intervene (Banyard, 2008; Bennett & Banyard, 2016; Bennett et al., 2017). Finally, for the UK sample only, there was a large effect size in relation to bystander efficacy. A

bystander who has confidence in his/her ability to intervene is more likely to intervene. Having a positive experience in intervening previously, could consequently increase confidence levels for future intervening behaviour. This aligns with the model developed in Chapter Two (Labhardt et al., 2017), in that previously intervening could increase the likelihood of future intervention. However, a negative experience associated with intervening could reduce confidence for future intervening. Nevertheless, these findings suggest that providing people with the opportunity to ‘practice’ intervening, even in a laboratory-based, yet realistic, environment will develop their skills and confidence to intervene in a real setting.

In accordance to the third research question, similarities and differences were highlighted throughout the analysis. Overall, there were two main difference between the two samples. First, Australian university participants were significantly more likely to report an intent to intervene compared to the UK university participants. Approximately 90% of the Australian participants reported an intent to intervene, compared to approximately 75% of UK participants. However, while it is significant, the effect size is relatively small, suggesting there are other important explanatory variables at play. It could be argued that contextual factors or the proximal impact of social contexts, such as the number of awareness and educational programmes (e.g., Respect.Now.Always (RNA) campaign (Australia, 2018) or the Consent is Sexy campaign (Consent is Sexy, 2011)) that exist on the Australian campus affects students’ prosocial behaviour, encouraging them to intervene. Further examination of how these programmes influence bystander behaviour is needed.

Secondly, while country alone yielded a significant difference, there was also one interaction between country and relationship with the victim. There was a large effect size for UK participants, where they were significantly less likely to intervene if

the victim is a stranger when compared to Australia. A potential explanation for this could be that the Australian university had a number of awareness raising campaigns in place such as the Australian Human Rights Commission report (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017), RNA campaign (Australia, 2018), the Consent is Sexy campaign (Consent is Sexy, 2011). With the level of knowledge being distributed at the Australian University, it could make those bystanders at the Australian University hyperaware of the problem of sexual assault limiting the effect of relationship with the victim.

Overall, the UK and Australian sample were more similar than different. Both samples imagined the vignette scenario at a house party. Bystander intent – friend and clarity of the situation significantly predicted intent to intervene. Participants from both samples reported that seriousness of the situation prompted intent to intervene. Specifically using direct intervention method versus indirect intervention methods. Finally, both UK and Australia university participants were more likely to report an intent to intervene when they have previously witnessed a sexual assault.

5.4.1 Limitations and Research Implications

The findings from the current study need to be understood within the context of the research design. Existing awareness-raising programmes regarding sexual assault on university campuses were not accounted for. Therefore, further research is needed to evaluate the impact of education and awareness programmes and the influence it has on intervening behaviour. Particularly with the present findings in this study indicating the more direct, proximal influence of contextual factors on behaviour. Secondly, only closed questions were asked. Considering the complexity of behaviour, a mixed methods approach, incorporating short answer responses, or integrating a follow up

interview to delve into intervening behaviour could provide a more comprehensive perspective. Thirdly, vignettes are ideal when creating a specific scenario, to understand a behaviour or attitude towards a topic that is difficult to replicate in a laboratory. However, the behaviour and how it is expressed varies in the real world, implicating the generalisability of the findings to the 'real-life' contexts. Therefore, developing an experimental methodology to measure actual bystander behaviour would be highly beneficial. It could increase understanding of intervening behaviour and better inform bystander intervention programmes. Lastly, only the relationship with the victim was examined. Accounting for the relationship with the perpetrator would be important as it could impact intervening behaviour.

Nevertheless, these findings have important implications for the design of interventions. Interventions need to be tailored for the country in question. Furthermore, providing people with the opportunity to practice intervening, even in an artificial setting, it could be enough to develop their skills and confidence in their ability to intervene. Practicing in an artificial, laboratory-based study, could teach people what signs to look out for, increasing the clarity of the situation. Additionally, the practice would highlight that people do intervene. This would not only increase personal confidence in ability to intervene, but also demonstrate that peers are supportive of intervening.

5.4.2 Conclusion

In conclusion, bystander behaviour is complex and multi-faceted social phenomenon. For this study, it is evident that contextual factors have a large influence on intent to intervene, when controlling for individual factors. There were mostly similarities between the UK university participants and the Australian university

participants. However, there were some differences between the two samples that could be explained by external factors (e.g., media campaigning or the Consent is Sexy campaign) occurring at the same time. This might demonstrate, at least indirectly, the power these factors have on influencing behaviour and thinking. Therefore, it is important to note that cultural and societal differences can impact bystander behaviour, as well as the impact media and awareness campaigns can have on awareness levels and intervention rates. It would be vital to continue this research, perhaps including comparisons with the USA, to further understand what influences bystander intervention. Additionally, examining the existing campaigns present in different countries and the influence they have on bystander intervention would be critical. Developing this knowledge base, understanding the interactions between awareness campaigns and behaviour, and examining the impact that contextual factors have on bystander intervention between universities in different countries can inform bystander intervention programmes, leading to a reduction in sexual assault prevalence rates.

Chapter 6: To intervene or not to intervene: An experimental methodology measuring actual bystander behaviour

6.0 Chapter Aims

This main aim of this study was to design an experimental methodology that could be used to measure *actual* bystander behaviour; the second aim was to use this methodology to examine individual and contextual factors that contribute to *actual* bystander intervention. Using the findings from past research and the findings from the studies presented in Chapters Four and Five, an ecologically valid and reliable research design was developed using deception, immersive technology, and actors. The way in which this study was developed and piloted is outlined in this Chapter. Using a mixed-methods experimental design, the present study aimed to address the limitations identified in existing bystander research of using self-report measures. The findings presented in this chapter are positive, demonstrating the feasibility of moving the area of bystander research towards what could arguably be a more reliable, ecologically valid, and generative method of understanding *actual* bystander behaviour.

6.1 Introduction

The area of bystander research (e.g., Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Darley, 1968; Latané & Rodin, 1969) began shortly after the rape and murder of Kitty Genovese on the streets of New York in the 1960s, after an alleged 38 bystanders failed to intervene (Merry, 2016). Originally, bystander research focused on emergency situations that had an implied danger associated with intervening (e.g., smoke filled room; Latané & Darley, 1968; or perpetrator stealing money; Latané & Elman, 1970) and non-emergency situations that had a low implied danger associated with intervening (e.g., stranded motorist; Hurley & Allen, 1974). The focus was on understanding what positively and negatively influenced bystander intervention and how it could be utilised as a prevention technique. However, in recent years, the area has become more specialised, focusing on sexual assault. This area of research is increasing, using various designs (see Chapter Two for a systematic review of the current research). Typically, this research has relied on self-report data to assess the associations between ‘intent to intervene’ and actual intervening behaviour, using vignettes (e.g., Banyard et al., 2005; Nicksa, 2014).

Vignettes are scenarios, typically but not exclusively, created from credible sources such as past research findings or insights from professionals in the area of interest (Carlson, 1996; McKeganey et al., 1995). They provide insight into a phenomenon that is sensitive in nature, such as sexual assault, as it minimises uncomfortable face-to-face interactions (Gourlay et al., 2014). They can be conducted quickly and online where participants are often fully informed of the project and can choose whether they want to partake. This reduces the potential for recreating traumas or inflicting trauma due to the nature of the topic.

Utilising vignettes and self-report measures can help elucidate how individual and contextual factors (discussed in Chapter Five) are associated with intent to intervene (e.g., Bennett et al., 2017; Bennett et al., 2014; Hoxmeier, Acock, & Flay, 2017; Kania & Cale, 2018). Two additional individual factors not yet discussed but can affect the likelihood of intervention are prosocial behaviour, and personality. Research has found that the likelihood of intervening increases when an individual scores high on prosocial personality (i.e., how helpful and other-oriented the bystander is) (Penner, 2002; Penner, Fritzsche, Craiger, & Freifeld, 1995). Moreover, Penner et al. (1995) argued that the prosocial personality scale is best used in conjunction with the agreeableness personality scale, which suggests that a high score represents a high level of empathy and increases the likelihood of intervening.

There are clear benefits to these methodologies, including the ability to infer the influence of individual and contextual factors on the potential for intervening in the absence of exposing participants to an actual situation. However, this method of research has some limitations. Firstly, vignettes can only identify behavioural intentions. Participants can state that they would intervene if they were to witness an assault. However, what one says they will do and what they actually do when placed in that situation, can be considerably different (McMahon et al., 2014). Secondly, vignettes only provide a limited insight into the phenomenon as a whole (Hughes, 1998). The aim of vignettes is to remove extenuating circumstances surrounding the scenario, so that the variables of concern can be experimentally controlled. In terms of ecological validity this limits insight into actual behaviour where contexts vary and there is a complex inter-play between a number of factors (Hughes, 1998). Lastly, participants are often aware of the aim of the study, i.e., to examine what participants claim they would do in relation to a sexual assault scenario. This level of awareness may naturally

influence responses to become more favourable of intervening, as it is at the forefront of participants' minds, increasing socially desirable responses (Grimm, 2010).

In the area of sexual assault, experimental methods designed to measure *actual* bystander behaviour are difficult to implement for a variety of practical, feasibility, and ethical reasons. To conduct this type of 'naturalistic' research, participant deception would be required. This comes with an inherent risk of harm. Participant and researcher safety are paramount (American Psychological Association, 2017; British Psychological Society, 2014). Consequently, to design this type of research, a significant amount of planning, time, and resources are needed.

Research utilising an experimental design to measure *actual* behaviour relating to sexual assault started around the 1980s. There were two studies identified in Chapter Two that measured *actual* bystander behaviour through the use of deception: Shotland and Stebbins (1980) and Harari et al. (1985). These early studies provided some novel results. Shotland and Stebbins (1980) conducted a study using audio cues and minimal visual cues to create a sexual assault scenario to determine how bystanders react. They used deception as the main element of their study, i.e., participants did not know there would be a rape occurring, nor that their reactions towards it would be monitored; in their minds, they were there for a completely unrelated study. Participants found the situation believable. Additionally, as the seriousness and clarity of the situation (i.e., woman being dragged into a room and shouting "help, rape") increased, intervention rates increased. However, only about 30% of bystanders intervened, either directly by interrupting the situation, or indirectly by getting help (Shotland & Stebbins, 1980).

The second study was conducted by Harari et al. (1985) using actors, where a man jumped out of the bushes at night and dragged an unsuspecting woman away while, she was walking alone, who then shouted "Help, rape". Male bystander reactions were

examined. The participants were unaware that they were part of a study. Participants were only informed of the study once they tried to intervene or at the end of the study, followed by a short debrief. The rationale for not informing people they were part of a study was that the researchers wanted to conduct a simulated rape in a naturalistic environment (Harari et al., 1985). Findings showed that approximately 80% of men intervened, with the majority directly intervening (approached the perpetrator and victim).

The studies by Shotland and Stebbins (1980) and Harari et al. (1985) extended the knowledge base of bystander research by measuring factors associated with *actual* intervening behaviour. However, there were limitations to their methodology that could impact the reliability and ecological validity of this work, if replicated today. First, research shows that sexual assaults tend to occur between two people who know each other in some capacity (e.g., García-Moreno et al., 2005; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2005). Yet, in both studies, the relationship between the victim and perpetrator was portrayed as strangers (Harari et al., 1985; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980). Secondly, research suggests that the risk of someone jumping out of the bushes is minimal (Bublick, 1999; Lonsway, 1996), as approximately 60% of sexual assaults occur in surroundings familiar to either the victim and/or the perpetrator (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016; Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017; Flatley, 2018). Lastly, both studies did not account for the influence of alcohol (Harari et al., 1985; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980). While this would pose a significant ethical challenge, alcohol is a contributing risk factor for sexual victimisation (Abbey, 2002; Tyler et al., 2017). Sexual assaults are more likely to take place at a pub or party where alcohol is present (Diego et al., 2002; Ministry of Justice, 2013). The limited reliability and ecological

validity of these earlier studies could therefore negatively impact the transferability of the findings to real-life sexual assault situations.

This study aimed to exploit the strengths of self-report data and the two experimental studies, while controlling for their limitations. This was undertaken through adopting a realistic scenario and the deceptive elements from the studies carried out by Harari et al. (1985) and Shotland and Stebbins (1980). This is fundamentally necessary in order to observe and measure *actual* bystander behaviour. Likewise, the predictive factors evident in self-report empirical research were adopted to create an ecologically valid and reliable approach where *actual* bystander behaviour could be measured. The predictive factors of bystander intervention according to previous research included individual and contextual factors. For individual factors, this included measuring for gender differences (e.g., Hoxmeier et al., 2017), utilising the bystander efficacy scale (e.g., Banyard & Moynihan, 2011), the prosocial personality battery scale (Penner, 2002; Penner et al., 1995) and agreeableness personality scale (Goldberg, 1992) as the likelihood of prosocial behaviour is depicted as increasing when those factors are accounted for (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1994). Furthermore, accounting for situation (i.e., alone or with friends) included the contextual factor that historically has been predictive of prosocial behaviour (Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Rodin, 1969; Levine et al., 2002). Additionally, the scenario developed should feature university students as they are at an increased risk for sexual victimisation (Ministry of Justice, 2013; National Union of Students, 2010; RAINN, 2018a; Williams, 2014).

There were two aims for this mixed-method study. The first was to harness the strengths and findings of past research to develop an experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour, when witnessing signs of an impending sexual assault in a university campus setting, and to determine the effectiveness of the

methodology. The second aim was to incorporate the strengths of self-report measures to understand the predictive power individual and contextual factors have on *actual* bystander behaviour.

6.1.1 Designing the Mixed-Method Study

Several aspects needed to be considered when developing the mixed-method experimental methodology, to overcome the challenges associated with measuring *actual* bystander behaviour. We, the research team, did not wish to cause harm to anyone involved in the study and therefore, decided to investigate the signs leading up to a potential sexual assault, rather than during or post a potential sexual assault. The following considerations were made when developing this idea: (1) to develop a naturalistic environment, where sexual assaults are most likely to occur; (2) to encourage authentic responses and behaviour through the use of deceptive methods; and (3) to create an ultimately positive learning experience through the inclusion of a comprehensive debrief.

6.1.1.1 Naturalistic environment. USC has several immersive spaces designed for teaching and research, including the Immerse Studio. The Immerse Studio is a 7m by 7m creative space that uses six projectors to fully immerse participants in a scenario. It is a safe and controlled environment (Riva et al., 2015) with a one-way glass observation room. The use of immersive spaces has been demonstrated in various fields. For example, they have been successfully used as a teaching method in the area of public relations (Sutherland & Ward, 2018), as well as creating immersive driving environments to measure and understand situational awareness skills (Scott-Parker, De Regt, Jones, & Caldwell, 2018; Scott-Parker, Wilks, & Huang, 2018). Given the immersive capabilities and adaptability of the Immerse Studio, it was considered an

ideal space to form the basis of the environment we wanted to create for the experimental study.

A number of different designs were considered for the Immerse Studio. The environment had to depict signs leading up to a sexual assault. Initially, following the Australian Human Rights Commission (2017) report, it was thought that we could film at a coffee shop. The sexual assault cues would be embedded in the video and projected onto the Immerse Studio walls. So as not to draw direct attention to the sexual assault cues to enable *actual* bystander behaviour to be measured, participants would be set a menial task (e.g., counting cups). However, upon reflection we concluded that this would be more reflective of inattentional bias (e.g., the invisible gorilla experiment; Simons & Chabris, 1999), than it would be of bystander behaviour. We wanted the environment to be as realistic as possible and reflect what naturally happens in sexual assault situations. Only then could *actual* bystander behaviour naturally evolve.

We decided that the design could not be over-complicated (e.g., using an escape room design), so that participants would be too distracted to notice the sexual assault cues. Instead, it needed to be simple and realistic. To ensure the environment was ecologically valid it needed to be reflective of who is most at risk of being victimised and that the environment itself is representative of where sexual assaults occur. To inform the scenario for the naturalistic environment, interviews were conducted with university students on their perceptions of sexual assault (Chapter Four). A targeted sampling technique for participant recruitment was agreed upon. Participants between the ages of 18 to 25 was used as the sampling frame as they are at an increased risk of sexual assault victimisation (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012; Australian Human Rights Commission, 2017). The findings revealed that risk of sexual assault is highest when attending a party. Adhering to ethical considerations, observational data at a night

club or a house party would not be appropriate because the level of control is limited and could put participants at an increased risk for harm. Therefore, a party environment needed to be created where music and activities accurately reflected a party that university students might attend. It was agreed that the projection capabilities of the Immerse Studio would enable us to replicate the surroundings of a party by using images and sound to create a realistic environment (Ross, Lathouras, Riddell, Buchanan, & Puccio, 2017). To further ensure ecological validity, participants would have to behave as they would at a party. Therefore, we made the decision that participants would be told that the purpose of the study was to see how effective the Immerse Studio is at hosting social gatherings, such as parties. This created a realistic, ecologically valid environment, indirectly influencing bystander intervention.

In addition to the environment, the signs leading up to a sexual assault would need to be present. We knew that we wanted to recruit actors to portray the victim and perpetrator. Initially, it was thought that we would need to create a script detailing the interaction between the victim and perpetrator, increasing the severity of the behaviours leading up to the sexual assault. We contacted the USC drama department to request their involvement and insight regarding the script and the party environment. Details surrounding the experiment were discussed and different methods of theatre were explored. To obtain high quality results and ensure naturalistic interactions between actors and participants, it was decided the method of invisible theatre would be used, as it is based on improvisation allowing actors to integrate naturally with non-actors, removing the need for scripted acting (Boal, 1985, 1992). Instead, actors would work from a 'toolbox' of a set of required behaviours that needed to be performed within the experimental methodology. However, these behaviours were presented organically to ensure naturalistic interactions. Additionally, it was decided to ensure compatibility

between actors and participants, the actors would have to be within the same age range (18-25) as the recruited participants. Therefore, the drama department recommended four actors, two men and two women, from the Applied Theatre Performance (ATP) team as they were within the age range and were trained in the invisible theatre method.

The research team worked closely with the drama department and the ATP actors to ensure that the party environment would be as realistic and representative of a party 18 to 25 year olds would attend. This included providing feedback and insight into the design of the Immerse Studio, and to the music list that would be played at the 'party'. Furthermore, the ATP actors were directly consulted about what they have personally seen at clubs and parties regarding interactions between the people and if they accurately reflect the victim and perpetrator characteristics and behaviours that were created based on Chapter Four findings. It was agreed that sexual assault cues would have to develop and increase in severity as they would in real life. For example, starting out with a conversation, escalating to invading personal space, to following the victim out when she tries to leave (Chapter Four). The realistic nature of the environment and behaviours is vital if naturalistic bystander behaviours are to be measured.

6.1.1.2 Deception. To effectively measure *actual* bystander behaviour, deception was a necessary component in the design of this study. Deceptive research is used to answer questions, that non-deceptive research cannot answer, where answering that question makes a significant contribution to scientific, educational, and practical knowledge (American Psychological Association, 2002; Boynton et al., 2013; Jamison, Karlan, & Schechter, 2008). Research shows that if participants are aware of the true nature of a study, they will alter their behaviour to what they believe the researcher is

looking for (Athanasoulis & Wilson, 2009; Tai, 2012). For example, for this study, if participants were fully informed of the study aim, they would actively look for signs of a sexual assault, they may not have noticed otherwise and intervened, invalidating results. It was agreed that deceptive techniques would allow us to understand behavioural and personal influences (Bandura, 1989) and therefore allow for true reactions to be measured (Tai, 2012), similar to an *actual* sexual assault, where bystanders would not be aware in advance. Consequently, to maintain the integrity of the study, the drama department and actors, as well as the participants in the study were asked to keep their involvement in the study confidential. Furthermore, the study sessions were conducted over a weekend when students are not normally present at university to limit the possibility of the deception and purpose of the study becoming common knowledge. Given the sensitive nature of this study, a balance of deception was maintained, where deception was kept at the absolute minimum to ensure participants and the research team were not harmed during the study (Tai, 2012).

To maintain the well-being of participants throughout the study, several precautions were put in place. Initially, the inclusion of alcohol was considered as research demonstrated that alcohol is a key contributing factor to sexual assault (Chapter Four; Tyler et al., 2017). However, after some consideration it was concluded that the inclusion of alcohol would create an additional, potentially confounding variable, as research shows through balanced placebo designs, people will act drunk if they believe they have had alcohol (Hull & Bond, 1986; Szalavitz, 2016). As it would be a relatively small sample size, there would not have been sufficient power to examine this variable statistically, and since the aim of the study was to determine the effectiveness of the experimental methodology, it was concluded that this was not appropriate at this pilot stage. Deceiving participants about the presence of alcohol was

also considered. The Ethics Board at Coventry University was consulted about the inclusion of deception of alcohol (e.g., giving the participant an alcoholic punch, that in fact contained no alcohol). It was argued that there was no research benefit for this additional deception, with the double deception possibly having a more negative reaction than the single deception (not being told about the true purpose of the study) that could potentially not be effectively managed. It was therefore, decided that until this experimental methodology has been further developed, the inclusion of alcohol, or any deception regarding the use of alcohol should be avoided in an effort to minimise and protect the well-being of participants.

The next consideration was the depiction of the sexual assault in the party environment. After careful thought and consideration about how to create a realistic sexual assault scenario, while minimising harm to participants, we decided that the sexual assault depicted by the actors should only be signs leading up to a sexual assault. These behaviours should be reflective of what is seen in pubs and clubs and stemmed directly from the findings presented in Chapter Four. For example, the perpetrator invades the victim's personal space, and the victim appears uncomfortable (Chapter Four; WhoAreYou, n.d.). While there would still be a risk of harm to participants (or the actors), as it is not possible to predict behaviour, there are no other reliable methods to collect this data (American Psychological Association, 2002; British Psychological Society, 2014). Therefore, we decided that the risks could be effectively managed, as long as no actual assault was portrayed, and the participants were fully debriefed. To maintain the well-being of the participants throughout the study several precautions were put in place. To manage that risk, student well-being from USC was notified of the study and was on-call when data was collected. A registered psychologist and social worker were also approached and offered their support by being present on the day for

any participants who may have an adverse reaction to the study. However, risk to participants was not the only consideration.

The well-being of the actors was also considered. We considered the possible extreme negative reactions they might experience from the participants. For example, a participant could become violent towards the perpetrator when witnessing his behaviour. To maintain the actors' safety a discussion was had around safe words and signals, and what would work best in the environment, to maintain safety during the study. It would need to be obvious enough that the researchers could see it in the streaming video, while not drawing participant attention. Therefore, it was decided that one actor, apart from the victim and perpetrator, would leave the room signalling something is not right. Campus security was notified in advance of the study (and put on call) to alert them of risks including the possibility of attacks on the actors. This would ensure everyone's safety, including the research team. After discussion with the actors, to further manage risk associated with deception, it was concluded that it would be beneficial to have the participants meet the actors after the conclusion of the study. This would allow the participants to recognise that the actors were in fact acting and offer the opportunity to connect and discuss the study, further reducing negative reactions regarding the deception and acting.

Past research has demonstrated that overall deceptive research is beneficial (Schwartz & Gottlieb, 1980); while there can be an initial negative reaction that reduces the likelihood of intervening in the short term, it has positive effects after approximately six months, where likelihood of intervening increases (Schwartz & Gottlieb, 1980). Participation in deceptive studies therefore, could have a positive effect on intervening behaviour in the long term. Hence, it was felt that the use of deception in this study to

enhance our understanding of *actual* bystander information was overall beneficial for this area of research.

6.1.1.3 Comprehensive debrief. In accordance to American Psychological Association (2002) principles, in studies where deception is used, all deception needs to be revealed at the earliest opportunity and participants must be provided with an opportunity to give informed consent to their data being used. Upon consideration of these ethical guidelines, it was concluded that a standard debrief would not be appropriate in this deception study. The amount of information that would need to be presented would be more comprehensive than in a study where participants were fully informed of the aim of the study. A review of the literature was conducted to examine how deceptive studies have been conducted in the past and to identify the best methods for debriefing the participants in the present study. The funnelling debrief was identified as a strong method to use in deceptive research (Boynton et al., 2013). This method acts as a conversation between the interviewer and the participant. At the onset of the funnelling debrief, it is important to maintain the deceptive nature of the study as a way of obtaining unbiased results. Therefore, the interviewer starts off with broad questioning about the overall experience, focused on the deceptive aim of the study. The questions become increasingly more specific to the point where the deception is revealed (Boynton et al., 2013). The funnelling debrief was selected for this study as it is comprehensive in revealing the deception and true aim of the study in a natural conversational way. A funnelling debrief mitigates the negative effects of deception, maximises the positive influence of the study, and maintains the methodological integrity of the study (Boynton et al., 2013).

Having considered all these issues carefully it was concluded that an experimental design measuring *actual* behaviour could be conducted. While there were

limitations and ethical concerns associated with the early experimental studies conducted in this area (Harari et al., 1985; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980), the strengths associated with those studies were utilised. We expected that the implications of incorporating the guidelines for use of deceptive techniques and employing a funnelling debrief at the end should successfully account for the limitations associated with self-report data. The aim of the present study was two-fold: (1) to determine whether an experimental methodology could be designed to effectively investigate *actual* bystander behaviour, and (2) using this method to investigate the influence of individual and contextual factors on *actual* bystander behaviour. To address the second aim, three research questions were posed:

- (1) Is there a gender difference in likelihood to intervene?
- (2) Are bystanders who are with friends, more likely to intervene than those alone?
- (3) Do higher scores on bystander efficacy, prosocial behaviour, and agreeableness personality, previously identified as predictive factors in self-report empirical research, influence bystander intervention?

6.2 Methods

6.2.1 Design

The experimental design involved the use of deception, where participants were told we were interested in how effective the Immerse Studio would be for hosting social gatherings such as parties (see Appendix 3 for participant information sheet). The Immerse Studio was set up to portray a party environment. However, unbeknown to participants, actors (introduced as students also participating in the study) were deliberately placed to portray sexual assault cues. Participants were covertly observed

via video link to determine whether they noticed the sexual assault cues and if so, how they did or did not intervene as a response measure.

To measure *actual* bystander behaviour, we created a party environment, based on findings from interviews conducted with university students (Chapter Four) and the feedback and insight from the ATP actors. The aim was to design an environment that was as realistic and naturalistic as possible. The Immerse Studio was set up specifically for this study. To create an interactive feature in the Immerse Studio for participant engagement a DJ Wall was created and projected on to the left wall upon entering the room, using a Spotify account. A music list was compiled based on the suggestions of the ATP actors. Participants could choose a song using a mouse in the corner of the room, or alternatively let it shuffle play.

At a typical university party, drinking games are present. As alcohol was not included in this study an alternative game was required to immerse participants. The decision was made to use an XBOX Kinect Motion Monitor on the centre wall of the room. The Kinect was connected to a laptop that displayed several different images such as a beach scene, which participants could select from (see Appendix 13). The real-time images of participants would then be superimposed into the scene and projected onto the wall in the Immerse Studio. Participants could then interact with the image and take screenshots of themselves in that image.

The right was a Selfie-Wall. It was designed specifically for this study by a programmer/developer at USC. The Selfie-Wall was comprised of two components: the PhotoBooth web application and the PhotoWall web application. Both were written in HTML and JavaScript. The PhotoBooth web application used WebRTC for video capture and still images were extracted from the video stream and uploaded to the server database. The PhotoWall web application used WebGL for hardware accelerated

graphics. New images were requested every five seconds from the server and sent to the PhotoWall. This meant that participants could take photos of themselves alone or with others using an iPad. The photos were uploaded to a private, closed website and projected onto the wall where they would continuously circulate across the wall. These interactive features were used to design a realistic party that would also encourage participants to interact not just with the technology, but between themselves, and enjoy the party atmosphere. To further facilitate the party environment snacks, including crisps, candy, and chocolate were provided. Water and an alcohol-free party punch, comprised of lime cordial, pineapple juice, apple juice, and soda were also provided to create a realistic party environment (for an image of the Immerse Studio set up see Appendix 14).

All activity in the Immerse Studio was observed using a live video feed, called B-Line that was viewed in the Engage Lab across from the Immerse Studio. B-Line is a multi-angle video capturing system (B-Line, 2017) that allows for videos to be viewed live from outside of the Immerse Studio. There were two cameras in the Immerse Studio. One camera (angle one) was in the middle at the back of the room that captured the majority of the three projector walls. The second camera (angle 2) was in the middle above the DJ-Wall that captured the Kinect Motion Monitor and the Selfie-Wall, and the back wall (see Appendix 14 for the two video angles). The cameras recorded the activity throughout both sessions, so that this data could be analysed and coded at a later date.

6.2.1.1 Actors. Invisible theatre was used to facilitate the signs leading up to a sexual assault. Invisible theatre is a methodology developed by Boal (1985, 1992) used to explore concerns within a society to raise awareness and increase intervention

(Castañeda, 2006). It is invisible to viewers as the actors play everyday people using improvisation, ensuring viewers are not aware that the drama is scripted.

The improvisation of behaviour depicting signs leading up to sexual assault was carried out by four actors from the ATP team. The actors were between the ages of 18-25, the same age range as the participants. Of the four ATP actors, a female actor played the role of a volunteer helping with the study. She introduced the technology to participants, how to work it, and was available throughout in case anyone needed assistance. The other three ATP actors played the role of participants and arrived for the study similar to how the actual participants arrived. This ensured that participants saw them as fellow participants and not part of the experiment. However, in addition to their roles as participants, a male ATP actor was tasked to encourage people to interact if needed, reducing the likelihood of participants not engaging at all. The last two played the roles of the female victim and the male perpetrator.

The characters of the victim and perpetrator were developed from interviews conducted with university students about their perceptions of the dynamic between the two (Chapter Four). The victim played a friendly, shy, and polite character that thought she might have something in common with the perpetrator at the start, therefore, started engaging in conversation with him. The perpetrator played a confident, arrogant character used to getting his way. His aversive behaviour was subtle to limit the amount of attention drawn to him, but as the scenario unfolded, his behaviour became more overt.

6.2.2 Participants

As this experimental design is a new methodology that I developed, the study was conducted as a pilot, with the priority being to develop and test the experimental

design. There is limited guidance on appropriate sample sizes for a pilot study (Hertzog, 2008; Johanson & Brooks, 2010). Some researchers have suggested that pilot samples should be between 10 and 30 to be able to test a hypothesis (Hill, 1998; Isaac & Michael, 1995). Another researcher has argued that the sample should be around 12 in order to start producing good confidence intervals (van Belle, 2002). The sample of 13 was therefore considered an acceptable size.

Participants were 13 students ($M_{age} = 20.92$, $SD = 2.02$, $Range = 18-24$) from USC. No participant chose to exclude their data from analysis at any point during or after the study. The participants included four males and nine females. There were no significant differences in age between male ($M = 20.00$, $SD = 1.83$) and female ($M = 21.33$, $SD = 2.06$) participants $t(11) = -1.11$, $p = .29$, $d = .68$. The majority (92.3%) of participants identified as white ($n = 12$), with one (7.7%) Asian. All participants were undergraduate students; 23.1% were studying psychology ($n = 3$) and 30.8% were studying a combined degree of criminology/psychology ($n = 2$) or serious games ($n = 2$). The remainder were spread across criminology ($n = 1$), psychology and counselling ($n = 1$), engineering ($n = 1$), IT ($n = 1$), personal training ($n = 1$), and teaching ($n = 1$).

Depending on their availability, participants were allocated to one of two sessions (09:30 or 12:30). Approximately half of the participants in each session knew each other. The first session consisted of four participants, where two were in a relationship and knew two of the actors but did not suspect that they were there in an acting capacity. The remainder did not know each other or anyone else in the session. The second session consisted of nine participants, where two were in a relationship and knew one other person in the session, and two were siblings.

6.2.3 Measures

6.2.3.1 Signs leading up to a sexual assault. The perpetrator and victim acted out signs leading up to a sexual assault. The signs were developed specifically for this study from interviews with university students on their perceptions of sexual assault (Chapter Four), as well as findings from Chapter Five. The actors were also consulted regarding the signs to ensure authenticity. These behaviours were then brought together to create a sexual assault scenario that would occur during the party. Table 6.1 provides a basic concept of what behaviours were present during the sessions. These behaviours were not exclusively presented in this order. Instead, in line with the invisible theatre approach, these behaviours were presented organically as the situation developed.

Table 6.1

Basic behaviours signalling signs leading up to a sexual assault as depicted by victim and perpetrator

-
1. The Arrival. Victim comes in with friend (actor). Perpetrator enters last.
 2. Perpetrator and victim introduced by mutual friend (actor)
 3. General discussion (perpetrator checked control room)
 4. Perpetrator and victim take a selfie
 5. Perpetrator gets victim a drink
 6. 2nd drink or forcing to down first drink
 7. Victim moves away, perpetrator follows and encroaches into personal space
 8. Perpetrator takes inappropriate photo with victim and uploads to selfie-wall.²
 9. Victim tries to leave she is visibly upset, perpetrator wants to “hug it out”
 10. Victim leaves, perpetrator follows to “see if she’s ok”
-

² See Figure 6.1 for image

Some materials have been removed due to 3rd party copyright. The unabridged version can be viewed in Lancaster Library - Coventry University.

Figure 6.1. An example of a 'creepy' or inappropriate photo that was taken at the 'party'

6.2.3.2 Bystander efficacy scale. The bystander efficacy scale (Banyard et al., 2005), which consists of 14 items that identifies a bystander's level of confidence in engaging in the listed behaviours. Participants were asked to indicate how confident they were to perform each behaviour using a scale of 0% (can't do) to 100% (very certain). As per Banyard et al. (2005), scores were averaged with a maximum score of 100%. High scores indicate that the participant has high confidence in their ability to effectively intervene. Validity for the scale was established by Banyard (2008) and reliability with a Cronbach's alpha .87 (Banyard et al., 2005). For the current sample the Cronbach's alpha was .77.

6.2.3.3 Agreeableness personality scale. The agreeableness personality scale, a sub-scale of the Big-Five Personality scale (Goldberg, 1992). The sub-scale is comprised of 10 items out of 50. It identifies how a person adjusts their behaviour to suit others. Participants indicate on a 5-point scale (1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly

agree) how much they agree with the statement. As per Goldberg (1992), out of the ten questions, question 2, 12, 22, and 32 were reverse scored. The scores were summed up to obtain the total score, with a maximum score of 50. High scale scores indicate high agreeableness, suggesting the person is trusting, forgiving, caring, and altruistic.

Validity for this scale was established by Goldberg (1992), as was reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha .82 (Goldberg, 1992). For the current sample, the Cronbach's alpha was .68, which is within an acceptable range (Field, 2009).

6.2.3.4 Prosocial personality battery scale. The prosocial personality battery scale (Penner, 2002; Penner et al., 1995), was developed using several personality measures to better predict prosocial behaviour. Penner et al. (1995) argued that this scale is best used in conjunction with the agreeableness scale. The original scale comprised of 56 items is long and to increase feasibility the short-form scale, comprised of 30 items, was used. The scale measures two key factors: other-oriented empathy, which accounts for prosocial thoughts and feelings and helpfulness, which assesses prosocial helping behaviour. These factors are created through the use of seven individual sub-scales that comprise the prosocial personality battery scale: (1) social responsibility (SR; 7 items, maximum score of 35); (2) empathic concern (EC; 4 items; maximum score of 20); (3) perspective taking (PT; 5 items, maximum score of 25); (4) personal distress (PD; 3 items, maximum score of 15); (5) mutual moral reasoning (M; 3 items, maximum score of 15); (6) other oriented reasoning (O; 3 items, maximum score of 15); and (7) self-reported altruism (SRA; 5 items, maximum score of 25). For the first six sub-scales, participants indicate on a 5-point scale (1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree) how much they agree with the statement. For the seventh sub-scale, participants indicate on a 5-point scale (1 never to 5 very often) how often they have

engaged in the following behaviours. As per Penner (2002) and Penner et al. (1995), out of the 30 questions, question 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, and 14 were reverse scored. Scores for each sub-scale were summed together. Higher scores indicated how much participants reflect that personality trait (e.g., having high social responsibility).

The subscales were then used to create two factors: the other-oriented empathy and helpfulness. Factor 1, the other-oriented empathy, was comprised of the summed scores from SR, EC, PT, O, and M, with a maximum score of 110. Factor 2, helpfulness, was comprised of the summed scores of PD (total reversed) and SRA, with a maximum score of 40. The validity of the scale was established by Penner et al. (1995). This measure is reliable (Penner, 2002). The original Cronbach's alphas for the scales are presented in Table 6.2. In comparison to this study, the majority of the Cronbach's alphas were comparable to Penner (2002). However, PD, M, and O, had below acceptable levels for Cronbach's alpha. Small sample sizes, such as 13, could produce unreliable Cronbach alphas (Charter, 2003). It is not a reflection on the reliability of the scale. Research varies on the recommended sample size, however, for a strong Cronbach alpha a sample of 200 to 400 is suggested (Charter, 2003; Yurdugül, 2008). However, Cronbach alphas and scales can still be used for smaller samples and should always be reported (Charter, 2003). See Table 6.2 for a comparison of the Cronbach alpha values.

Table 6.2

Cronbach alphas for the seven sub-scales in the prosocial personality battery scale

Sub-scales	Current sample Cronbach's alpha (Penner, 2002 Cronbach's alpha)
Social responsibility	.60 (.65)
Empathic concern	.68 (.67)
Perspective taking	.63 (.66)
Personal distress	.54 (.77)
Mutual moral reasoning	.41 (.64)
Other oriented reasoning	.59 (.77)
Self-reported altruism	.79 (.73)

6.2.4 Procedure

Ethical approval was gained from Coventry University and USC. Participants who were between the ages of 18 to 25 were recruited using BlackBoard which is an online system at USC, online systems such as Facebook groups, posters that were put up around campus, and face-to-face recruitment at Orientation Week, which occurred a week before start of semester. Orientation Week was selected in the hopes of recruiting students new to university as they may not have been familiar with the campus sexual assault awareness programmes (e.g., RNA; Australia, 2018; or Consent is Sexy; Consent is Sexy, 2011) and as it was a time when there were many parties around the campus. Participants were told that the study was about and were offered AUD\$20 for taking part in the study. Once recruited, participants were provided with a participant

information sheet (see Appendix 3) via email. They were offered four time slots (09:30; 12:30; 15:00; 18:00) on a Saturday to choose from depending on their availability. However, due to small sample size recruited, only two sessions were used: 09:30 and 12:30.

Time was allocated for all participants to arrive before the study commenced. All the actors arrived as if they were participants in the study. Once all participants (and actors) arrived, the purpose of the study was reiterated, and a general consent form was provided and signed by participants and actors (see Appendix 7). The lead researcher introduced the participants to the volunteer (the first actor), who they were told would be showing them the Immerse Studio and how all the activities in the room worked. The lead researcher then left the Immerse Studio. All activity was monitored through video feeds throughout the sessions to ensure the safety of participants and actors. Additionally, any intervening behaviour could also be pinpointed and reviewed in interviews with the relevant participants. The “party” lasted approximately 20 minutes, with the actors ‘performing’ the ‘script’ as described above. The session ended if individuals intervened, or when the sexual assault signs escalated to the point where the victim left the room and the perpetrator followed her out under the guise of making sure she is okay. Participants at this point were given one minute to react. Following this, the lead researcher entered the room to move the study along to the next stage: questionnaire and interview.

To complete the questionnaire and interview, participants were directed to separate rooms, to remove the possibility of discussing what happened. In the room, an iPad was provided for the participant to complete an anonymous questionnaire (see Appendix 12 for questionnaire). The questionnaire was provided after the Immerse Studio as the questions could have potentially primed participants towards looking for

sexual assault cues, if it was presented before the Immerse Studio. It was also not provided after the interview as it was thought there could be a potential for participants to adjust their answers based on the interview and the reveal of the deception. The questionnaire was therefore administered in the middle through the Qualtrics programme. It consisted of demographic questions, the bystander efficacy scale, agreeableness personality scale, and the prosocial personality battery scale. Once the questionnaire was completed, participants were then interviewed using a funnelling debrief method.

Participants were asked to partake in an interview that was designed specifically for this study (see Appendix 8 for the interview schedule/funnelling debrief). The interview was conducted as a funnelling debrief, which helps to mitigate the negative effects caused by the deception (e.g., Boynton et al., 2013). This begins with maintaining the deceptive aim of the study by using broad open-ended questions about what the participants thought about the Immerse Studio as a party space and general impressions about the experience (e.g., could you elaborate on what you found positive/negative regarding the experience?). This would allow for unbiased responses about the experience and to determine whether participants would volunteer any information about observing sexual assault cues. This led to the researcher revealing and discussing the deception. When deception and the purpose of the study was revealed, participants reflected on what this meant, how they felt about it, and all participants were reassured that their responses were completely normal, the deception was necessary, and that their contribution was invaluable. This form of debriefing helps to minimise some of the negative consequences of deception and maximise the positive impact of the research and the contribution the participant brought into the research.

A number of researchers were recruited to conduct these interviews. The aim was to have enough interviewers for immediate one-to-one interviews. While this worked for the first session, where there were four participants, there were not enough researchers for the second session that had nine participants. In the second session, there were only six interviewers, for nine participants. Consequently, three participants had to wait in their allocated interview room for a researcher. While waiting, participants were instructed to complete the online questionnaire on the iPad. The first available researcher would then enter the room and conduct the interview. Interviews lasted approximately 10-20 minutes.

After the debrief in which all deception was revealed, participants were provided with an informed consent form, where they could choose to include or exclude their data from the study (see Appendix 9). The debrief form provided to participants (see Appendix 10) included contact information about available support in the possibility they or someone they know required it. Additionally, participants were informed that if they felt unsettled in anyway a registered psychologist and a social worker were outside if they wanted immediate support. There were two participants that approached either the psychologist or the social worker after their interview for immediate support related to the deception. Both participants reported feeling better after their discussions.

The monetary incentive of AUD\$20 was provided to all participants after the debrief. Once the interviews were completed, participants were taken back into the Immerse Studio, where they met the actors. This was an important aspect as it allowed participants to see that the actors were in fact just acting. However, this led to an unplanned, yet beneficial opportunity to debrief as a group with the actors and all the researchers and to reflect on the overall experience whilst partaking in this study. In this

session the following issues were discussed: what they thought about the acting, was the experimental design believable, and whether the overall experience felt naturalistic and realistic. The discussion lasted approximately ten minutes where the participants as a group partook in a conversation with the ATP team. For example, some said the actors deserved an Oscar for their acting. It was felt by everyone, including the researchers that this was a valuable element of the study that ensured people left feeling okay and understood what had taken place. Overall, the entire study took approximately one hour to complete, per session. Finally, all participants were contacted via email three days after the study to thank them for their participation and to ensure that they were okay. Most participants did not respond. However, two responded with very positive responses. No negative feedback was received.

6.2.5 Data Analysis

All interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed using a deductive thematic analysis (TA) approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This means that the analysis is driven by the researcher's interest. Consequently, the data would be less descriptive as the data is being examined at answering specific question(s), therefore a more detailed analysis of the data in question would be provided (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The six steps detailed by Braun and Clarke (2006) were adhered to when analysing the data. First, the transcripts were read and re-read until the researcher was familiar with the data. Second, initial codes were created by the lead researchers and reviewed by the second author. Codes were then assembled and analysed into themes. As this was a deductive approach, a general idea of the themes was already present. This included the effectiveness of the Immerse Studio and participants' reactions towards the sexual assault that took place in the room. Themes were then reviewed to ensure that they

accurately reflected data and were presented in a logical format to best present the findings. Following this, extracts were selected that best represented the theme. The theme name was designed to reflect the content and argument presented. Themes and extracts were reviewed by the second author. The last step, as per Braun and Clarke (2006) was to produce the report, that created a compelling and comprehensive evaluation of the data in regard to the experience of the Immerse Studio and the deception used for the sexual assault cues. All extracts used to create this evaluation were presented with the participant ID code, gender, and what time slot they were part of (i.e., 9:30 or 12:30).

All data were input to SPSS Statistics 24. Six one-way ANOVAs were conducted to compare bystander efficacy, agreeableness, prosocial personality, gender, and situation (alone or with friends) to observed bystander behaviour. Results will be reported using both p-values and effect sizes. If a sample size, such as the one in this study, is too small, the p-values can be negatively affected, resulting in no statistically significant findings (Ellis, 2010). Therefore, effect sizes will be used to interpret and discuss the findings as they are independent of sample size, whereas p-values are dependent on both sample size and effect size (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). It is argued that effect size can be more important in interpreting results, even when p-values are not statistically significant, as reliance on p-values alone could result in misinterpretation of the data if the sample size is too small (Ellis, 2010). Eta squared effect sizes were reported for the ANOVA, where .01 is a small effect, .06 is a medium effect, and .14 is a large effect (Cohen, 1988).

A coding scheme was developed to record participants' behaviour during the session. Figure 6.2 depicts the coding scheme. The codes were divided between “did nothing”, no intervening behaviour and “did something” where some form of intervening behaviour was spotted. From there, codes were created to explain what type of intervening took place (e.g., indirect or direct intervention).

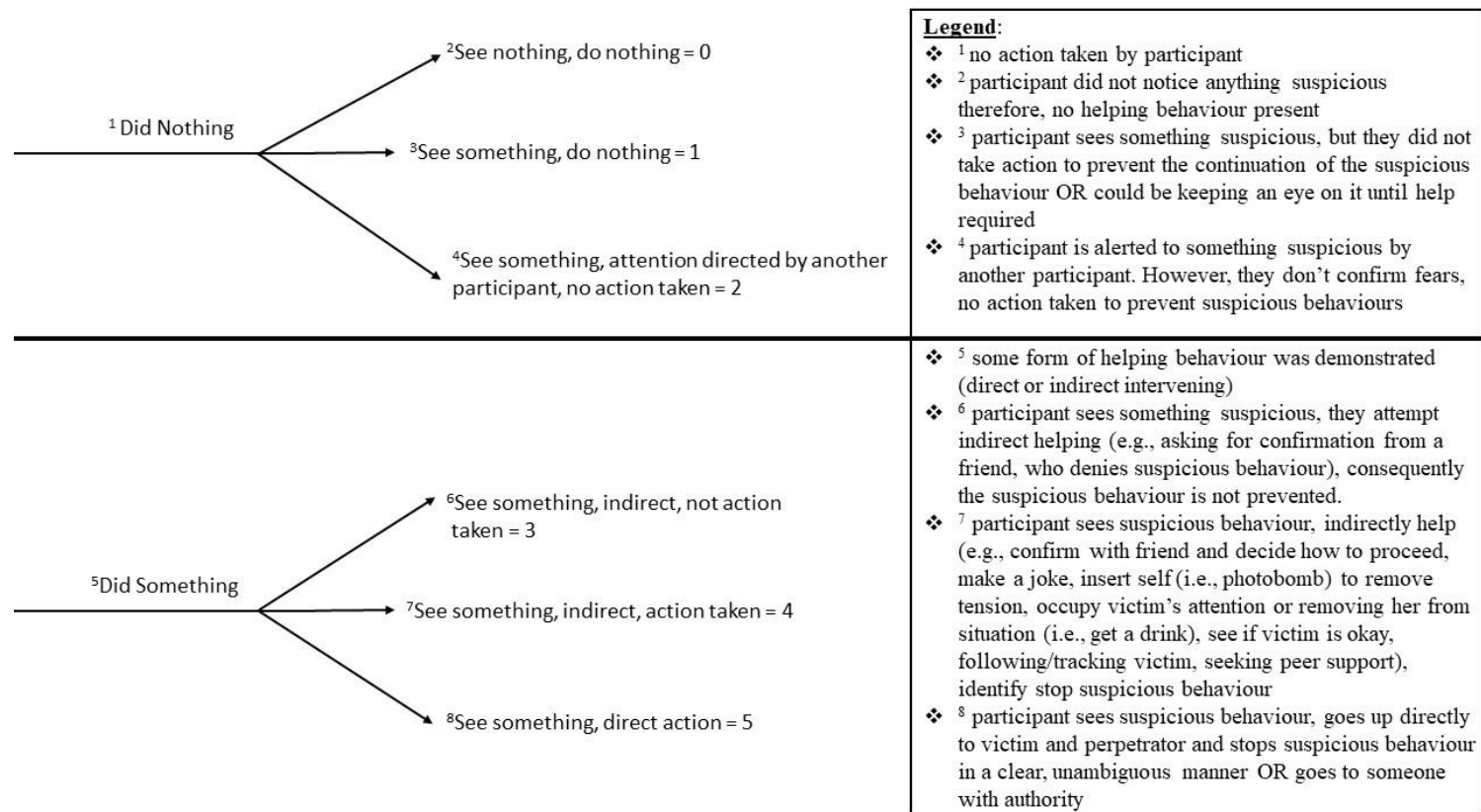


Figure 6.2: Coding scheme for intervening behaviour describing various behaviours that could be depicted and how to score behaviour

6.3 Results

6.3.1 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis was used to address the first aim of the study, which was to determine whether an experimental methodology could be successfully designed to measure *actual* bystander behaviour. Three themes were derived from the data with four sub-themes, as shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

Themes and sub-themes derived from data sample

Themes and Sub-Themes
1. Positive perceptions and helpful suggestions to improve the party environment in the Immerse Studio
Engaging party environment
Utilising the space better to enhance the party environment
2. Reactions towards the sexual assault cues varied
When prompted: Lack of awareness and ambiguity resulted in inaction and feelings of guilt
When unprompted: Awareness of sexual assault cues present alongside (in)direct action taken
3. Participants' satisfaction and a successful methodology
Undetected deception
No distress from learning about the deception

Each theme and sub-theme will be explained and discussed in turn to develop the understanding around the effectiveness of the experimental methodology and what inhibited or influenced a bystander's awareness of the sexual assault cues.

6.3.1.1 Positive Perceptions and Helpful Suggestions to Improve the Party Environment in the Immerse Studio

This theme reflects what individuals thought worked and what could be improved to enhance the party environment created in the Immerse Studio.

6.3.1.1.1 Engaging party environment

Overall, most of the participants came out of the Immerse Studio with a positive impression of the environment created. Participants found that the environment was conducive to facilitating social interaction.

“It was pretty fun. As in the sense that it’s nice to get to know some people because I don’t exactly go out that much and I don’t meet a lot of new people [...] But it was nice meeting a couple new people.” CY3011, Female, 9:30

This demonstrates that the Immerse Studio could be utilised to create a party environment, allowing for people to interact as they normally would. CY3011 had the opportunity to meet new people and expand her social circle.

Other participants focused less on the social interaction, but more on the food and technology present upon arrival.

“Yeah, the iPad, you had food there which was more of an opening environment. [...] The people were my age group, [...] you had the technology. In our generation we are all equipped to that technology.” MT2607, Female, 12:30

The food present at the party created a more welcoming space. Perhaps having the snacks removed some of the ideas that this was a study and put people at ease, especially alongside the technology. MT2607 stated that the age group present was similar to hers and the inclusion of technology was good. All participants were between the ages of 18 and 25 and that age category is familiar with the technology present. For

example, the iPad mentioned was part of the Selfie-Wall. Selfies have become a popular method of documentation (Silverman, 2015). One can now rent selfie-booths to document special occasions (e.g., The Selfie Station, 2015). This suggests that creating an environment using this type of technology is beneficial to creating a party environment.

6.3.1.1.2 Utilising the space better to enhance the party environment

While there were positive perceptions of the environment, some suggestions in how to improve the party were suggested by some. For example, one participant felt that the technology was not used to its full potential.

“Maybe not dedicating an entire wall to it (DJ Wall). Maybe have some cool music visualisers instead because now a third of the room is a playlist.”

CC1008, Male, 9:30

Using the technology to its full potential, such as including visualisers could enhance the party environment. Music visualisation is used to close the gap between visual and auditory cues (Graves, Hand, & Hugill, 1999). There would be different visualisers for each song. This could potentially create a stronger party environment.

Other participants felt that utilisation of technology was not the limitation, but the number of people present was. For the first session there was only four participants plus the actors. In that particular session, one participant mentioned the lack of people.

“I think slightly the amount of people that we had today had an effect. Because there was too little people.” CY3011, Female, 9:30

She felt that the small group of people limited the possible social interactions. This could have influenced the quality of the study. It could be argued that the small group size limited conversation and negatively impacted the party atmosphere.

Lastly, most participants mentioned the time constraint on the party. They felt that the party was too short.

“It was a bit short I felt. I didn’t get to talk to everyone.” AO196, Male, 12:30

Participants were in the Immerse Studio for approximately 20 minutes. Some, like AO196, felt that this time slot was not long enough to get to know everyone. Perhaps increasing the time and ensuring there are enough people in the study slot could further develop the party atmosphere.

6.3.1.2 Reactions towards the Sexual Assault Cues Varied

This theme focuses on how participants reacted towards the sexual assault cues. It is dependent on whether or not the participants were aware of the behavioural cues in the Immerse Studio.

6.3.1.2.1 When prompted: Lack of awareness and ambiguity resulted in inaction and feelings of guilt

Nine participants had to be prompted regarding the sexual assault cues present at the party. The responses for why the sexual assault cues were missed or not mentioned varied from not noticing due to distractions, to the situation was ambiguous and it was unclear what was happening. Some participants, primarily from the 12:30 session, revealed that they did not spot any signs related to a potential sexual assault.

“ya so because it was a bigger group you’re not going to be looking at everything. [...] Unless you’re standing back in a corner watching everyone. You’re not really going to pick up on anything unless there was something that would majorly stand out.” MT2607, Female, 12:30

This highlights that due to the large group present in the second session, with nine participants, plus the actors, led to a decrease in likelihood of spotting the signs leading

up to a sexual assault. The number of people present created a natural distraction that would be present at a real party. MT2607 goes on to state that unless a person was looking for something that is not right, there is a low possibility that it would be spotted.

Conversely, some participants did spot something, however, due to the ambiguous nature of the events, these participants perceived the victim and perpetrator to be in a relationship.

“Yeah because it’s a situation where you are put in an uncomfortable situation where you don’t know if they are partners and they’re just having a little tiff or like you don’t know.” MT2607, Female, 12:30

The participant was unfamiliar with the relationship between the victim and perpetrator. As it is unknown, people are often hesitant to intervene due to the fear of misinterpretation. Consequently, the behaviours witnessed were not addressed. In a sense, it could be argued that unintentionally this normalises the behaviour, when no action is taken. However, for some participants, the assumption of a relationship was not present.

Some people did not assume there was a relationship between the victim and perpetrator. They knew they did not know each other. Instead, they were more concerned about the interaction itself. Specifically, the lack of perceived distress from the victim.

“I noticed that he was being very physical with Olivia. Obviously, they hadn’t met before, but she didn’t seem to be too bothered by it. [...] it didn’t seem like she was not enjoying his company. So, I was like its fine” CC1008, Male, 9:30

This participant noticed the physical behaviours the perpetrator displayed towards the victim. However, he did not perceive the victim’s body language as distressed or

wanting out of the situation. Due to the ambiguous body language, some participants did not interpret the situation as a cause for concern, resulting in no intervention.

Most of the participants who were prompted however, expressed feelings of guilt and remorse for not acting.

“I feel upset actually. A little upset. To a point I noticed them but I didn’t notice what was going on.” AP0903, Male, 12:30

“I feel kind of weird now. Because I was aware that something was going on, but [...] I was fairly sure that nothing terrible was going on. [...] I couldn’t see many signs that she was distressed at the time as well. Ya. I feel pretty bad now”

JG1202, Female, 9:30

This demonstrates that participants were upset about not noticing the situation for what it was: signs indicating a possible sexual assault. Not only was the guilt about not noticing, but also about not reacting to the situation by intervening to stop the behaviour.

6.3.1.2.2 When unprompted: (In)-direct action taken when witnessing sexual assault cues

When unprompted, four individuals reported seeing suspicious signs suggesting something was going on. However, methods of action taken varied from indirect action, with no follow through to direct intervention taken. The two individuals, who used indirect action, brought up the ambiguity of the situation.

“Well there was one incident in there where a girl looked really uncomfortable. [...] I didn’t know if they knew each other (victim and perpetrator) [...] She went up to another guy and said I’m leaving now and he just looked concerned as well.” PB0705, Female, 12:30

She picked up on the negative body language depicted by the victim when the victim interacted with the perpetrator. PB0705 also witnessed the interaction between the victim and ‘friend’ (another actor), at the end of the party, prior to the victim leaving. This suggests that the behaviours witnessed were unwanted, yet something prevented her from intervening. It could be argued that the lack of information about what happened prior to that encounter could inhibit intervention. There could be a fear of getting it wrong preventing bystander intervention.

Alternatively, it could be that there was not enough allocated time for bystanders to react to the situation once the victim and perpetrator left.

“The boy threw an arm over the girl and had a selfie like that (“creepy picture”) and the girl was looking slightly awkward when the photo came up on the wall. [...] the girl rushed out and the boy followed after her [...] us girls (HB2308) were saying we had girl-ish intuition that something’s not quite right [...] another 5 minutes and [...] we might have gone out” CY3011, Female, 9:30

Here the participant talked about how the behaviour displayed between the victim and perpetrator was clear. CY3011 even mention ‘girl-ish intuition’ as an explanation for how she knew something was not right. Yet, no intervening behaviour was depicted. The participant talks about how not enough time was given to react to the situation. She mentioned that having five more minutes with no return of the victim and perpetrator, she would have gone out to check on them. While longer reaction times could be beneficial, research suggests that if the situation is perceived as serious, reaction times are around 30 seconds (Hortensius, Neyret, Slater, & de Gelder, 2018).

Lastly, two female individuals, who did not know each other prior to the study, used direct intervention and intervened in the situation using multiple methods. Both participants started out by mentioning it was clear something was wrong between the interactions they had with the perpetrator and when they witnessed the interaction between the perpetrator and victim.

“he was acting a bit strange and me and my mate (SA0103) that I just met there. [...] were keeping an eye on him and his interaction with this other girl. Cause I thought it was a bit off and he started to get a bit um, weird and fishy looking.”

CV0411, Female, 12:30

Initially, it was a gut feeling expressed by CV0411. Something about how the perpetrator interacted with the victim was suspicious. She referred to it as ‘weird and fishy looking’. At this stage it was unclear what was going on, so she tried to play the situation off as a joke.

“When I first saw him, he handed the girl a cup of cordial and I joked and said haha it could have been roofied and he gave me a really bad look and I was like it’s a joke, it’s a joke, it’s a joke. [...] when they stormed off out of the room, that’s when we sort of thought that we should do something.” CV0411, Female,

12:30

The perpetrator’s reaction to the ‘joke’ she made and how he followed the victim out at the end made it clear something was going on. For her, the signs were obvious, and intervention was needed.

The two female participants monitored the situation throughout the party. Both used indirect methods, such as photo bombing a selfie between the victim and perpetrator to decrease tension, to using non-verbal cues to check the victim was okay.

“this guy he was putting his arm around her and she would sort of push it away kind of thing. And I could see that she kept walking away and he kept following. So, yeah I just thought it was a bit intense and I sort of looked at her and gave her a thumbs up, sort of are you okay and she looked a bit uneasy. He ducked off for a second so I went over and talked to her and tried to hang out with her for a little bit to steer him off. Didn’t work too well. He was pretty persistent.”

SA0103, Female, 12:30

This demonstrates that it was clear the two participants were certain something wrong was happening. The uneasy body language displayed by the victim prompted more face-to-face interaction between the victim and the bystanders. This led to an escalation of intervention methods (e.g., non-verbal methods of checking on the victim, to directing the victim’s attention away from the perpetrator).

When intervening, the two participants followed the victim and perpetrator out together.

“very shortly after that, she ran out of the room, he ran after her very angry and I didn’t want to leave on my own. So, I got SA0103 and bolted out of there to see what was going on.” CV0411, Female, 12:30

From this, CV0411 describes the perpetrator as angry. For the bystanders this was when they were certain something was not right. They both knew something needed to be done and followed the victim out together. Arguably, they left together as there is safety in numbers. In the likelihood that something was to go wrong they will have each other for support and to provide back up.

Not only was the clarity of the situation a trigger point to intervene, but perceived age differences between themselves and the rest motivated these two bystanders to intervene.

“I think also another thing that might come into it is potentially age. I think, I had a few years off uni, I’m in my third year now and I’m a lot older, maybe a few years older than a lot of other people. [...] Like if these kids were adults, I don’t know if I would have intervened.” SA0103, Female, 12:30

While there were no significant age differences between participants, SA0103 perceived there to be one. This perception of being older was what motivated her to do something about the situation. Perhaps this perception made her feel more responsible for the well-being of the victim, prompting her to get support and directly intervene to prevent a possible sexual assault.

6.3.1.3 Participants’ Satisfaction and a Successful Methodology

This theme focuses on how the deception went undetected and participants’ reactions on learning about the deception.

6.3.1.3.1 Undetected deception

The deception was not detected by any of the participants.

“You guys did an amazing job because it was very discreet, you didn’t know, unless other people picked up on it. I didn’t pick up on it.” MT2607, Female, 12:30

This demonstrates that participants were not aware of the true nature of the study. Consequently, it is safe to assume that this experimental methodology and the careful use of deception were effective in relation to the research aims. There are subsequently

promising indications of the use of this methodology in further studies focusing on this specific area and other similar areas.

6.3.1.3.2 No distress from learning about the deception

Following the comprehensive explanation about what the purpose of the study was and why deception was used, all participants appeared to be okay with the aim and purpose of the study. A small sample of them reassured the interviewer that they were fine with everything.

“Yeah I am fine. It was interesting” CC1008, Male, 9:30

“No, thank you for the opportunity, it was fun” CV0411, Female, 12:30

This demonstrates that participants found the experience interesting. Participants did not report feeling distressed. Some, such as CV0411 who directly intervened, viewed the study as a learning opportunity.

The majority of the participants expressed that they found this to be a good study.

“It’s a study worth doing. Congratulations” CC1008, Male, 9:30

“No, I think it was a really interesting study. Because I’m doing psychology and criminology, so I think it’s definitely. I don’t know, I thought it was really interesting. I think you guys did a good job.” TL1408, Female, 12:30

The participants stated that they were glad that this research was being conducted. Two participants emailed the research team following the study. One provided a reflection of her experience and what it meant for her.

“I think this is a great and very important study and I hope your paper gets published and gets the attention it deserves so more studies like this can be done. Ultimately, I came for the \$20 voucher but I can say I’ve left with more. I

feel more confident and more motivated to do something If I see someone looking uncomfortable because of another person” HB2308, Female, 9:30

HB2308 needed time to reflect on what the impact of the study was for her. While she initially only came for the AUD\$20 voucher, her statement reflects what she took away from her experience. HB2308 reflects on how her perceived confidence and motivation to do something has increased as a consequence of being part of this study. It could be argued that this type of research could be beneficial in developing knowledge and confidence to increase bystander intervention when witnessing a sexual assault.

A second participant emailed following the study about her perceptions of the imposed value and significance of this type of research.

“Your study was amazing and gave me heaps of food for thought – if you ever consider doing another session please do tell me, I’ll try and get you more participants. I really do think that it was a great experience and would recommend all uni students participate if possible.” CY3011, Female, 9:30

CY3011 feedback about the study was very positive. She reflected on her experience and the impact the study had for her. It is clear from her response that the experimental methodology had a strong impact for providing her with ‘food for thought’.

Furthermore, it could be argued based on this that she believes this research can have a positive impact on understanding *actual* bystander behaviour.

6.3.2 Quantitative Analysis

To address the second aim of the study, quantitative analyses were undertaken to investigate the influence of individual and contextual factors on *actual* bystander behaviour. There were six possible codes that could be allocated to each participant for the type of behaviour they portrayed in the study. However, for this study, only four

different codes were allocated, as presented in Table 6.4. Five participants did not witness any sexual assault cues and consequently did not intervene, they were given a code of 0. Five participants, saw something, but did not intervene and were allocated a code of 1. One participant was given a code of two as another participant directed her attention towards the sexual assault cue, but she did not react. Lastly, two female participants, who were in the 12:30 session, were given a code of 5 as they noticed the behaviour and took direct action in an attempt to prevent it from progressing. Table 6.4 provides a breakdown for each code category in relation to gender, situation, bystander efficacy, Agreeableness, Factor 1 (other oriented), and Factor 2 (helpfulness). The table provides frequencies, means, standard deviations, and confidence intervals. Lastly, the two females that intervened were on the low end for the mean scores out of all the categories for bystander efficacy and agreeableness. They were in the middle range for Factor 1 (other oriented) and at the high end for the mean score for Factor 2 (helpfulness).

Six one-way ANOVAs were conducted to answer the three research questions associated with the second aim – to determine the effect of gender, situation (alone or with friends), bystander efficacy, agreeableness, and prosocial personality: Factor 1 (other oriented) and Factor 2 (helpfulness), and how it influenced observed bystander behaviour. Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure there was no violation of the assumptions. All assumptions were met except for the assumption of homogeneity of variances for situation, which was significant at $F(2, 9) = 18.00, p = .001$ and agreeableness, which was significant at $F(2, 9) = 4.56, p = .04$. However, due to the small sample size, power is limited and assumption checks could be misleading

(Hertzog, 2008). To compensate for this, confidence intervals are presented to allow for the replication of results (Hertzog, 2008).

There were no statistically significant differences in gender, situation, bystander efficacy, or prosocial personality. However, as there was a small sample size, findings are presented along with effect sizes. In accordance to the first research questions, there was a large effect size for Gender, $F(3, 9) = 1.15, p = .38, \eta^2 = .27$. Regarding the second research question, there was a large effect size for situation, $F(3, 9) = 1.04, p = .20, \eta^2 = .26$. Lastly, for the third research question that focused on individual factors, there was a large effect size for bystander efficacy, $F(3, 9) = 1.90, p = .20, \eta^2 = .39$, agreeableness, $F(3, 9) = .94, p = .46, \eta^2 = .24$, Factor 1 (other oriented), $F(3, 9) = 1.02, p = .43, \eta^2 = .25$, and Factor 2 (helpfulness), $F(3, 9) = .37, p = .78, \eta^2 = .11$.

Table 6.4

Frequencies, means, standard deviations, and confidence intervals for all four one-way ANOVAs for each observed bystander behaviour

	0	1	2	5	Total
	(<i>n</i> = 5)	(<i>n</i> = 5)	(<i>n</i> = 1)	(<i>n</i> = 2)	(<i>n</i> = 13)
	Mean (SD); [CI]	Mean (SD); [CI]	Mean (SD); [CI]	Mean (SD); [CI]	Mean (SD); [CI]
Gender					
Male	N = 3	N = 1	–	–	N = 4
Female	N = 2	N = 4	N = 1	N = 2	N = 9
Situation					
Alone	N = 2	N = 3	–	N = 2	N = 7
With	N = 3	N = 2	N = 1	–	N = 6
Friend					
Bystander	88.21 (7.16);	77.53 (11.51);	97.14*	84.71 (3.03);	84.25 (10.06);
efficacy	[79.33, 97.10]	[63.24, 91.82]		[57.49, 111.94]	[78.17, 90.33]
Agreeableness	40.80 (4.60);	44.20 (3.35);	47.00*	39.50 (9.19); [-	42.38 (4.84);
	[35.08, 46.52]	[40.04, 48.36]		43.09, 122.09]	[39.46, 45.31]
Factor 1: Other	83.20 (11.32);	90.20 (5.63);	97.00*	87.50 (2.12);	87.62 (8.48);
oriented	[69.14, 97.26]	[83.21, 97.19]		[68.44, 106.56]	[82.49, 92.74]
Factor 2:	24.00 (6.21);	25.60 (4.04);	30.00*	27.00 (8.49); [-	25.54 (5.22);
Helpfulness	[16.30, 31.70]	[20.59, 30.61]		49.24, 103.24]	[22.38, 28.69]

Note: 0 = See nothing, do nothing; 1 = See something, do nothing; 2 = See something, attention directed by another participant, no action taken; 5 = See something, direct action; * only one person, no standard deviation or confidence intervals

6.4 Discussion

The first aim of this study was to develop an experimental methodology that could be used to measure *actual* bystander behaviour. Actors from the ATP team used invisible theatre to act out signs leading up to a sexual assault at a party constructed within the Immerse Studio. Participants were deceived of the true nature of the study. They were led to believe that they were there to attend a party, to ensure that natural intervening behaviours could be observed. The second aim was to measure individual and contextual predictors of *actual* bystander intervention.

Overall, the experimental design demonstrated it was an effective methodology for measuring *actual* bystander behaviour. All participants believed the deception and thought that the study was actually about the suitability of the Immerse Studio to host a party. No participants picked up on the true aim of the deception, reducing the possibility of socially desirable responding. Furthermore, no participants reported distress from being deceived as to the true aims of the study. Deception in this instance therefore addressed the limitations present in using self-report data, such as vignettes. Additionally, this methodology allowed for research to move away from measuring intent, which is not well linked to *actual* behaviour (McMahon et al., 2014), towards measuring *actual* bystander behaviour.

During the interviews, prior to the disclosure of the deception, participants expressed many positive aspects of the Immerse Studio and the party environment. The inclusion of the technology was a highlight for most. Technology is very prominent in day to day use (Sage Publications, n.d.). It was directly applicable to the participant age group and was used as a way to create a welcoming space. However, as this was the first time this experimental methodology was tested, improvements were suggested by

participants. For example, the DJ-Wall could be utilised in a more effective manner by including aspects such as visualisers instead of having a whole wall dedicated to the playlist to generate a better party atmosphere. However, it could be argued that even with improvements, the room is more representative of a real-life scenario than vignettes or self-report data.

The music, people, activities, and food available in the Immerse Studio, created a realistic party environment. These aspects can be found at most parties that people attend. Therefore, when measuring *actual* bystander behaviour, all the extenuating aspects surrounding signs leading up to a sexual assault are present (Hughes, 1998). This addresses another limitation often associated with self-report data, where the complexity of the situation is not fully present. The complexity of the environment created in the Immerse Studio included what would be occurring at a real party. There were conversations, people, and activities. These aspects, created the environment and background noise, allowing for the signs of sexual assault to become part of the environment. Often with vignettes, participants are focused on the signs, highlighting the event. However, the surrounding contextual information that makes up an event, such as conversations with others and activities are, not present in a vignette. This information provides natural ‘distractions’, reducing direct attention towards the sexual assault in question. This experimental methodology demonstrated, that at least with this sample, the surrounding contexts are taken into account, and are important when investigating bystander interventions. The naturalistic design of the environment created the indirect impact need to influence or inhibit intervening behaviour.

As expected, the reactions to the sexual assault cues varied depending on the participant and their situation and interpretation of events around them. Some

participants saw nothing related to the signs of a sexual assault. These participants were caught up in the technology and socialising with other participants, as is expected in a party environment. There were others that did notice something but due to the perceived ambiguity of the situation did not intervene. These participants reported that they did not know what was going on. This is reflective of past research that states bystander intervention decreases if a bystander interprets the situation as ambiguous (Latané & Darley, 1968). The fear of misinterpreting deters people from intervening as they do not want to look foolish (Chapter Four).

There were, however, two females that noticed and did intervene. These two females were part of the second session that consisted of nine participants. For this session, the intervention rate is reflective of past research that demonstrates that approximately 33% bystanders intervene when witnessing a sexual assault (Planty, 2002). The two females that intervened, described the situation to be clear, with no doubt about what was happening. The two females noticed the event and set themselves a goal where the expected outcome was to prevent the behaviour from escalating by deterring the perpetrator. For these two individuals having the social support of each other gave them the strength needed to intervene. This is supported by past research that bystanders who have positive peer support are more likely to intervene than when alone (Banyard et al., 2018).

Lastly, past experimental study designs used to measure *actual* bystander behaviour (Harari et al., 1985; Shotland & Stebbins, 1980) had limitations, such as not providing a comprehensive debrief to participants at the end of the study (Harari et al., 1985). When designing this study, the well-being of the participants, actors, and researchers was paramount. The funnelling debrief method was adopted and

implemented during the interview. This method appeared to be very successful, specifically as the deceptive nature was maintained at the start of the interviews to obtain unbiased responses regarding the experimental methodology. At this stage, some participants volunteered information about observations made regarding the sexual assault cues. This information would not have been attainable if the deception was revealed at the start of the interview as it could have potentially primed participants to respond in a certain manner.

While deceptive research can cause mild distress in some participants (Bortolotti & Mameli, 2006), the utilisation of the funnelling debrief method mitigates the negative effects of deception (Boynton et al., 2013). In the interview, most participants stated that they were fine after the deception and purpose of the study was revealed. However, it is important to note that while more participants stated they were fine, this type of research does have its risks. For example, two participants spoke to either the social worker or the psychologist present the day of the study after the interview regarding the deception and not having intervened. The self-blame for not intervening is normal (Feldman & Albarracín, 2017) and reassurance was provided by the professionals on site. Both participants stated they were okay after the conversation. For this reason, it is important that support services are available to ensure the well-being of all involved in deceptive research focusing on sexual assault, due to the sensitive nature of the research. However, by adhering to the code of ethics and ensuring adequate support is available, participants left in a similar state as to when they arrived, if not better (British Psychological Society, 2014). Overall, the development of the experimental methodology proved to be an effective way to examine *actual* bystander behaviour, with some promising initial findings. Some participants reported leaving the study

feeling more confident and motivated to do something in the future if they were to encounter a sexual assault, which suggests that this type of design could be used as an intervention, as well as for research.

Regarding the first research question under aim two, on gender differences and intervention, there were two females in the second session (12:30) who directly intervened. They followed the victim and perpetrator out of the room. Prior to this, there were numerous indirect attempts to intervene (e.g., photo bombing a selfie). While there was no statistically significant difference in men and women's responses, there was a large effect size. This could suggest that if there were more participants, the power would increase, potentially demonstrating a statistically significant gender difference where women intervene more frequently than men. This could potentially be in line with previous research that shows that women are more likely than men to intervene in a sexual assault (e.g., Amar et al., 2014; Banyard, 2008; Hust et al., 2013; Hust et al., 2015).

For the second research question, focusing on the situation, past research suggests that bystanders who are alone are more likely to intervene (Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Rodin, 1969; Levine et al., 2002). Additionally, research also demonstrates that if the bystander knows the victim they are more likely to intervene (Banyard, 2008; Bennett & Banyard, 2016). However, for the current study, while there was a large effect size, there were no statistically significant findings supporting this.

The two females that intervened, did not know each other prior to the study, nor the victim. However, they did not intervene alone. Instead, they came together to intervene as a team. There is research that suggests that intervening behaviour can be prompted if bystanders share a similar social category group membership with each

other and with the victim (Levine & Crowther, 2008). There has been a strong argument in the past about in-group identity and how members of the same in-group are more likely to help each other (Dovidio et al., 1997; Levine et al., 2005). For this study, it could be argued that the shared group membership between the female bystanders and the victim was their gender identity, where all parties shared the identity of female. It could have potentially contributed to the two bystanders coming together to intervene. Additionally, there is also research that argues that when a situation is serious and poses a risk to a single bystander, bystanders can come together to intervene as it is perceived to be a risk of personal safety to intervene alone (Greitemeyer & Mügge, 2015). However, further research is required as individuals can intervene on their own (e.g., Levine et al., 2002). The current study only had two sessions, with intervention only occurring in one session (12:30). Developing the research to understand the circumstances in which people intervene individually compared to those that intervene with at least one other person could provide insight into the characteristics that comprise the bystander intervention phenomenon.

Typically, bystander research tends to focus on individual factors such as bystander efficacy (Exner & Cummings, 2011) and the influence they have on bystander intervention. For the third research question, bystander efficacy, agreeableness, and prosocial personality were examined to see what influence these factors have on *actual* bystander behaviour. Past research has argued that bystanders who have a high intent to intervene often score high on bystander efficacy (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011). In this study, however, while not statistically significant, the two female bystanders scored the lowest on the bystander efficacy scale compared to the remainder of the participants. They also had the highest scores compared to the rest for

Factor 2 (helpfulness) from the prosocial personality battery. According to Penner et al. (1995) helpfulness is a better predictor of prosocial behaviour when compared to Factor 1 (other-oriented), where the two bystanders in the present study were about average in comparison to the remainder of the participants. Helpfulness is primarily associated with a person's willingness to be helpful and assertive (Penner, 2002). This was clearly depicted within the videos from this study where the two females became aware early on that something may not be right. Consequently, they consistently monitored the situation between the victim and perpetrator, increasing their intervening behaviour from indirect methods such as non-verbal cues and photo-bombing a selfie, to finally using direct intervention by following the victim and perpetrator out of the room.

The findings of the study need to be understood in the context of the research design. First, the time taken to develop the study and obtain ethical approval and the limited time available to use the Immerse Studio meant that there was a small sample size for this study consequently affecting the power when analysing the data. Additionally, participants were recruited from Orientation Week in the hopes of getting new students. However, recruited participants were not necessarily new students. Future research could therefore recruit at any time, utilising more online recruitment options. Limiting the time restrictions, from only Orientation Week, to any time of academic term will allow for a large sample size to be obtained. Secondly, participants reported being okay when deception and aim of the study was revealed at the end of the interview. However, some participants may have needed time to process the information. Future research could include a formal follow-up with participants at a later date, such as a short interview to discuss the study. This would further ensure the well-being of participants, and also provide insight into the effects of the deception over

a longer time and would allow more evidence as to whether there are indeed positive outcomes, as suggested by Schwartz and Gottlieb (1980).

Third, there was low audio quality in the video recordings, where most conversations were drowned out by the music. Using a more advanced audio system, allowing for some sounds to be enhanced and others minimised would be beneficial. Fourth, this study used a simplistic design, manipulating few variables as the aim was to test whether the methodology itself would work. However, future research could implement various manipulations such as whether the participant knows the victim and/or perpetrator, the gender ratio in the room, and introducing alcohol, as it is a key element present at parties where a sexual assault could take place. Lastly, this study only measured bystander efficacy and personality traits following the scenario in the Immerse Studio. Future research could utilise a longitudinal study design where these factors are measured pre-testing, during, and post-testing. To see how they are affected based on the experience. However, there would need to be a suitable amount of time between pre-testing and the experiment to limit priming.

Nevertheless, these findings have important implications for extending the bystander literature and sexual assault prevention. Experimental methodologies can be used ethically and effectively to measure *actual* bystander behaviour. This allows for researchers to develop a deeper understanding of *actual* bystander behaviour in a controlled laboratory-based study. This methodology can have important implications for the design of bystander intervention programmes. Firstly, the group discussions at the end of each session demonstrated that people appear to be okay with the deception and were happy to be a part of the study. Secondly, some participants reported that they felt their confidence in the ability to do something had increased as a consequence of

being part of the study. Third, further developing the experimental methodology to include additional variables such as alcohol could increase the complexity, similar to a real-life situation. In developing the methodology, it could then be used to create a serious game creating a more interactive bystander intervention programme that combines entertainment and learning. This would not only teach people what signs to look out for and how to intervene while maintaining personal safety, but also actively raising awareness to the problem through an interactive method that can increase people's confidence in their ability to intervene.

6.4.1 Conclusion

To conclude, this innovative study was the first to shift bystander intervention research from a reliance on self-reports of intended behaviour towards utilising an experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour. There were no statistically significant findings, however, the large effect sizes for all the variables suggests that there may be some influencing factors regarding observed bystander behaviour, where women are more likely to intervene compared to men and scoring high on Factor 2 (helpfulness) could predict bystander intervention. Additionally, while more testing is required, the findings demonstrate that the methodology itself can be used to observe and measure *actual* bystander behaviour when sexual assault cues are present. The party was perceived as realistic. Participants believed the deception and did not perceive the sexual assault cues to be abnormal in the environment. Lastly, the funnelling debrief was beneficial in mitigating negative reactions once deception was revealed. Allowing participants to be part of the conversation both with the interviewer and with the ATP actors in the end created a safe zone for all involved and created a sense of being part of something. Developing this experimental methodology could

have significant impacts on the design and implementation of future bystander intervention programmes, making them more interactive and applicable to the target group. Creating an intervention programme using immersive technology could increase participants' confidence, self-efficacy, and motivation levels, increasing the likelihood that they will intervene if they were to witness a sexual assault.

Chapter 7: Discussion

7.0 Introduction

This chapter will briefly summarise the project aims, research questions, and how they were addressed. This will be followed by a discussion. Limitations, implications for research, and implication for practice will follow after. The chapter then ends with a conclusion.

7.1 Research Objectives and Summary of Findings

The initial research objective for this project was to review the literature to establish what research exists around the context of bystander intervention and sexual assault on university campuses (systematic review presented in Chapter Two). Additionally, a second review was conducted that evaluated theories of prosocial behaviour that could be used to explain and predict bystander behaviour.

In conducting the systematic literature review (Chapter Two) two important points became overwhelmingly clear. First, research in this area has been primarily conducted in the US, the findings of which have underpinned intervention programmes to combat sexual assault outside of the US due to a lack of localised research. Secondly, the main method in this area of research has been self-report measures to understand what could influence bystander intervention (e.g., Brown et al., 2014). As I continued to research, opportunities developed early on that created a possibility of conducting a transnational comparison between Coventry University in the UK and USC in Australia. USC also had technology (the Immerse Studio) that provided me with the opportunity to design a realistic, ecologically valid experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour (Chapter Six).

The gaps and methodological issues identified in the systematic review aided in refining and establishing the three primary research questions. The three research questions were:

- I. What are the perceptions and understanding university students have regarding sexual assault and how we can reduce it?*
- II. What factors increase or decrease the likelihood of bystander intervention regarding sexual assault within a university context?*
- III. How can the methods used in bystander intervention research be advanced to further our knowledge in this area?*

These three research questions needed to be answered in the order they are presented. Therefore, this project employed sequential triangulation. Findings from each study would directly influence the design and method of collecting data for subsequent studies. The primary focus of this research was on answering the third question that ultimately led to the design of a more ecologically valid and reliable way to measure and understand *actual* bystander behaviour. Each study will briefly summarise the findings and how it answered the accompanying research question.

7.1.1 Chapter Four

The aim of the first study was to transnationally explore the perceptions and understanding university students have regarding sexual assault and bystander intervention. This study therefore answered the first research question. UK and Australian university students shared many similarities regarding their perceptions of sexual assault. Specifically, they had similar viewpoints on what could increase the risk of sexual assault, the type of person who would perpetrate it, the potential signs that could indicate a sexual assault may occur, and what would motivate them to intervene.

The common theme that was present throughout and influenced responses was the issue of ambiguity and how that could influence bystander intervention. By increasing awareness and knowledge around sexual assault and bystander behaviour, the problem of ambiguity could be reduced.

7.1.2 Chapter Five

This chapter expanded on the findings from Chapter Four. To answer the second research question, a transnational examination between the UK and Australia was conducted. The aim was to examine how contextual factors influenced bystander behaviour, when controlling for individual factors. The contextual factors (e.g., alone or with friends, victim is a friend or a stranger) employed in this chapter emerged directly from findings presented in Chapter Four. Moreover, the individual (e.g., bystander efficacy, rape myth attitudes) factors controlled for were based on the review conducted in Chapter Two. Overall, the findings of this chapter draws attention to the bi-directional influence of individual and contextual factors and the influence they have on bystander intent to intervene. This bi-directional influence is similar to the argument made in Chapter Two that individual and contextual factors are interrelated.

7.1.3 Chapter Six

The aim of Chapter Six was to design an experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour. Incorporating students' perceptions about where sexual assaults take place and who the victim and perpetrator are (Chapter Four) was essential in the design of this experimental methodology. Moreover, including a brief questionnaire was essential in trying to understand the effect individual and contextual factors have on bystander behaviour (Chapter Five). The findings demonstrated that the experimental methodology is effective in designing a method of observing and

measuring *actual* bystander behaviour. Furthermore, it allows for the advancement of bystander research from relying on self-report data focused on intents, towards utilising a more ecologically valid method of measuring *actual* behaviour. This effectively answered the third research question.

7.2 Discussion

This section will discuss the research findings from this project including the ambiguity around sexual assault and its impact on both intent and *actual* bystander behaviour, how individual and contextual factors are mutually contingent in understanding bystander behaviour, and the unique contributions of this research. Additionally, there will be a section on personal reflections from conducting this research.

7.2.1 Ambiguity around Sexual Assault: The Impact on Intent and *Actual* Bystander Behaviour

Ambiguity around sexual assault was a common theme throughout this project. Initially, it started out within the interviews (Chapter Four). Ambiguity was associated with the definition, consent, and spotting the signs. Not being able to spot the signs naturally lead to a lack of bystander intervention. However, while participants acknowledged this ambiguity, they still perceived themselves as highly likely to intervene. As ambiguity was evident throughout, it naturally became a contextual factor within the second study (Chapter Five).

The vignettes designed for this research manipulated several factors, one of which was the ambiguity of the situation. Some scenarios were ambiguous while others were clear in depicting a potential sexual assault. The findings from the second study (Chapter Five) depicted that when a scenario was clear, participants were significantly

more likely to report an intent to intervene. This demonstrates that the perceptions of university students reflect their intentions to intervene. Moreover, this is supported by past research, reaffirming this finding (Carlson, 2008; Koelsch et al., 2012; McMahon et al., 2015). As the perception of a sexual assault in a public location was a prominent finding in both the qualitative and quantitative studies (reported in Chapters Four and Five), what participants believed comprised a sexual assault was incorporated into the experimental study (reported in Chapter Six).

A ‘typical’ scenario of signs leading up to a potential sexual assault was created based on the perceptions discussed in the qualitative findings (reported in Chapter Four). Additionally, the vignette depicting a clear scenario used in the quantitative study (reported in Chapter Five) was adapted to be used in the design of the experimental methodology. Interestingly, when measuring *actual* bystander behaviour where participants were not made aware of the sexual assault cues, reactions varied. The perceived ambiguity of the situation is subject to the individual and appeared to be key predictor that prevents bystander intervention. So, while the situation in Chapter Six represented what participants felt would be a clear sexual assault (e.g., victim trying to get away or appearing uncomfortable), as also described in the clear vignette in the quantitative study (reported in Chapter Five), where they reported a high intent to intervene, it appears intent is not reflective of *actual* behaviour, aligning with past research (e.g., McMahon et al., 2014). Consequently, it appears that perhaps people believe they are more likely to intervene because either they are aware of what is being measured and consequently the situation is clear, or societal influences dictate their beliefs (but not necessarily their actions) that they should act in a prosocial manner.

7.2.2 Individual and Contextual Factors are Mutually Contingent in Influencing Bystander Behaviour

Past research from the US has argued that attitudes primarily influence bystander behaviour (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; McMahon, 2010). The quantitative results in Chapter Five demonstrated that there is a bi-directional influence of individual and contextual factors. This expanded on what was discussed in the qualitative analysis (reported in Chapter Four) but provided information in terms of which of those factors best predicted the likelihood of intervening. It is not just individual factors, such as rape myth attitudes or peer attitudes that influence bystander behaviour. Likewise, it is not just contextual factors, such as being friends with the victim or being alone when witnessing a sexual assault that influences intervention. Instead, as seen in the quantitative findings presented in Chapter Five, it is a *combination* of integrally-related individual and contextual factors that help to explain bystander intervention. This aligned well with the systematic review findings in Chapter Two, which suggested the bi-directional influence of individual and contextual factors.

Interestingly, when applying the findings (e.g., from the perceptions people hold and the findings from intent to intervene) of individual and contextual factors in the design of the experimental methodology presented in Chapter Six, the natural interaction of individual and contextual factors could be observed and measured with regards to *actual* bystander behaviour. For the two females that intervened, they stated that they found the situation clear and detected the signs leading up to a sexual assault early on. While they did not know each other, the support they offered each other gave them the confidence to intervene. Both believed that they should and could do

something, resulting in following the victim and perpetrator out of the room. It is likely to be the combination of both who they are as individuals and the influence of the environment around them that led their intervening behaviour.

7.2.3 Unique Contributions

Having been provided with the opportunity to conduct research at USC, an innovative and immersive experimental methodology was designed. This experimental methodology used the Immerse Studio to move this area of research beyond self-report measures and towards measuring *actual* bystander behaviour in a realistic environment (Chapter Six). The interviews conducted (reported in Chapter Four) and the vignettes and questionnaires (reported in Chapter Five) directly influenced and were fundamental in developing the experimental methodology (Chapter Six). The deceptive technique employed demonstrated that the understanding of the signs leading up to a sexual assault, how they are interpreted if they are noticed, and the level of distraction a participant experiences is situationally and person specific. These aspects came across in the themes presented in Chapter Four. Furthermore, the deception employed meant participants were not aware of the true purpose of the study, allowing for natural bystander behaviour to be measured towards sexual assault. This was highly beneficial as when self-report measures are used, participants' attention is often directed towards the behaviour in question.

Often, as seen in Chapter Five, participants report a high intent to intervene when asked questions about a potential sexual assault. However, in line with past research, contrary to what people think they would do, what they actually do is vastly different (McMahon et al., 2014) and only a small minority of people, similar to Planty's (2002) findings, actually intervened (i.e., only two of thirteen participants

intervened as seen in Chapter Six). The experimental methodology is therefore effective in creating a natural environment that researchers can utilise to understand *actual* intervening behaviour, without having to rely on self-report data. Consequently, the third study (Chapter Six) addressed a significant gap within the research that was identified in Chapter Two. That gap being that, typically, bystander intent is measured, not *actual* behaviour, increasing the likelihood of socially desirable responding (Grimm, 2010). However, this type of research did come with its challenges.

7.2.3.1 Challenges Associated with this Research

Conducting this type of research came with its challenges. First, given the innovativeness of the third study (Chapter Six) the effectiveness of the experimental methodology could not be predicted. The design was based upon the preceding two studies (Chapters Four and Five) and past research. It was possible to utilise the structure provided by psychological research to account for and control the design features. Protecting participants' well-being, ensuring the party environment was realistic, and determining how to best implement deception and reveal it at the end of the study were very challenging. The challenges, however, should not prevent this type of research. Historical experimental research, such as the Milgram studies (Milgram, 1963) or the Stanford Prison experiment (Haney, Banks, & Zimbardo, 1972), while unlikely to receive ethical approval today if they were replicated using the same protocols, has taught researchers a lot about human behaviour.

Addressing and overcoming the ethical challenges associated with this project has demonstrated that a realistic, effective, and ecologically valid experimental methodology can be developed maintaining participants and the research team's well-being, moving away from unreliable self-reports in favour of measuring *actual*

bystander behaviour. While it is not possible to completely remove the possibility of socially desirable responding, measuring *actual* bystander behaviour can reduce the impact of socially desirable responding often present in self-report responses (Grimm, 2010). Furthermore, this methodology is generative in that this area of research can be built upon. Different factors could be measured, such as the influence of alcohol as research suggests alcohol can affect intervention (Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015). It could also be argued that the methodology could be developed to the point where it could be used as an intervention tool that is interactive in nature once the knowledge base has been extensively developed.

7.2.4 Personal Reflections

The rationale for embarking on this research was to develop our understanding about bystander intervention and sexual assault. However, through conducting the systematic review (Chapter Two) and the three studies (Chapters Four, Five, and Six) it became apparent that there are challenges associated with trying to understand real life bystander behaviour. The pinnacle challenge was developing a naturalistic design that would be ecologically valid and would be effective in changing the research direction, while adhering to the ethics related to measuring *actual* behaviour associated with the sensitive topic of sexual assault. This included designing a realistic party environment, accounting for various outcomes associated with using deceptive measures, and ensuring participant well-being is fully accounted for (American Psychological Association, 2017; British Psychological Society, 2014).

The difficulties associated with this research project challenged me. The interdisciplinary research challenged my thinking. Much of psychological research in this area is designed using vignettes and questionnaires to understand bystander intent to

intervene. While it is not possible to have 100% control over any situation, in designing the experimental methodology (Chapter Six), I felt as if I had to give up an element of control that I have not had to previously with conducting research. With self-report measures, such as vignettes and questionnaires the variables of the study can be controlled. The independent variables can be added, removed, or manipulated within a vignette and randomised to ensure even distribution. However, while similar control was had in creating the experimental methodology, I found some things could not be directly controlled. For example, this area of research involved interdisciplinary collaboration between Psychology, Criminology, Serious Games, and Drama to ensure that the scenarios and acting were realistic, that the study was naturalistic, and that the technology was being used to its full potential.

The interdisciplinary collaboration was highly beneficial for this research as it provided different ways of thinking to bring together this research project. However, incorporating different ways of thinking also limited my perceived control. For example, in creating the signs leading up to a sexual assault, I thought with actors, a formal script would need to be written out for the victim and perpetrator, allowing for a measure of control (i.e., what is said and when it is portrayed, similar to a vignette). However, the ATP team who were part of the project, used invisible theatre (Boal, 1985, 1992) which means actors have a 'toolkit' of key behaviours they need to portray. They use those key behaviours alongside improvisation. This created a more realistic and believable interaction between the victim and perpetrator, which was highly beneficial for the third study (Chapter Six). However, it also meant that the acting itself could not be fully controlled. Depending on the interactions the actors had with participants, it could change the order or observation of the behaviours depicted, which

could have a potential impact on the findings. For example, in the experimental methodology reported in Chapter Six, in the second session, one of the females who intervened made a joke to the victim in front of the perpetrator that the drink could be ‘roofied’. This could have potentially influenced the acting. The female bystander made it aware to the perpetrator that she was suspicious and consequently, the perpetrator’s acting may have had to change to accommodate that. However, it also meant that the actors interactions with the participants were natural, which made the situation feel more realistic and perhaps contributed significantly to the participants believing in the ‘party’. Overcoming these challenges was ultimately beneficial for both me as a researcher but also for moving the bystander research forward using immersive technology and interdisciplinary collaborations.

7.3 Limitations

The findings of this research need to be interpreted within the context of the research. This research focused specifically on female victims and male perpetrators. Future research should examine all types of relationships present (e.g., same-sex sexual assaults or where men are victimised by women) to determine if and how bystander intervention varies depending on the relationship between the victim and perpetrator. This would create a more comprehensive understanding of bystander intervention in sexual assault. Secondly, findings are based on a sample of participants from one university in the UK and one in Australia. Consequently, the findings may not be representative of all of UK and Australian university students. However, this was the first known project to conduct a comparison between the UK and Australia.

In general, participant responses from the interviews specifically (Chapter Four), were supportive of utilising bystander intervention and raising awareness regarding

perceptions of sexual assault and what factors influence bystander intervention.

However, media, such as the #MeToo movement (Metoomvmt, n.d.) or the Jimmy Savile case (BBC, 2016) could have been influential in raising knowledge and awareness about the prevalence of sexual assault. The results should therefore, be interpreted with that in mind.

Participants in the first two studies (Chapters Four and Five) were recommended not to participate in the research if they had experienced sexual assault or were sensitive to the topic. The focus of the research was to understand university students' perspective of sexual assault on campus and how bystander intervention could be used to reduce the prevalence. Victims of sexual assault could provide valuable insight into sexual assault, how bystander research could be utilised, and it could affect how likely they are to intervene. However, the potential of risk of re-traumatisation could potentially be high based on the nature of the research. Consequently, the decision was made that while victims of sexual assault could participate, it was recommended that they do not for their well-being. Finally, the sample size was relatively small for the third study (Chapter Six), however, the effectiveness of the experimental methodology itself was under examination.

7.4 Implications for Research

The findings have important implications and future research suggestions for researchers who want to carry out research in the area of bystander intervention and sexual assault. First, general implication and research directions are discussed. This is followed by the implications and recommendations for future research focusing specifically on the experimental methodology.

Overall, there are two general recommendations. First, the current research design used a mixed methods approach, specifically sequential triangulation that allowed for the development of knowledge that would directly influence the design of an experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour, moving the research in a new direction: measuring *actual* bystander behaviour versus relying on self-report measures. To further develop the transnational examination, future research should look at recruiting participants from universities across the UK and Australia to develop a more representative sample. Additionally, as sexual assault is a global problem it would also be beneficial to extend this research to include other countries that are non-English speaking, western cultures. The data could then be analysed using structural equation modelling, which allows for the development of various types of models representing the different relationships between the variables and how they are related to one another (Lomax & Schumacker, 2004), providing a more comprehensive explanation. Secondly, future research should account for media influence to understand how it positively and negatively affects bystander intervention. This would add in an additional level of complexity providing a more comprehensive understanding of the behaviour in question.

Based on what was learned in designing and conducting the third study (Chapter Six) specifically, there are some points to consider presented in Figure 7.1 for researchers who want to pursue an experimental methodology. This is followed by two specific recommendations.

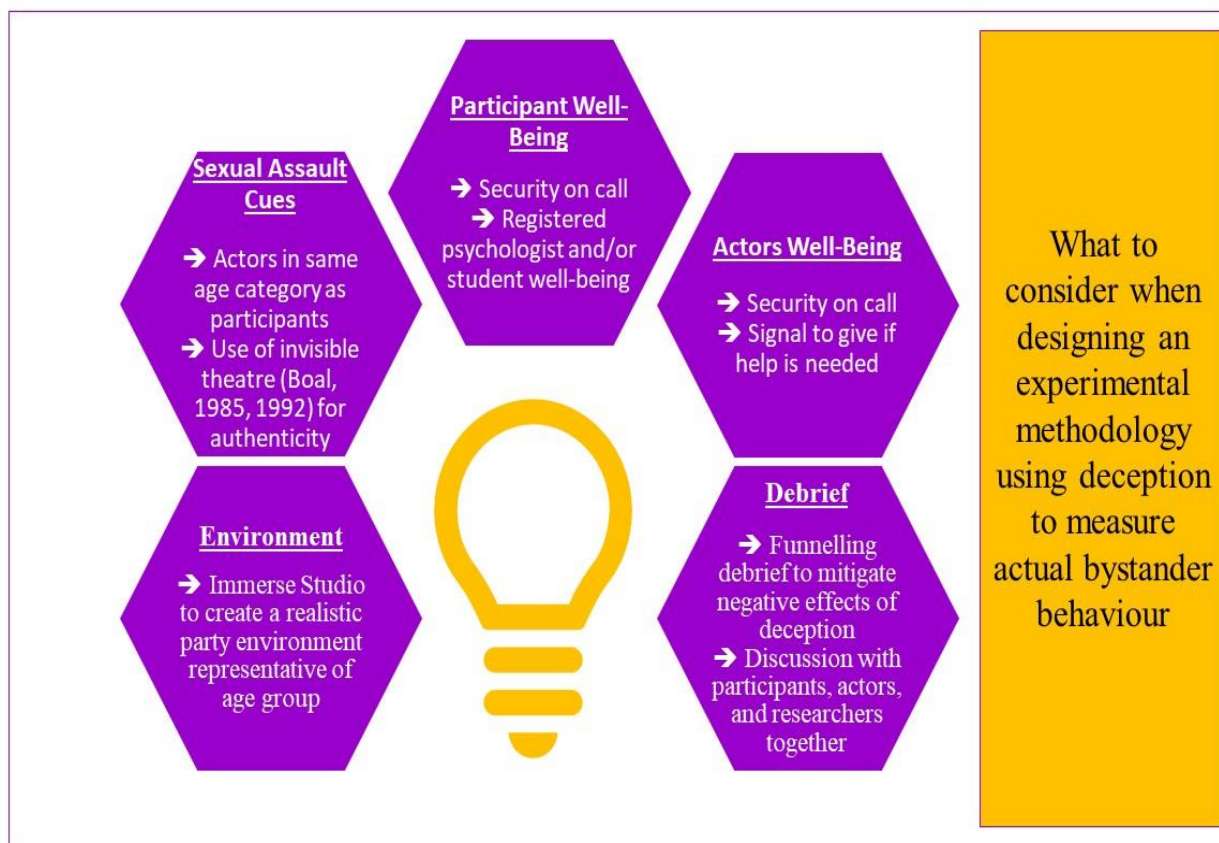


Figure 7.1. Checklist of things to consider when designing an experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour

Using this checklist will aid researchers in ensuring the basic concepts associated with deception and the scenario are addressed. First, for example, under debrief, including a discussion with participants, actors, and researchers at the end of the study is beneficial. For this project, the debrief as a group was unplanned. Originally, participants were invited to meet the actors to reduce negative perceptions of the actors based on their performance in the Immerse Studio. While it was not formal in nature, such as the interview, it allowed for invaluable learning. This discussion provided participants with the opportunity to meet with the actors and reflect on the quality of acting and their experience of it. Furthermore, it was an extension of the debrief, extending to all those involved in the research project. It is recommended that this group debrief is utilised in

future research as it helps to further mitigate negative effects associated with deception. Furthermore, the group as a whole can reflect on what worked, what was interesting, and what could be improved. Ultimately, using the experimental methodology is challenging and requires a lot of effort. However, researchers should strive towards moving away from self-report measures and utilising the experimental methodology to measure *actual* bystander behaviour.

Secondly, while conducting this type of research is difficult and time consuming, it is arguably a better method to understand the complexity of human behaviour as it includes the extenuating factors present in a real scenario, while accounting for the combination of individual and contextual factors. Future research should continue to develop the experimental methodology to understand this complex behaviour. Ultimately, it would be beneficial to create an intervention programme that uses immersive technology similar to what was used in Chapter Six. This would allow participants to immerse themselves in a party environment that is controlled, allowing them to learn the signs indicating a possible sexual assault and how to intervene in a safe manner. I would argue that creating an interactive and immersive intervention programme would increase the effectiveness of bystander intervention programmes. Creating an environment that allows participants to safely practice intervening (similar to how people learn CPR), their self-confidence in themselves and their ability to do something would consequently increase. Additionally, as argued in Chapter Two, having positive experiences of intervening, will increase bystanders' confidence in their abilities to intervene. Ultimately, researchers could create a serious game, which is a simulation similar to a game but which goes beyond entertainment, as its purpose is to train or educate the 'player' (Susi, Johannesson, & Backlund, 2007).

7.5 Implications for Practice

These results from this research can inform university practice in raising awareness about sexual assault in an attempt to reduce the prevalence rates. Bystander intervention can be quite controversial, where some argue that it could be perceived as victim blaming as demonstrated by the Tweet by the Merseyside Police (BBC, 2018). Consequently, the language used when talking about sexual assault is arguably one of the most important considerations. While perpetrators are solely to blame for sexual assaults and victims are never to be blamed, bystander intervention can be beneficial in reducing victimisation.

Bystander intervention programmes can be beneficial in raising awareness and knowledge about sexual assault and how to intervene, while maintaining personal safety (e.g., University of Cambridge, 2018). Intervention can occur either before a sexual assault takes place, as demonstrated in the Who are you? video (WhoAreYou, n.d.), or it can take place afterwards, where the bystander offers support to the victim. Posters can be a good way for raising awareness. They can be specifically targeted at bystanders to increase the likelihood of bystander intervention. For example, at Cambridge University they have a campaign that uses active bystander posters that highlight different methods of intervening while maintaining personal safety (University of Cambridge, 2018).

In addition to bystander training, consent training can also be provided. These programmes exist both in the UK (e.g., Durham University) and in Australia (e.g., USC). At USC, it is referred to as Consent is Sexy (Consent is Sexy, 2011). This programme trains student ambassadors and provides education on issues surrounding consent (some of which were raised in Chapter Four) and the importance of healthy relationships (Consent is Sexy, 2011). Ambassadors can spread this knowledge to

increase awareness and potentially reduce prevalence rates. As ambassadors are fellow students it could also offer a safe point of call when seeking advice on healthy relationships and where to go if a victim wishes to disclose. However, some victims may still feel hesitant to go up to peers in an ambassador role. Potentially using posters to highlight key information on what to do if feeling unsafe (e.g., asking for Angela and the bar staff will discreetly help (Fenton, 2016)), who to go to (e.g., student well-being), or a phone number to call (e.g., sexual assault referral centre) is important.

Lastly, it is important to ensure that there is knowledge and educational tools available to increase awareness about the problem of sexual assault. Findings from the interviews in Chapter Four demonstrated that students perceive younger students, new to university to be at an increased risk of being sexually victimised. The findings also demonstrated that there is a lack of knowledge and talk about sex itself. This lack of communication exists among peers themselves. Students also perceive that victims do not report due to fear of not being believed. I would argue that providing staff disclosure training and raising awareness on campus around reporting and ensuring student safety when reporting could potentially increase the likelihood of victims coming forward. Secondly, students reported lack of education surrounding healthy relationships (e.g., consent). If we cannot talk about a healthy relationship, how can we talk about a sexual assault. Having programmes similar to Consent is Sexy (Consent is Sexy, 2011) could aid in increasing talk about sex and awareness on giving and receiving consent. Thirdly, the topic of media and how misinformation can perpetuate rape myths was discussed. Specifically, with the various depictions of the perpetrator from the Stanford Rape case, or recently the media backlash about the tweet depicting victim-blaming language (BBC, 2018). Based on the findings, some suggestions are made in Figure 7.2 for

universities who want to further ensure student safety, raise awareness of sexual assault, and increase bystander intervention when safe to do so.

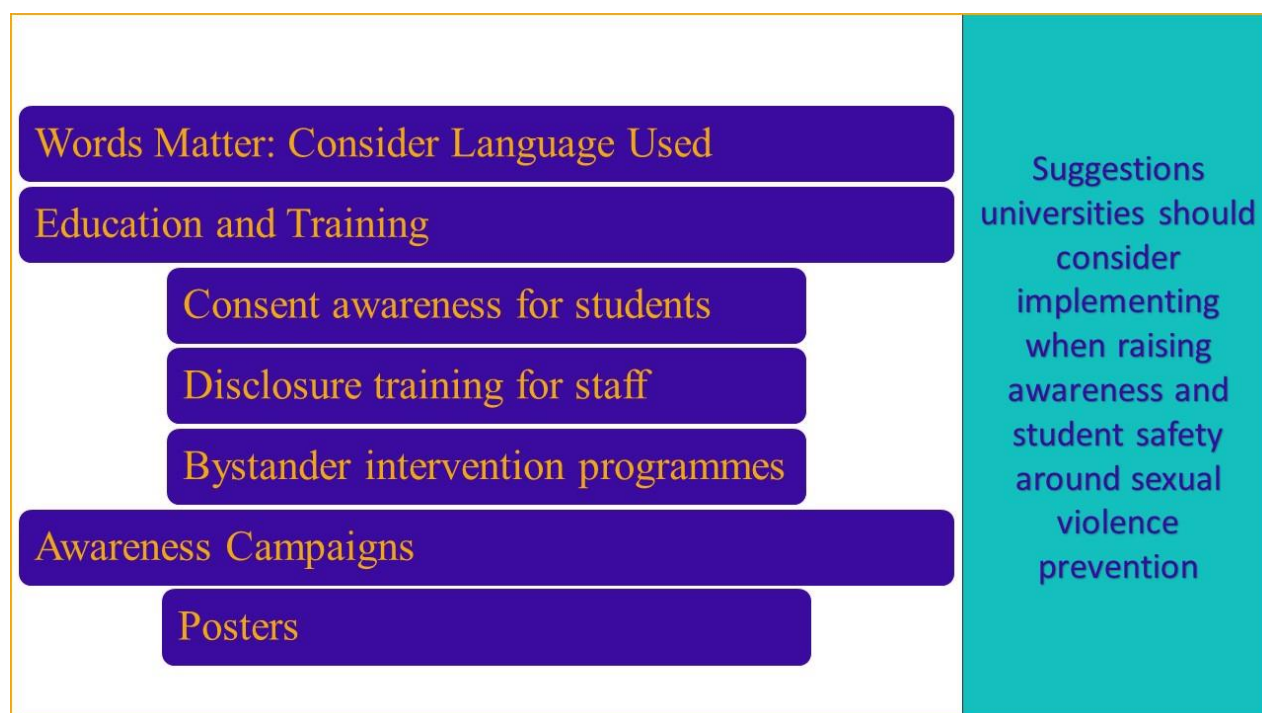


Figure 7.2. Suggestions universities should consider to increase awareness and reduce prevalence for sexual assault

7.6 Conclusion

The overall aim of this research was to develop our understanding of what influences bystander intervention in relation to sexual assaults on university campuses outside of the US. There was a primary focus on designing a more ecologically valid and reliable way to measure and understand *actual* bystander behaviour. To do this, sequential triangulation was employed to understand students' perceptions of sexual assault, what influenced bystander intervention, and to develop an experimental methodology. This innovative research was the first to conduct a transnational comparison between students in a UK University and an Australian University. In examining university students' perceptions of sexual assault (Chapter Four) and what

positively and negatively influences their intent to intervene in a hypothetical sexual assault (Chapter Five), an experimental methodology was developed to move the bystander research away from self-reports, towards a more ecologically valid tool measuring *actual* bystander behaviour in a realistic laboratory-based experiment (Chapter Six). The findings demonstrated that while the UK and Australia were similar in most regards, intent was different where participants in Australia indicated they were more likely to intervene compared to UK participants. Results from the experimental methodology (Chapter Six), however, demonstrated that intent and *actual* behaviour are not as closely linked as is commonly believed.

Contrary to past research originating from the US that argues attitudes and beliefs affect bystander intervention (e.g., Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; McMahon, 2010), it was found for both the UK and Australia sample, that it is a combination of individual and contextual factors that influence the intended likelihood of bystander intervention. Reflective of US statistics (Planty, 2002), approximately a third of participants actually intervened when *actual* bystander behaviour (Chapter Six) was measured. It is therefore important that the experimental methodology continues to be developed and tested to increase the complexity of it, so all possible factors can be considered. This methodology will be able to generate a better understanding of *actual* bystander behaviour, moving the research away from self-report data regarding intention, increasing the ecological validity of the findings.

In conclusion, using a mixed-method experimental methodological approach of observing *actual* behaviour and interviewing participants afterwards about the experience can provide a more comprehensive and valuable perspective of the various factors involved in bystander interventions. The findings can then be used to create a

serious game which can be used as an interactive bystander intervention programme using immersive technology. This programme could be used as an interactive educational tool to teach people how to spot the signs of a sexual assault and how to safely intervene. The programme would have to be tailored to the university to reflect cultural specificities and continuously revised to reflect changes in the societal context within which sexual assault takes place. In normalising talk around sex and using immersive technology to both advance this area of research and to develop bystander intervention programmes, a much more effective technique for learning a new behaviour can be achieved. From carrying out this research, I believe that the rate of bystander intervention can be increased, thereby increasing detection rates and ultimately reducing the prevalence of sexual assault on university campuses.

References

- Abbey, A. (2002). Alcohol-related sexual assault: A common problem among college students. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 118-128.
doi:10.15288/jsas.2002.s14.118
- Abbey, A., Ross, L. T., McDuffie, D., & McAuslan, P. (1996). Alcohol and dating risk factors for sexual assault among college women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 20(1), 147-169. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.1996.tb00669.x
- Abrahams, N., Devries, K., Watts, C., Pallitto, C., Petzold, M., Shamu, S., & García-Moreno, C. (2014). Worldwide prevalence of non-partner sexual violence: a systematic review. *The Lancet*, 383(9929), 1648-1654. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(13)62243-6
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In *Action control* (pp. 11-39): Springer.
- Amar, A. F., Sutherland, M., & Laughon, K. (2014). Gender differences in attitudes and beliefs associated with bystander behavior and sexual assault. *Journal of forensic nursing*, 10(2), 84-91. doi:10.1097/JFN.0000000000000024
- American Psychological Association. (2002). Ethical principles of psychologists and code of conduct. Retrieved from <https://www.apa.org/ethics/code/principles.pdf>
- American Psychological Association. (2017). Ethical principles of psychologists and code of conduct Retrieved from <https://www.apa.org/ethics/code/ethics-code-2017.pdf>
- Armstrong, E. A., Hamilton, L., & Sweeney, B. (2006). Sexual assault on campus: A multilevel, integrative approach to party rape. *Social Problems*, 53(4), 483-499.
doi:10.1525/sp.2006.53.4.483

- Athanassoulis, N., & Wilson, J. (2009). When is deception in research ethical? *Clinical Ethics*, 4, 44-49. doi:10.1258/ce.2008.008047
- Australia, U. (2018). Respect.Now.Always. Retrieved from <https://www.universitiesaustralia.edu.au/uni-participation-quality/students/Student-safety/Respect--Now--Always-#.WuclZljwY2w>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2004). *Sexual assault in Australia: A statistical overview*. Retrieved from Canberra:
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2008). *Australian standard offence classification (ASOC)*. (1234.0). Canberra, Australia Australian Bureau of Statistics
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2012). *Personal Safety, Australia*. Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/4906.0>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2016). *Victims of crime, Australia*. Canberra, Australia: Australian Bureau of Statistics Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/by%20Subject/4510.0~2016~Main%20Features~Victims%20of%20Crime,%20Australia~3>.
- Australian Human Rights Commission. (2017). *Change the course: National report on sexual assault and sexual harassment at Australian universities*. Retrieved from Australia https://www.humanrights.gov.au/sites/default/files/document/publication/AHRC_2017_ChangeTheCourse_UniversityReport.pdf
- B-Line. (2017). B-Line Medical Retrieved from <https://www.blinemedical.com/contact.html>
- Baker, K. J. (2016). Here is the powerful letter the Stanford victim read aloud to her attacker. *BuzzFeed News*.

- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological review*, 84(2), 191-215. doi:10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191
- Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory. *Annals of Child Development*, 6, 1-60. doi:10.1002/9781405186407.wbiecs053
- Banyard, V. L. (2008). Measurement and correlates of prosocial bystander behavior: The case of interpersonal violence. *Violence and Victims*, 23(1), 83. doi:10.1891/0886-6708.23.1.83
- Banyard, V. L., & Moynihan, M. M. (2011). Variation in bystander behavior related to sexual and intimate partner violence prevention: Correlates in a sample of college students. *Psychology of violence*, 1(4), 287. doi:10.1037/a0023544
- Banyard, V. L., Moynihan, M. M., Cares, A. C., & Warner, R. (2014). How do we know if it works? Measuring outcomes in bystander-focused abuse prevention on campuses. *Psychology of violence*, 4(1), 101. doi:10.1037/a0033470
- Banyard, V. L., Moynihan, M. M., & Plante, E. G. (2007). Sexual violence prevention through bystander education: An experimental evaluation. *Journal of community psychology*, 35(4), 463-481. doi:10.1002/jcop.20159
- Banyard, V. L., Plante, E. G., & Moynihan, M. M. (2005). *Rape prevention through bystander education: Bringing a broader community perspective to sexual violence prevention* (208701). Retrieved from
- Banyard, V. L., Rizzo, A. J., Bencosme, Y., Cares, A. C., & Moynihan, M. M. (2018). How Community and Peer Perceptions Promote College Students' Pro-Social Bystander Actions to Prevent Sexual Violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 1-25. doi:10.1177/0886260518777557

- Bazeley, P., & Jackson, K. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo*: Sage Publications Limited.
- BBC. (2016). Savile and Hall: BBC 'missed chances to stop attacks'. *BBC News*. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-35658398>
- BBC. (2018). Police and council sorry for 'victim-blaming' tweet. *BBC News*. Retrieved from <https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-england-merseyside-45232993>
- Beckford, M. (2012). 80% of women don't report rape or sexual assault, survey claims. *The Telegraph*. Retrieved from <https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/uknews/crime/9134799/Sexual-assault-survey-80-of-women-dont-report-rape-or-sexual-assault-survey-claims.html>
- Bell, S. T., Kuriloff, P. J., & Lottes, I. (1994). Understanding attributions of blame in stranger rape and date rape situations: An examination of gender, race, identification, and students' social perceptions of rape victims 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 24(19), 1719-1734. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.1994.tb01571.x
- Bennett, S., & Banyard, V. L. (2016). Do friends really help friends? The effect of relational factors and perceived severity on bystander perception of sexual violence. *Psychology of violence*, 6(1), 64. doi:10.1037/a0037708
- Bennett, S., Banyard, V. L., & Edwards, K. M. (2017). The impact of the bystander's relationship with the victim and the perpetrator on intent to help in situations involving sexual violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 32(5), 682-702. doi:10.1177/0886260515586373

- Bennett, S., Banyard, V. L., & Garnhart, L. (2014). To act or not to act, that is the question? Barriers and facilitators of bystander intervention. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 29(3), 476-496. doi:10.1177/0886260513505210
- Beres, M. A. (2007). 'Spontaneous' sexual consent: An analysis of sexual consent literature. *Feminism & Psychology*, 17(1), 93-108.
doi:10.1177/0959353507072914
- Berkowitz, A. (1992). College Men as Perpetrators of Acquaintance Rape and Sexual Assault: A Review of Recent Research. *Journal of American College Health*, 40, 175-181.
doi:10.1080/07448481.1992.9936279
- Berkwits, M., & Inui, T. S. (1998). Making use of qualitative research techniques. *Journal of general internal medicine*, 13(3), 195-199. doi:10.1046/j.1525-1497.1998.00054.x
- Boal, A. (1985). *Theatre of the oppressed*. New York: Theatre Communication Group
- Boal, A. (1992). *Games for actors and non-actors*. London: Routledge.
- Bortolotti, L., & Mameli, M. (2006). Deception in psychology: Moral costs and benefits of unsought self-knowledge. *Accountability in Research*, 13(3), 259-275.
doi:10.1080/08989620600848561
- Bowen, G. A. (2008). Naturalistic inquiry and the saturation concept: a research note. *Qualitative research*, 8(1), 137-152. doi:10.1177/1468794107085301
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*: sage.
- Boynton, M. H., Portnoy, D. B., & Johnson, B. T. (2013). Exploring the ethics and psychological impact of deception in psychological research. *IRB*, 35(2), 7.

- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. doi:10.1191/1478088706qp063oa
- Breitenbecher, K. H. (2001). Sexual revictimization among women: A review of the literature focusing on empirical investigations. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 6(4), 415-432. doi:10.1016/S1359-1789(00)00014-8
- Bridges, A. J., Wosnitzer, R., Scharrer, E., Sun, C., & Liberman, R. (2010). Aggression and sexual behavior in best-selling pornography videos: A content analysis update. *Violence against women*, 16(10), 1065-1085. doi:10.1177/1077801210382866
- Briere, J., & Jordan, C. E. (2004). Violence against women: Outcome complexity and implications for assessment and treatment. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 19(11), 1252-1276. doi:10.1177/0886260504269682
- British Psychological Society. (2014). Code of Human Research Ethics. Retrieved from <https://www.bps.org.uk/sites/bps.org.uk/files/Policy%20-%20Files/BPS%20Code%20of%20Human%20Research%20Ethics.pdf>
- Brosi, M. W., Foubert, J. D., Bannon, R., & Yandell, G. (2011). EFFECTS OF SORORITY MEMBERS' PORNOGRAPHY USE ON BYSTANDER INTERVENTION IN A SEXUAL ASSAULT SITUATION AND RAPE MYTH ACCEPTANCE. *Oracle: The Research Journal of the Association of Fraternity/Sorority Advisors*, 6(2), 26-35.
- Brown, A. L., Banyard, V. L., & Moynihan, M. M. (2014). College students as helpful bystanders against sexual violence: Gender, race, and year in college moderate the impact of perceived peer norms. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 38(3), 350-362. doi:10.1177/0361684314526855

- Brown, A. L., & Messman-Moore, T. L. (2010). Personal and perceived peer attitudes supporting sexual aggression as predictors of male college students' willingness to intervene against sexual aggression. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 25(3), 503-517. doi:10.1177/0886260509334400
- Bublick, E. M. (1999). Citizen no-duty rules: Rape victims and comparative fault. *Columbia Law Review*, 99, 1413-1490. doi:10.2307/1123546
- Burn, S. M. (2009). A situational model of sexual assault prevention through bystander intervention. *Sex Roles*, 60(11-12), 779-792. doi:10.1007/s11199-008-9581-5
- Burt, M. R. (1980). Cultural myths and supports for rape. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 38(2), 217. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.38.2.217
- Camp, S.-J., Sherlock-Smith, A. C., & Davies, E. L. (2018). Awareness and support: students' views about the prevention of sexual assault on UK campuses. *Health Education*, 118(5), 431-446. doi:10.1108/HE-02-2018-0007
- Carlson, B. E. (1996). Dating violence: Student beliefs about consequences. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 11(1), 3-18. doi:10.1177/088626096011001001
- Carlson, M. (2008). I'd rather go along and be considered a man: Masculinity and bystander intervention. *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 16(1), 3-17. doi:10.3149/jms.1601.3
- Carroll, J. S., Padilla-Walker, L. M., Nelson, L. J., Olson, C. D., McNamara Barry, C., & Madsen, S. D. (2008). Generation XXX: Pornography acceptance and use among emerging adults. *Journal of adolescent research*, 23(1), 6-30. doi:10.1177/0743558407306348
- Castañeda, Q. E. (2006). The invisible theatre of ethnography: performative principles of fieldwork. *Anthropological Quarterly*, 79(1), 75-104.

- Centers for disease control and prevention. (2018). Alcohol and public health. Retrieved from <https://www.cdc.gov/alcohol/fact-sheets/minimum-legal-drinking-age.htm>
- Charmaz, K. (2015). Grounded Theory. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp. 53-84). London: Sage Publications.
- Charmaz, K., & Belgrave, L. L. (2007). Grounded theory. In R. H. J. A. Smith., & L. Van Langenhove (Ed.), *The Blackwell encyclopedia of sociology*. London: Sage Publications
- Charter, R. A. (2003). Study samples are too small to produce sufficiently precise reliability coefficients. *The Journal of General Psychology*, 130(2), 117-129. doi:10.1080/00221300309601280
- Clark, R. D., & Word, L. E. (1972). Why don't bystanders help? Because of ambiguity? *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 24(3), 392. doi:10.1037/h0033717
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences 2nd edn*. Hillsdale: Erlbaum Associates.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2017). Validity and reliability. In *Research methods in education*. London, England Routledge.
- Consent is Sexy. (2011). Want consent is sexy for your college or university? Retrieved from <http://www.consentissexy.net/>
- Crowe, L. C., & George, W. H. (1989). Alcohol and human sexuality: review and integration. *Psychological bulletin*, 105(3), 374. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.105.3.374
- Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of consulting psychology*, 24(4), 349. doi:10.1037/h0047358

- Curtis, J. N., & Burnett, S. (2017). Affirmative Consent: What Do College Student Leaders Think About “Yes Means Yes” as the Standard for Sexual Behavior? *American Journal of Sexuality Education*, 12(3), 201-214.
doi:10.1080/15546128.2017.1328322
- Daniels, E. A. (2009). Sex objects, athletes, and sexy athletes: How media representations of women athletes can impact adolescent girls and college women. *Journal of adolescent research*, 24(4), 399-422.
doi:10.1177/0743558409336748
- Darley, J. M., & Latané, B. (1968). Bystander intervention in emergencies: Diffusion of responsibility. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 8(4), 377-383.
doi:10.1037/h0025589
- Davis, K. C., Norris, J., George, W. H., Martell, J., & Heiman, J. R. (2006). Rape-myth congruent beliefs in women resulting from exposure to violent pornography: Effects of alcohol and sexual arousal. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 21(9), 1208-1223. doi:10.1177/0886260506290428
- Diego, D., Bertolote, J., & Lester, D. (2002). *World report on violence and health*. Retrieved from Geneva:
http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/42495/1/9241545615_eng.pdf
- Dovidio, J. F., Gaertner, S. L., Validzic, A., Matoka, K., Johnson, B., & Frazier, S. (1997). Extending the benefits of recategorization: Evaluations, self-disclosure, and helping. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 33(4), 401-420.
doi:10.1006/jesp.1997.1327
- Durham University. (2018). Sexual violence & misconduct: prevention and response. Retrieved from <https://www.dur.ac.uk/sexualviolence/education/>

- Ellis, P. D. (2010). *The essential guide to effect sizes: Statistical power, meta-analysis, and the interpretation of research results*: Cambridge University Press.
- Exner, D., & Cummings, N. (2011). Implications for sexual assault prevention: College students as prosocial bystanders. *Journal of American College Health*, 59(7), 655-657. doi:10.1080/07448481.2010.515633
- Fabiano, P. M., Perkins, H. W., Berkowitz, A., Linkenbach, J., & Stark, C. (2003). Engaging men as social justice allies in ending violence against women: Evidence for a social norms approach. *Journal of American College Health*, 52(3), 105-112. doi:10.1080/07448480309595732
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G* Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior research methods*, 39(2), 175-191. doi:10.3758/BF03193146
- Feldman, G., & Albarracín, D. (2017). Norm theory and the action-effect: The role of social norms in regret following action and inaction. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 69, 111-120. doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2016.07.009
- Feldman, R. S., & Rosen, F. P. (1978). Diffusion of responsibility in crime, punishment, and other adversity. *Law and Human Behavior*, 2(4), 313-322. doi:10.1007/BF01038984
- Fenton, R., Mott, H. L., McCartan, K., & Rumney, P. (2014). The intervention initiative. Retrieved from <http://www1.uwe.ac.uk/bl/research/InterventionInitiative>
- Fenton, S. (2016). The scheme has been praised for highlighting problems people can face with upsetting or unsafe dates. *Independent* Retrieved from

<https://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/home-news/code-word-campaign-bad-dates-alert-bar-staff-a7371171.html>

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS 3 edition* Sage. California: Thousand Oaks.

Fischer, D. G., & Fick, C. (1993). Measuring social desirability: Short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53(2), 417-424. doi:10.1177/0013164493053002011

Fischer, P., Greitemeyer, T., Pollozek, F., & Frey, D. (2006). The unresponsive bystander: Are bystanders more responsive in dangerous emergencies? *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36(2), 267-278. doi:10.1002/ejsp.297

Fischer, P., Krueger, J. I., Greitemeyer, T., Vogrincic, C., Kastenmüller, A., Frey, D., . . . Kainbacher, M. (2011). The bystander-effect: A meta-analytic review on bystander intervention in dangerous and non-dangerous emergencies. *Psychological bulletin*, 137(4), 517. doi:10.1037/a0023304

Fisher, B. S., Cullen, F. T., & Turner, M. G. (2000). *The sexual victimization of college women* (NCJ-182369). Retrieved from Washington: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED449712.pdf>

Flatley, J. (2018). *Sexual offences in England and Wales: Year ending March 2017*. Retrieved from <https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/crimeandjustice/articles/sexualoffencesinenglandandwales/yearendingmarch2017>

Fleming, W. M., & Wiersma-Mosley, J. D. (2015). The role of alcohol consumption patterns and pro-social bystander interventions in contexts of gender violence. *Violence against women*, 21(10), 1259-1283. doi:10.1177/1077801215592721

- Foubert, J. D. (2013). Integrating religiosity and pornography use into the prediction of bystander efficacy and willingness to prevent sexual assault. *Journal of Psychology and Theology*, 41(3), 242-251. doi:10.1177/009164711304100306
- Foubert, J. D., Brosi, M. W., & Bannon, R. S. (2011). Pornography viewing among fraternity men: Effects on bystander intervention, rape myth acceptance and behavioral intent to commit sexual assault. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 18(4), 212-231. doi:10.1080/10720162.2011.625552
- Fylan, F. (2005). Semi-structured interviewing. In P. G. J. Miles. (Ed.), *A handbook of research methods for clinical and health psychology* (pp. 65-78). Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Gagnon, J. H., & Simon, W. (2017). *Sexual conduct: The social sources of human sexuality*: Routledge.
- García-Moreno, C., Jansen, H., Ellsberg, M., Heise, L., & Watts, C. (2005). *WHO multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence against women* Geneva, Switzerland Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/publications/violence/24159358X/en/>.
- Gini, G. (2006). Bullying as a social process: The role of group membership in students' perception of inter-group aggression at school. *Journal of school psychology*, 44(1), 51-65. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2005.12.002
- Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure. *Psychological assessment*, 4(1), 26. doi:10.1037/1040-3590.4.1.26
- Gourlay, A., Mshana, G., Birdthistle, I., Bulugu, G., Zaba, B., & Urassa, M. (2014). Using vignettes in qualitative research to explore barriers and facilitating factors to the uptake of prevention of mother-to-child transmission services in rural

- Tanzania: a critical analysis. *BMC medical research methodology*, 14(1), 21.
doi:10.1186/1471-2288-14-21
- GOV.UK. (2004). Rape and Sexual Offences: Chapter 2: Sexual Offences Act 2003 - Principal Offences, and Sexual Offences Act 1956 - Most commonly charged offences. Retrieved from
http://www.cps.gov.uk/legal/p_to_r/rape_and_sexual_offences/soa_2003_and_soa_1956/#a11
- GOV.UK. (n.d.). Alcohol and young people Retrieved from
<https://www.gov.uk/alcohol-young-people-law>
- Graves, A., Hand, C., & Hugill, A. (1999). MidiVisualiser: interactive music visualisation using VRML. *Organised Sound*, 4(1), 15-23.
doi:10.1017/S135577189900103X
- Graziano, W., & Eisenberg, N. (1994). Agreeableness and altruism. In S. Briggs, R. Hogan, & W. Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of personality*. New York: Academic Press
- Green Dot. (2016). Green Dot Campaign. Retrieved from
<https://www.livethegreendot.com>
- Greitemeyer, T., & Mügge, D. O. (2015). When bystanders increase rather than decrease intentions to help. *Social Psychology*, 46(2), 116-119.
doi:10.1027/1864-9335/a000215
- Grimm, P. (2010). Social desirability bias. In *Wiley international encyclopedia of marketing*.
- Group, T. V. S. V. P. (2015). #ConsentIsEverything. Retrieved from
<http://www.consentiseverything.com/>

- Haney, C., Banks, C., & Zimbardo, P. (1972). *Interpersonal dynamics in a simulated prison*. Retrieved from
- Harari, H., Harari, O., & White, R. V. (1985). The reaction to rape by American male bystanders. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 125(5), 653-658.
doi:10.1080/00224545.1985.9712039
- Hayes, R. M., Lorenz, K., & Bell, K. A. (2013). Victim blaming others: Rape myth acceptance and the just world belief. *Feminist Criminology*, 8(3), 202-220.
doi:10.1177/1557085113484788
- Hefling, K. (2014). Justice department: Majority of campus sexual assault goes unreported to police. *PBS News Hour* Retrieved from
<https://www.pbs.org/newshour/education/four-five-acts-campus-sexual-assault-go-unreported-police>
- Hersch, E. L. (2003). *From philosophy to psychotherapy: A phenomenological model for psychology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press
- Hertzog, M. A. (2008). Considerations in determining sample size for pilot studies. *Research in nursing & health*, 31(2), 180-191. doi:10.1002/nur.20247
- Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is “enough” in internet survey research. *Interpersonal Computing and Technology: An electronic journal for the 21st century*, 6(3-4), 1-10.
- Hortensius, R., Neyret, S., Slater, M., & de Gelder, B. (2018). The relation between bystanders’ behavioral reactivity to distress and later helping behavior during a violent conflict in virtual reality. *PLoS one*, 13(4), 1-20.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0196074

- Hoxmeier, J. C., Acock, A. C., & Flay, B. R. (2017). Students as Prosocial Bystanders to Sexual Assault: Demographic Correlates of Intervention Norms, Intentions, and Missed Opportunities. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 1-24.
doi:10.1177/0886260517689888
- Hughes, R. (1998). Considering the vignette technique and its application to a study of drug injecting and HIV risk and safer behaviour. *Sociology of Health & Illness*, 20(3), 381-400. doi:10.1111/1467-9566.00107
- Hull, J. G., & Bond, C. F. (1986). Social and behavioral consequences of alcohol consumption and expectancy: a meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, 99(3), 347-360. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.99.3.347
- Humphreys, T. (2007). Perceptions of sexual consent: The impact of relationship history and gender. *Journal of Sex Research*, 44(4), 307-315.
doi:10.1080/00224490701586706
- Hurley, D., & Allen, B. P. (1974). The effect of the number of people present in a nonemergency situation. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 92(1), 27-29.
doi:10.1080/00224545.1974.9923068
- Hust, S. J., Lei, M., Ren, C., Chang, H., McNab, A. L., Marett, E. G., & Willoughby, J. F. (2013). The effects of sports media exposure on college students' rape myth beliefs and intentions to intervene in a sexual assault. *Mass Communication and Society*, 16(6), 762-786. doi:10.1080/15205436.2013.816737
- Hust, S. J., Marett, E. G., Lei, M., Ren, C., & Ran, W. (2015). Law & Order, CSI, and NCIS: The association between exposure to crime drama franchises, rape myth acceptance, and sexual consent negotiation among college students. *Journal of*

health communication, 20(12), 1369-1381.

doi:10.1080/10810730.2015.1018615

ipsos-mori. (2012). Four ways to get the truth out of respondents. Retrieved from
[https://www.ipsos.com/ipsos-mori/en-uk/emails/scotland/approach/autumn2012/SRI Scotland Newsletter Four ways to get the truth out of respondents.pdf](https://www.ipsos.com/ipsos-mori/en-uk/emails/scotland/approach/autumn2012/SRI%20Scotland%20Newsletter%20Four%20ways%20to%20get%20the%20truth%20out%20of%20respondents.pdf)

Isaac, S., & Michael, W. B. (1995). *Handbook in research and evaluation*. San Diego, CA: Educational and Industrial Testing Services

Jamison, J., Karlan, D., & Schechter, L. (2008). To deceive or not to deceive: The effect of deception on behavior in future laboratory experiments. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 68(3), 477-488. doi:10.1016/j.jebo.2008.09.002

Johanson, G. A., & Brooks, G. P. (2010). Initial scale development: sample size for pilot studies. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 70(3), 394-400. doi:10.1177/0013164409355692

Kania, R., & Cale, J. (2018). Preventing sexual violence through bystander intervention: attitudes, behaviors, missed opportunities, and barriers to intervention among Australian university students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 1-25. doi:10.1177/0886260518764395

Karjane, H. M., Fisher, B., & Cullen, F. T. (2005). *Sexual assault on campus: What colleges and universities are doing about it*. Retrieved from Washington, DC: <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/205521.pdf>

Katz, J. (2015). Effects of group status and victim sex on male bystanders' responses to a potential party rape. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 24(5), 588-602. doi:10.1080/10926771.2015.1029184

- 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(4), 523-529. doi:10.1002/jcop.21552
- Katz, J., Pazienza, R., Olin, R., & Rich, H. (2015). That's what friends are for: Bystander responses to friends or strangers at risk for party rape victimization. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 30(16), 2775-2792. doi:10.1177/0886260514554290
- Kilpatrick, D. G., Acierno, R., Saunders, B., Resnick, H. S., Best, C. L., & Schnurr, P. P. (2000). Risk factors for adolescent substance abuse and dependence: Data from a national sample. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 68(1), 19-30. doi:10.1037/0022-006X.68.1.19
- Kimble, M., Neacsiu, A. D., Flack, W. F., & Horner, J. (2008). Risk of unwanted sex for college women: Evidence for a red zone. *Journal of American College Health*, 57(3), 331-338. doi:10.3200/JACH.57.3.331-338
- King, N. (2004). Using templates in the thematic analysis of context. In C. Cassell & G. Symon (Eds.), *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research* (London, UK: Sage.
- 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(3), 227-235. doi:10.1037/a0037393.
- Knifsend, C. A., & Juvonen, J. (2013). The role of social identity complexity in inter-group attitudes among young adolescents. *Social Development*, 22(3), 623-640. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9507.2012.00672.x

- Koelsch, L. E., Brown, A. L., & Boisen, L. (2012). Bystander Perceptions: Implications for University Sexual Assault Prevention Programs. *Violence and Victims*, 27(4), 563-579. doi:10.1891/0886-6708.27.4.563
- Koss, M. P., & Dinero, T. E. (1989). Discriminant analysis of risk factors for sexual victimization among a national sample of college women. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 57(2), 242-250. doi:10.1037/0022-006X.57.2.242
- Kruger, D. J. (2003). Integrating quantitative and qualitative methods in community research. *The Community Psychologist*, 36(2), 18-19.
- Labhardt, D., Holdsworth, E., Brown, S., & Howat, D. (2017). You see but you do not observe: A review of bystander intervention and sexual assault on university campuses. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 35, 13-25.
doi:10.1016/j.avb.2017.05.005
- Lanier, C. A., & Elliot, M. N. (1997). A new instrument for the evaluation of a date rape prevention program. *Journal of College Student Development*.
- Lanier, C. A., & Green, B. A. (2006). Principal Component Analysis of the College Date Rape Attitude Survey (CDRAS) An Instrument for the Evaluation of Date Rape Prevention Programs. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 13(2), 79-93. doi:10.1300/J146v13n02_06
- LaPiere, R. T. (1934). Attitudes vs. actions. *Social forces*, 13(2), 230-237.
doi:10.2307/2570339
- Latané, B., & Darley, J. M. (1968). Group inhibition of bystander intervention in emergencies. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 10(3), 215-221.
doi:10.1037/h0026570

- Latané, B., & Darley, J. M. (1970). *The unresponsive bystander: Why doesn't he help?* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Latané, B., & Elman, D. (1970). The hand in the till. In B. L. J. M. Darley (Ed.), *The unresponsive bystander: Why doesn't he help?* New York, NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Latané, B., & Nida, S. (1981). Ten years of research on group size and helping. *Psychological bulletin*, 89(2), 308-324. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.89.2.308
- Latané, B., & Rodin, J. (1969). A lady in distress: Inhibiting effects of friends and strangers on bystander intervention. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 5(2), 189-202. doi:10.1016/0022-1031(69)90046-8
- Levine, M., Cassidy, C., Brazier, G., & Reicher, S. (2002). Self-Categorization and Bystander Non-intervention: Two Experimental Studies 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32(7), 1452-1463. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2002.tb01446.x
- Levine, M., & Crowther, S. (2008). The responsive bystander: How social group membership and group size can encourage as well as inhibit bystander intervention. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 95(6), 1429-1439. doi:10.1037/a0012634
- Levine, M., & Manning, R. (2013). Social identity, group processes, and helping in emergencies. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 24(1), 225-251. doi:10.1080/10463283.2014.892318
- Levine, M., Prosser, A., Evans, D., & Reicher, S. (2005). Identity and emergency intervention: How social group membership and inclusiveness of group boundaries shape helping behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31(4), 443-453. doi:10.1177/0146167204271651

- Lomax, R. G., & Schumacker, R. E. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. New Jersey Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Lonsway, K. A. (1996). Preventing acquaintance rape through education what do we know. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 20(2), 229-265. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.1996.tb00469.x
- Lorenz, K., & Ullman, S. E. (2016). Alcohol and sexual assault victimization: Research findings and future directions. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 31, 82-94. doi:10.1016/j.avb.2016.08.001
- Martin, S. L., Fisher, B. S., Warner, T. D., Krebs, C. P., & Lindquist, C. H. (2011). Women's sexual orientations and their experiences of sexual assault before and during university. *Women's Health Issues*, 21(3), 199-205. doi:10.1016/j.whi.2010.12.002
- McDermott, R. C., Kilmartin, C., McKelvey, D. K., & Kridel, M. M. (2015). College male sexual assault of women and the psychology of men: Past, present, and future directions for research. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 16(4), 355-366. doi:10.1037/a0039544
- McKeganey, N., Abel, M., Taylor, A., Frischer, M., Goldberg, D., & Green, S. (1995). The preparedness to share injecting equipment: an analysis using vignettes. *Addiction*, 90(9), 1253-1260. doi:10.1046/j.1360-0443.1995.90912539.x
- McLeod, J. (2001). *Qualitative research in counselling and psychotherapy*. London: Sage
- McMahon, S. (2010). Rape myth beliefs and bystander attitudes among incoming college students. *Journal of American College Health*, 59(1), 3-11. doi:10.1080/07448481.2010.483715

- 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(1), 58-66.
doi:10.1080/07448481.2013.849258
- McMahon, S., Banyard, V. L., & McMahon, S. M. (2015). Incoming college students' bystander behaviors to prevent sexual violence. *Journal of College Student Development*, 56(5), 488-493. doi:10.1353/csd.2015.0050
- McMahon, S., & Farmer, G. L. (2009). The bystander approach: Strengths-based sexual assault prevention with at-risk groups. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, 19(8), 1042-1065. doi:10.1080/10911350902990304
- Merry, S. (2016). Kitty Genovese murder: The real story of the woman killed 'in front of 38 witnesses' in Queens in 1964. *Independent*. Retrieved from <https://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/americas/kitty-genovese-murder-the-real-story-of-the-woman-killed-in-front-of-38-witnesses-in-queens-in-1964-a7118876.html>
- Metoomvmt. (n.d.). Me Too. Retrieved from <https://metoomvmt.org/>
- Milgram, S. (1963). Behavioral study of obedience. *The Journal of abnormal and social psychology*, 67(4), 371-378. doi:10.1037/h0040525
- Ministry of Justice. (2013). *An Overview of Sexual Offending in England and Wales*. Retrieved from UK
- Mischel, W. (1996). *Personality and Assessment* New York: Erlbaum.
- Monks, S. M., Tomaka, J., Palacios, R., & Thompson, S. E. (2010). Sexual victimization in female and male college students: Examining the roles of

- alcohol use, alcohol expectancies, and sexual sensation seeking. *Substance Use & Misuse*, 45(13), 2258-2280. doi:10.3109/10826081003694854
- Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing research*, 40(2), 120-123. doi:10.1097/00006199-199103000-00014
- Moschella, E. A., Bennett, S., & Banyard, V. L. (2016). Beyond the situational model: bystander action consequences to intervening in situations involving sexual violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 1-21. doi:10.1177/0886260516635319
- Moscovici, S., Heinz, G., & Sherrard, C. A. (1976). *Social influence and social change*. London: Academic Press for the European Association of Experimental Social Psychology.
- Mullin, B.-A., & Hogg, M. A. (1999). Motivations for group membership: The role of subjective importance and uncertainty reduction. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 21(2), 91-102. doi:10.1207/S15324834BA210202
- National Union of Students. (2010). *Hidden marks: A study of women students' experiences of harassment, stalking, violence and sexual assault*. Retrieved from United Kingdom: https://www.nus.org.uk/Global/NUS_hidden_marks_report_2nd_edition_web.pdf
- National Union of Students. (2011). *Hidden marks: A study of women students' experiences of harassment, stalking, violence and sexual assault*. Retrieved from
- National Union of Students. (2015). *Talk about it: NUS women's department 2015 survey*. Retrieved from Australia:

https://d3n8a8pro7vhm.cloudfront.net/nus/pages/144/attachments/original/1454369041/Talk_about_it_Survey_Report.pdf?1454369041

- Nicksa, S. C. (2014). Bystander's willingness to report theft, physical assault, and sexual assault: The impact of gender, anonymity, and relationship with the offender. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 29(2), 217-236.
doi:10.1177/0886260513505146
- Norris, J., Davis, K. C., George, W. H., Martell, J., & Heiman, J. R. (2004). Victim's response and alcohol-related factors as determinants of women's responses to violent pornography. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 28(1), 59-69.
doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.2004.00123.x
- Norris, J., Nurius, P. S., & Dimeff, L. A. (1996). Through her eyes: Factors affecting women's perception of and resistance to acquaintance sexual aggression threat. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 20(1), 123-145. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.1996.tb00668.x
- Oldmeadow, J. A., Collett, G., & Little, C. (2008). Bridging the gap: The role of shared group membership in status generalization. *Current Research in Social Psychology*, 13(17), 199-218.
- Orange, D. M. (1995). *Emotional understanding: Studies in psychoanalytic epistemology*. New York: Guilford Press
- Pallant, J. (2010). *SPSS Survival Manual 4th edition: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS* Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Payne, D. L., Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1999). Rape Myth Acceptance: Exploration of Its Structure and Its Measurement Using the Illinois Rape Myth

- Acceptance Scale. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 33(1), 27-68.
doi:10.1006/jrpe.1998.2238
- Penner, L. A. (2002). Dispositional and organizational influences on sustained volunteerism: An interactionist perspective. *Journal of social issues*, 58(3), 447-467. doi:10.1111/1540-4560.00270
- Penner, L. A., Fritzsche, B. A., Craiger, J. P., & Freifeld, T. R. (1995). Measuring the prosocial personality. In J. B. C. D. Spielberger (Ed.), *Advances in personality assessment* (Vol. 10, pp. 147-163). Hillsdale, NJ: LEA.
- Pexels. (n.d.). Pixaby. Retrieved from <https://www.pexels.com/photo/animal-beach-coast-coastline-414105/>
- Plano Clark, V. L. (2017). Mixed methods research. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 12(3), 305-306. doi:10.1080/17439760.2016.1262619
- Planty, M. (2002). *Third-party involvement in violent crime, 1993-99*: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Potter, J., & Wetherell, M. (1987). *Discourse and social psychology: Beyond attitudes and behaviour* London: Sage
- Potter, S., Edwards, K., Banyard, V., Stapleton, J., Demers, J., & Moynihan, M. (2016). Conveying campus sexual misconduct policy information to college and university students: Results from a 7-campus study. *Journal of American College Health*, 64(6), 438-447. doi:10.1080/07448481.2016.1178122
- Potter, S. J., Stapleton, J. G., & Moynihan, M. M. (2008). Designing, implementing, and evaluating a media campaign illustrating the bystander role. *Journal of prevention & intervention in the community*, 36(1-2), 39-55.
doi:10.1080/10852350802022308

QSRInternational. (n.d.). NVIVO. Retrieved from

<http://www.qsrinternational.com/nvivo/what-is-nvivo>

Queensland Police. (2012). Alcohol, drugs, & the law for young people. Retrieved from

https://www.police.qld.gov.au/programs/cscp/visitors/Documents/ADL_Young_Booklet.pdf

RAINN. (2018a). Scope of the problem: Statistics. Retrieved from

<https://www.rainn.org/statistics/scope-problem>

RAINN. (2018b). Sexual Assault Retrieved from [https://www.rainn.org/articles/sexual-](https://www.rainn.org/articles/sexual-assault)

[assault](https://www.rainn.org/articles/sexual-assault)

Riva, G., Botella, C., Baños, R., Mantovani, F., García-Palacios, A., Quero, S., . . .

Dakanalis, A. (2015). Presence-inducing media for mental health applications.

In *Immersed in media* (pp. 283-332): Springer.

Robinson, O. C. (2014). Sampling in interview-based qualitative research: A theoretical and practical guide. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 11(1), 25-41.

doi:10.1080/14780887.2013.801543

Robinson, O. C., & Smith, J. A. (2010). Investigating the form and dynamics of crisis episodes in early adulthood: The application of a composite qualitative method.

Qualitative Research in Psychology, 7(2), 170-191.

doi:10.1080/14780880802699084

Robson, C. (2011). *Real world research* (Third ed.). United Kingdom: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Ross, D., Lathouras, T., Riddell, J., Buchanan, A., & Puccio, V. (2017). Exploring the value of immersive technologies and authentic scenarios to engage students in

- anti-oppressive praxis. *Advances in Social Work and Welfare Education*, 19(2), 76-92.
- Sabina, C., Wolak, J., & Finkelhor, D. (2008). The nature and dynamics of Internet pornography exposure for youth. *CyberPsychology & Behavior*, 11(6), 691-693. doi:10.1089/cpb.2007.0179
- Sable, M. R., Danis, F., Mauzy, D. L., & Gallagher, S. K. (2006). Barriers to reporting sexual assault for women and men: Perspectives of college students. *Journal of American College Health*, 55(3), 157-162. doi:10.3200/Jach.55.3.157-162
- Sage Publications. (n.d.). Technology and media in everyday life Retrieved from https://us.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/59344_Chapter_13.pdf
- Schwartz, S. H., & Gottlieb, A. (1980). Participation in a bystander intervention experiment and subsequent everyday helping: Ethical considerations. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 16(2), 161-171. doi:10.1016/0022-1031(80)90006-2
- Scott-Parker, B., De Regt, T., Jones, C., & Caldwell, J. (2018). The situation awareness of young drivers, middle-aged drivers, and older drivers: Same but different? *Case Studies on Transport Policy*. doi:10.1016/j.cstp.2018.07.004
- Scott-Parker, B., Wilks, L., & Huang, B. (2018). Situation Awareness Fast-Tracking, Including Identifying Escape Routes (SAFER): Evaluation of the Impact of SAFER on Learner Driver Situation Awareness Skills. *Transportation Research Record*, 0361198118759950. doi:10.1177/0361198118759950
- Senn, C. Y., & Forrest, A. (2016). "And then one night when I went to class...": The impact of sexual assault bystander intervention workshops incorporated in academic courses. *Psychology of violence*, 6(4), 607-618. doi:10.1037/a0039660

Shotland, R. L., & Stebbins, C. A. (1980). Bystander Response to Rape: Can A Victim Attract Help? 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 10(6), 510-527.

doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.1980.tb00729.x

Silverman, J. (2015, 26 February). 'Pics or it didn't happen' - the mantra of the

Instagram era. *The Guardian* Retrieved from

<https://www.theguardian.com/news/2015/feb/26/pics-or-it-didnt-happen-mantra-instagram-era-facebook-twitter>

Simons, D. J., & Chabris, C. F. (1999). Gorillas in our midst: Sustained inattention blindness for dynamic events. *perception*, 28(9), 1059-1074.

doi:10.1068/p281059

Smith, J. A. (2015). Introduction. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp. 1-3). London: Sage Publications

Smith, J. A., & Osborn, M. (2015). Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative Psychology: A Practical Guide to Research Methods* (pp. 25-52). London: Sage Publications.

Söchting, I., Fairbrother, N., & Koch, W. J. (2004). Sexual assault of women:

Prevention efforts and risk factors. *Violence against women*, 10(1), 73-93.

doi:10.1177/1077801203255680

Sofaer, S. (1999). Qualitative methods: what are they and why use them? *Health services research*, 34(5 Pt 2), 1101.

Sorenson, S. B., Joshi, M., & Sivitz, E. (2014). Knowing a sexual assault victim or perpetrator: a stratified random sample of undergraduates at one university. *J Interpers Violence*, 29(3), 394-416. doi:10.1177/0886260513505206

- Strahan, R., & Gerbasi, K. C. (1972). Short, homogeneous versions of the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of clinical psychology*, 28(2), 191-193. doi:10.1002/1097-4679
- Sullivan, G. M., & Feinn, R. (2012). Using effect size—or why the P value is not enough. *Journal of graduate medical education*, 4(3), 279-282. doi:10.4300/JGME-D-12-00156.1
- Susi, T., Johannesson, M., & Backlund, P. (2007). *Serious games: An overview* (HS-IKI-TR-07-001). Retrieved from
- Sutherland, K., & Ward, A. (2018). Immersive simulation as a public relations pedagogical tool. *Asia Pacific Public Relations Journal*, 19, 66-82.
- Szalavitz, M. (2016). The power of placebo: Is it alcohol - or is it partly in your head? . *Student Health* 101
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics*: Allyn & Bacon/Pearson Education.
- Tai, M. C.-T. (2012). Deception and informed consent in social, behavioral, and educational research (SBER). *Tzu Chi Medical Journal*, 24(4), 218-222. doi:10.1016/j.tcmj.2012.05.003
- Tajfel, H., Billig, M. G., Bundy, R. P., & Flament, C. (1971). Social Categorization and Intergroup Behavior. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 1(2), 149-177. doi:10.1002/ejsp.2420010202
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (Vol. 33, pp. 74).
- The Selfie Station. (2015). The Selfie Station. Retrieved from <https://www.theselfiestation.com.au/>

- Towl, G. (2016). Tackling sexual violence at UK universities: a case study. *Contemporary Social Science*, 11(4), 432-437.
doi:10.1080/21582041.2016.1260764
- Tyler, K. A., Schmitz, R. M., & Adams, S. A. (2017). Alcohol expectancy, drinking behavior, and sexual victimization among female and male college students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 32(15), 2298-2322.
doi:10.1177/0886260515591280
- Ullman, S. E., & Brecklin, L. R. (2002). Sexual assault history and suicidal behavior in a national sample of women. *Suicide and Life-Threatening Behavior*, 32(2), 117-130.
- Universities UK. (2016). *Changing the culture: Report of the Universities UK Taskforce examining violence against women, harassment and hate crime affecting university students*. Retrieved from London:
<https://www.universitiesuk.ac.uk/policy-and-analysis/reports/Pages/changing-the-culture-final-report.aspx>
- University of Cambridge. (2018). Breaking the silence - preventing harassment and sexual misconduct. Retrieved from
<https://www.breakingthesilence.cam.ac.uk/prevention-support/be-active-bystander>
- van Belle, G. (2002). *Statistical rules of thumb*. New York: John Wiley
- Warner, L. G., & DeFleur, M. L. (1969). Attitude as an interactional concept: Social constraint and social distance as intervening variables between attitudes and action. *American Sociological Review*, 34(2), 153-169. doi:10.2307/2092174

- WHO. (2009). *Guidelines for medico-legal care for victims of sexual violence*. Retrieved from Geneva:
- WhoAreYou. (n.d.). Who Are You? Retrieved from <http://www.whoareyou.co.nz/>
- Wiederman, M. W. (2005). The gendered nature of sexual scripts. *The Family Journal*, 13(4), 496-502. doi:10.1177/1066480705278729
- Wiggins, S. (2009). Discourse analysis. In H. T. R. S. Sprecher (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Human Relations* (pp. 427-430). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Wiggins, S. (2017). *Discursive psychology: Theory, method and applications*. Los Angeles: Sage
- Williams, S. (2014). Campus nightmare: Female students on the rise of sexual harassment. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/education/2014/oct/11/campus-nightmare-female-students-rise-sexual-harassment>
- Willig, C. (2015). Discourse analysis. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp. 143-167). London: Sage Publisher.
- World Health Organization. (2002). *Sexual violence* Retrieved from
- World Health Organization. (2013). *Global and regional estimates of violence against women: Prevalence and health effects of intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence* Geneva, Switzerland Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/publications/violence/9789241564625/en/>.
- Yurdugül, H. (2008). Minimum sample size for Cronbach's coefficient alpha: a Monte-Carlo study. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi eğitim fakültesi dergisi*, 35(35), 1-9.

Zdaniuk, B., & Levine, J. M. (2001). Group loyalty: Impact of members' identification and contributions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 37(6), 502-509.
doi:10.1006/jesp.2000.1474

Appendices

Appendix 1: Published Systematic Review from Chapter Two

This article has been removed due to third party copyright.

Appendix 2: Participant Information Sheet for Study One (Chapter Four)

Participant Information Sheet

Study title:

University students' perceptions of sexual assault: Perceived factors increasing or decreasing likelihood of intervening

What is the purpose of this study?

Sexual assault is a growing problem on university campuses. The aim of this study is to gain an insight into university students' perceptions of the context of sexual assault, the consequences associated with it, and what factors increase or decrease the likelihood of bystander intervention (helping behaviour). The data collected will be used to develop a method to reduce the prevalence rates of sexual assault on campuses.

Why have I been approached?

For the purpose of this study I need to recruit students over the age of 18 who are currently attending university.

Do I have to take part?

No. Participation is entirely voluntary. You can withdraw from the study at any point during the study and at any point up to 2 weeks after completing the study. *To withdraw, please contact me by email with your participant ID number stating that you wish to withdraw from the study.* All data is anonymous and you will not be identifiable in any way. There will be no negative consequences for withdrawing from the study.

What do I have to do to take part?

You will be asked to partake in a one-to-one semi-structured interview in an agreed upon location at USC. The interview will take no more than one hour to complete. You will be asked a series of open ended questions on your views regarding sexual assault, the consequences associated with it, and what factors would influence or inhibit bystander intervention (helping behaviour). The interview will be recorded and the data will be transcribed. All information will be anonymised; no personally identifiable information will be linked to your interview.

Will I be recorded and how will the recorded media be used?

Yes. You will be audio recorded throughout the interview. The audio recording will be transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis. There is a possibility the data will be published, but there will be no information provided that will link back to you.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

The interview will be conducted by a female researcher. The topic of the interview will focus on sexual assault on university campuses. Due to the sensitive nature of the interview, it is recommended that if you find the topic disturbing, if it will make you uncomfortable, or if it could trigger a negative reaction, you are advised not to take part. You may withdraw from the study at any time before, during, or after the study. There will be no consequences for withdrawing from the study. If you choose to withdraw, your data will be destroyed and will not be included in the study.

Should you feel that you are in need of support after taking part in the study there are a number of support services you can contact (e.g., USC Student Wellbeing, Lifeline, Laurel Place, or Living Well). The number for the support services will be provided in the debrief form that you will receive at the end of the study.

What if something goes wrong?

If the session has to be cancelled I will attempt to inform you as soon as possible. If you change your mind about taking part in the study you can withdraw at any point during the session and at any time up until 2 weeks after completing the study.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes. Only my supervisors and I will have access to the raw data. All consent forms will be stored in a separate, locked location from the raw data itself. You will NOT be identifiable from the questionnaires or any data subsets. Audio recorded data will be destroyed once the data has been transcribed. Consent forms will be destroyed according to University regulations.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results will be written up as part of my PhD project. There is a possibility that the research will be published in an academic journal upon completion. However, there will be no identifiable information that can link back to you.

Who is organising funding of this research?

No funding is associated with this research.

Who has reviewed this study?

The study has been reviewed by my supervisors, by the Coventry University Ethics Board, and the USC Human Research Ethics Committee.

Contact for Further Information

Danielle Labhardt, Researcher

dlabhard@usc.edu.au

OR for independent contact and information:

Nadine McKillop, Research Supervisor

nmckillo@usc.edu.au

Appendix 3: Participant Information Sheet for Study Three (Chapter Six)

Participant Information Sheet

Study title:

The influence of university culture and the effect it has on university students' social interactions within a party environment.

What is the purpose of this study?

University parties are often seen as a way of life. The first few months in particular are filled with numerous opportunities to attend parties to meet new people and make new friends. The aim of this study is to determine how effective the use of spaces like the Immerse studio is, in hosting campus based social activities, like parties.

Why have I been approached?

For the purpose of this study I need to recruit students between the ages of 18-25 who are currently attending university.

Do I have to take part?

No. Participation is entirely voluntary. You can withdraw from the study at any point during the study and at any point up to 2 weeks after completing the study. *To withdraw, please contact me by email with your participant ID number stating that you wish to withdraw from the study.* All data is confidential. There will be no negative consequences for withdrawing from the study.

What do I have to do to take part?

You will be asked to enter the Immerse Studio, which is in Building E at USC Sippy Downs. The environment will reflect a typical university party that you might attend. You will be joined by up to another 15 participants. We want you to immerse yourself in this environment and act as you would normally do at a party by engaging with, and getting to know, the other people in the room. Upon completion of the study, there will be a follow up interview based on your experience within the Immerse Studio. You will be recorded, and the data will be coded and transcribed. All identifiable information will be kept confidential.

Will I be recorded and how will the recorded media be used?

Yes, events taking place in the Immerse Studio are video recorded. The data will be coded and analysed. There is a possibility the data will be published, but there will be no information provided that will link back to you.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

We do not perceive there to be significant risks for partaking in this study. However, it is important to know that given that it is a party atmosphere you will be in an enclosed space, with dim lights, music, and party lighting. If you feel uncomfortable at any time, you may withdraw from the study at any time before, during, or after the study. There will be no consequences for withdrawing from the study. If you choose to withdraw, your individual data will be destroyed and will not be included in the study.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

Should you wish to participate in this research, you will be offered a \$20 shopping voucher.

What if something goes wrong?

If the session has to be cancelled I will attempt to inform you as soon as possible. If you change your mind about taking part in the study, you can withdraw at any point during the session and at any time up until 2 weeks after completing the study.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Only the research team and I will have access to the raw data. All consent forms will be stored in a separate, locked location from the raw data itself. You will NOT be identifiable from the questionnaires or any data subsets. Recorded data will be destroyed once the data has been analysed. Consent forms will be destroyed according to University regulations. However, as this is a social, group experiment, you will be attending the party with other participants who you may or may not know and they may be aware of your actions within the party.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results will be written up as part of a PhD project. There is a possibility that the research will be published in an academic journal upon completion. However, there will be no identifiable information that can link back to you.

Who is organising funding of this research?

No funding is associated with this research.

Who has reviewed this study?

The study has been reviewed by my supervisors, by the Coventry University Ethics Board in the UK, and the USC Human Research Ethics Committee.

Contact for Further Information

Christian Jones, Researcher

cmjones@usc.edu.au

Appendix 4: Consent Form for Study One (Chapter Four)

Informed Consent Form

Information about the project:

The aim of this study is to identify university students' perceptions of sexual assault, the negative consequences of sexual assault, and what factors increase or decrease bystander intervention (helping behaviour).

Please Tick

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. I confirm that I have read and understood the participant information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. I agree to being audio recorded during the interview. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I understand that if I withdraw from the study by the date noted, that all data associated with the study will be destroyed and will not be included in the study. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I understand that all the information I provide will be treated in confidence. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. I understand that I also have the right to change my mind about participating in the study up until <u>15 December 2016</u> . | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. I agree to take part in the research project. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Participant ID number:

Signature of participant:

Date: _____

Appendix 5: Online Questionnaire for Study Two including Information, Consent, and Debrief (Chapter Five)

Study 2: The influence of situational and contextual factors influencing helping behaviour involving

Start of Block: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Study title:

The influence of situational and contextual factors on helping behaviours after witnessing a sexual assault.

What is the purpose of this study?

The purpose of this study is to determine how contextual information surrounding a party scenario on university campus influences a participant's likelihood of intervening. The data collected will be used to develop a method to reduce the prevalence rates of sexual assault on campuses.

Why have I been approached?

For the purpose of this study I need to recruit university students over the age of 18.

Do I have to take part?

No. Participation is entirely voluntary. You can withdraw from the study at any point during the study and at any point up to 2 weeks after completing the study. *To withdraw, please contact me by email with your participant ID number stating that you wish to withdraw from the study.* All data is anonymous and you will not be identifiable in any way. There will be no negative consequences for withdrawing from the study.

What do I have to do to take part?

You will be asked to read a vignette depicting a possible sexual assault scenario and then answer some questions after you have read the scenario. It should take no longer than 30 minutes to complete

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no significant risks or disadvantages that can occur from partaking in this study. However, the vignettes are about a sexual assault. If you think you may find it in any way disturbing to read the vignettes, you are advised not to take part. You may withdraw from the study at any time before, during, or after the study. There will be no consequences for withdrawing from the study. If you choose to withdraw, your questionnaire will be destroyed and will not be included in the study. Should you feel that you are in need of support after taking part in the study you can contact the Coventry University Welfare Services or CRASAC. The number for the support services will be provided in the debrief form that you will receive at the end of the study.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

There are still gaps within the literature about what and how factors influence bystander intervention. By taking part in the study and providing accurate information, you will be making a very important contribution to fill the gaps in knowledge. Should you wish to participate in this research, you will be eligible to enter into a prize draw to win 1 of 2 £25 shopping vouchers. Entry into this draw will be completed separately to the survey. Should you indicate your willingness to enter the draw you will be directed to a separate link to provide your contact details. Your contact information cannot be linked to your survey responses. Additionally, if you are an HLS student you will be eligible for 40 SONA research credits. **What if something goes wrong?**

If the session has to be cancelled I will attempt to inform you as soon as possible. If you change your mind about taking part in the study you can withdraw at any point during the session and at any time up until 2 weeks after completing the study.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes. Only my supervisors and I will have access to the raw data. All consent forms will be stored in a separate, locked location from the raw data itself. You will NOT be identifiable from the questionnaires or any data subsets. All questionnaires and consent forms will be destroyed according to University regulations.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results will be written up as part of my PhD project. There is a possibility that the research will be published in an academic journal upon completion. However, there will be no identifiable information that can link back to you.

Who is organising funding of this research?

No funding is associated with this research.

Who has reviewed this study?

The study has been reviewed by my supervisor and by the Coventry University Ethics Board.

Contact for Further Information

Danielle Labhardt, Researcher labharddd@uni.coventry.ac.uk OR for independent contact and information: Emma Holdsworth, Research Supervisor, Tutor aa7076@coventry.ac.uk

*****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page*****

End of Block: Participant Information Sheet

Start of Block: Informed Consent Question

Informed Consent Question

Information about the project: The aim of this study is to identify what university students perceive as factors that increase or decrease the likelihood of bystander intervention (helping behaviour) in a sexual assault. 1. I confirm that I have read and understood the participant information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. 2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason. 3. I understand that if I withdraw from the study by the date noted, that all data associated with the study will be destroyed and will not be included in the study. 4. I understand that all the information I provide will be treated in confidence. 5. I

understand that I also have the right to change my mind about participating in the study up until 2 weeks after completing the study 6. I agree to take part in the research project.

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

- ☐ I consent, begin the study (1)
- ☐ I do not consent, I do not wish to participate (2)

Skip To: End of Survey If Informed Consent Question Information about the project: The aim of this study is to... = I do not consent, I do not wish to participate

End of Block: Informed Consent Question

Start of Block: Research Participant ID Number for SONA

If you are an HLS student at Coventry University please enter in your SONA research participant ID number below. If you do not fall in this category please continue to the next question.

End of Block: Research Participant ID Number for SONA

Start of Block: Introduction to Vignette

Instructions Enclosed you will find a vignette depicting a party scenario. When reading the scenario, imagine that you are at the party enjoying yourself, take your time to really understand what is being depicted. Please use your imagination to try and visualise what is happening. Once you have read the vignette and moved onto the questions you will no longer be able to return to the vignette. There will be a series of follow up question about what was depicted in the vignette, so please ensure you take the time to understand the vignette. Thank you for your cooperation.

End of Block: Introduction to Vignette

Start of Block: Vignettes

Vignette 1

You went to a student party on your own, as none of your friends were able to make it. When you arrive you see that there is a lot of alcohol. While at the party you can't help but notice a girl that you've never met before, because she is very obviously flirting

with a guy, who you've also never met. As the night progresses you notice that while they both appear to be drinking a lot, the guy seems relatively sober, while the girl is getting increasingly drunk. She is stumbling and struggling to stand up. The guy becomes more physically intimate with the girl. He is touching her arm, whispering in her ear, and kissing her neck. The girl however, does not seem to be reciprocating. You see the girl trying to push him away, shaking her head no, and it looks like she is saying "no". Even so, you see the guy begin to lead her out of the room to what you suspect is a more private location.

Vignette 2

You went to a student party on your own, as none of your friends were able to make it. When you arrive you see that there is a lot of alcohol. While at the party you can't help but notice a girl that you've never met before, because she is very obviously flirting with a guy, who you've also never met. As the night progresses you notice that while they both appear to be drinking a lot, the guy seems to be able to handle his alcohol, while the girl is getting increasingly drunk. She is stumbling and struggling to stand up, while the guy is trying to support her. At the same time the guy is being quite physically intimate with her. He is touching her arm and kissing her neck. The girl however, does not seem to be reciprocating, but equally she is not rejecting him or pushing him away. You notice the guy whisper something in her ear and they then leave the room together, while the girl looks really out of it.

Vignette 3

You went to a student party on your own, as none of your friends were able to make it. When you arrive you see that there is a lot of alcohol. While at the party you can't help but notice a girl you know, because she is very obviously flirting with a guy, who you've never met. As the night progresses you notice that while they both appear to be drinking a lot, the guy seems relatively sober, while your friend is getting increasingly drunk. She is stumbling and struggling to stand up. The guy becomes more physically intimate with your friend. He is touching her arm, whispering in her ear, and kissing her neck. Your friend however, does not seem to be reciprocating. You see your friend trying to push him away, shaking her head no, and it looks like she is saying "no". Even so, you see the guy begin to lead your friend out of the room to what you suspect is a more private location.

Vignette 4

You went to a student party on your own, as none of your friends were able to make it. When you arrive you see that there is a lot of alcohol. While at the party you can't help but notice a girl you know, because she is very obviously flirting with a guy, who you've never met. As the night progresses you can't help but notice that every time you see your friend and the guy they have a drink in their hand. But you notice that while they both appear to be drinking a lot, the guy seems to be able to handle his alcohol, while your friend is getting increasingly drunk. She is stumbling and struggling to stand up, while the guy is trying to support her. At the same time the guy is being quite physically intimate with your friend. He is touching her arm and kissing her neck. Your friend however, does not seem to be reciprocating, but equally she is not rejecting or pushing him away. You notice the guy whisper something in her ear and they then leave the room together, while your friend looks really out of it.

Vignette 5

You are at a student party, talking with your two close friends. When you arrive you see that there is a lot of alcohol. While at the party you can't help but notice a girl behind your friends that you've never met before, because she is very obviously flirting with a guy, who you've also never met. As the night progresses you notice that while they both appear to be drinking a lot, the guy seems relatively sober, while the girl is getting increasingly drunk. She is stumbling and struggling to stand up. The guy becomes more physically intimate with the girl. He is touching her arm, whispering in her ear, and kissing her neck. The girl however, does not seem to be reciprocating. You see the girl trying to push him away, shaking her head no, and it looks like she is saying "no". Even so, you see the guy begin to lead her out of the room to what you suspect is a more private location.

Vignette 6

You are at a student party, talking with your two close friends. When you arrive you see that there is a lot of alcohol. While at the party you can't help but notice a girl behind your friends that you've never met before, because she is very obviously flirting with a guy, who you've also never met. As the night progresses you notice that while they both appear to be drinking a lot, the guy seems to be able to handle his alcohol, while the girl is getting increasingly drunk. She is stumbling and struggling to stand up, while the guy is trying to support her. At the same time the guy is being quite physically intimate with her. He is touching her arm and kissing her neck. The girl however, does not seem to be reciprocating, but equally she is not rejecting him or pushing him away. You notice the

guy whisper something in her ear and they then leave the room together, while the girl looks really out of it.

Vignette 7

You are at a student party, talking with your two close friends. When you arrive you see that there is a lot of alcohol. While at the party you can't help but notice a girl you know, behind your friends, because she is very obviously flirting with a guy, who you've never met. As the night progresses you notice that while they both appear to be drinking a lot, the guy seems relatively sober, while your friend is getting increasingly drunk. She is stumbling and struggling to stand up. The guy becomes more physically intimate with your friend. He is touching her arm, whispering in her ear, and kissing her neck. Your friend however, does not seem to be reciprocating. You see your friend trying to push him away, shaking her head no, and it looks like she is saying "no". Even so, you see the guy begin to lead your friend out of the room to what you suspect is a more private location.

Vignette 8

You are at a student party, talking with your two close friends. When you arrive you see that there is a lot of alcohol. While at the party you can't help but notice a girl you know, behind your friends, because she is very obviously flirting with a guy, who you've never met. As the night progresses you notice that while they both appear to be drinking a lot, the guy seems to be able to handle his alcohol, while your friend is getting increasingly drunk. She is stumbling and struggling to stand up, while the guy is trying to support her. At the same time the guy is being quite physically intimate with your friend. He is touching her arm and kissing her neck. Your friend however, does not seem to be reciprocating, but equally she is not rejecting him or pushing him away. You notice the guy whisper something in her ear and they then leave the room together, while your friend looks really out of it.

End of Block: Vignettes

Start of Block: Manipulation checks

Based on the scenario described, who were you with when you noticed the girl?

☐ With Friends (1)

☐ Alone (2)

Based on the scenario described, what is your relationship with the girl?

☐ Friends (1)

☐ Strangers (2)

Considering ALL the signs described in the scenario, how worried are you for the girl's wellbeing?

☐ Not at all worried (1)

☐ Moderately unworried (2)

☐ Slightly unworried (3)

☐ Neutral (4)

☐ Slightly worried (5)

☐ Moderately worried (6)

☐ Very worried (7)

What do you think the likelihood is that the girl will be sexually assaulted?

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
- ☐ Moderately unlikely (2)
- ☐ Slightly unlikely (3)
- ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (4)
- ☐ Slightly likely (5)
- ☐ Moderately likely (6)
- ☐ Extremely likely (7)

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: Manipulation checks

Start of Block: Demographics

The following questions will be a series of demographic questions. Please answer accordingly.

What is your gender?

- ☐ Male (1)
 - ☐ Female (2)
 - ☐ Other: Please specify (3)
-

How old are you?

What is your ethnicity

- ☐ White British (1)
 - ☐ White Other (2)
 - ☐ Asian British (3)
 - ☐ Asian Other (4)
 - ☐ Black British (5)
 - ☐ Black/African/Caribbean (6)
 - ☐ Other Ethnic Group (7)
-

What is your relationship status?

- ☐ Single (1)
 - ☐ In a relationship (2)
 - ☐ Married (3)
 - ☐ Other: Please specify (4)
-

What year of study are you?

- ☐ First year undergraduate (1)
- ☐ Second year undergraduate (2)
- ☐ Third year undergraduate (3)
- ☐ Postgraduate masters (4)
- ☐ Postgraduate PhD (5)

What are you studying?

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: Demographics

Start of Block: DV's

Please answer the following question in relation to the vignette you read.

Where did you imagine the party at?

- ☐ House party (1)
 - ☐ Night club (2)
 - ☐ Pub (3)
 - ☐ Other: Please Specify (4)
-

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

Page Break

The scenario described could be seen as leading up to a sexual assault. Based on the scenario, please answer the following two questions.

How blameworthy do you think the woman is in the situation on a 5-point scale?

- ☐ Not at all (1)
 - ☐ Slightly (2)
 - ☐ Moderately (3)
 - ☐ Very (4)
 - ☐ Extremely (5)
-

How blameworthy do you think the man is in the situation on a 5-point scale?

- ☐ Not at all (1)
 - ☐ Slightly (2)
 - ☐ Moderately (3)
 - ☐ Very (4)
 - ☐ Extremely (5)
-

How likely are you to intervene?

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
- ☐ Moderately unlikely (2)
- ☐ Slightly unlikely (3)
- ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (4)
- ☐ Slightly likely (5)
- ☐ Moderately likely (6)
- ☐ Extremely likely (7)

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

Display This Question:

If How likely are you to intervene? != Extremely unlikely



In the likelihood that you do intervene, please rank the **TOP THREE** items in the order that would most contribute to you intervening, where 1 is the first thing that most influenced you and 3 is the last thing that influenced you.

- _____ You wanted to help the victim in the scenario (1)
 - _____ You felt responsible to intervene in the situation (2)
 - _____ You felt the situation called for intervention (3)
 - _____ You felt that you would be supported in intervening (4)
 - _____ You did not think anyone else would do something (5)
 - _____ You thought the girl was drunk and needed help (6)
 - _____ Other: Please specify (7)
-

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

Page Break

Display This Question:

If How likely are you to intervene? != Extremely unlikely

How likely are you to go up to the girl and the guy and interrupt the situation?

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (27)
 - ☐ Moderately unlikely (28)
 - ☐ Slightly unlikely (29)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (30)
 - ☐ Slightly likely (31)
 - ☐ Moderately likely (32)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (33)
-

Display This Question:

If How likely are you to go up to the girl and the guy and interrupt the situation? != Extremely unlikely

How likely are you to go up to the girl and ask if she needs help?

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Moderately unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Slightly unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (4)
 - ☐ Slightly likely (5)
 - ☐ Moderately likely (6)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (7)
-

Display This Question:

If How likely are you to go up to the girl and the guy and interrupt the situation? != Extremely unlikely

How likely are you to tell the guy to back off?

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
- ☐ Moderately unlikely (2)
- ☐ Slightly unlikely (3)
- ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (4)
- ☐ Slightly likely (5)
- ☐ Moderately likely (6)
- ☐ Extremely likely (7)

Page Break

How likely are you to report what you saw to the police?

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Moderately unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Slightly unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (4)
 - ☐ Slightly likely (5)
 - ☐ Moderately likely (6)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (7)
-

How likely are you to report what you saw to somebody in responsibility?

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Moderately unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Slightly unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (4)
 - ☐ Slightly likely (5)
 - ☐ Moderately likely (6)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (7)
-

Who else would you report to about what you saw?

Page Break

Display This Question:

If How likely are you to intervene? != Extremely likely



In the likelihood that you don't intervene, please rank the **TOP THREE** items in the order that would most likely prevent you from intervening, where 1 is the most likely inhibitor and 3 is the last thing that would prevent you from intervening.

- _____ You thought the victim was consenting (1)
- _____ You did not feel like it was your responsibility (2)
- _____ You were not sure what was really going on (3)
- _____ You felt that you would not be supported in intervening (4)
- _____ You thought that someone else would do something (5)
- _____ You were afraid of being retaliated against (6)
- _____ Other: Please specify (7)

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: DV's

Start of Block: Questionnaire

Please read each question carefully. Please note that different questions will have different answer choices, so please read each question carefully. Remember, there are NO right or wrong answers to any of the questions. We are interested in your honest response. Your answers will be completely anonymous.

Have you personally ever witnessed a sexual assault?

☐ Yes (1)

☐ No (2)

Display This Question:

If Have you personally ever witnessed a sexual assault? = Yes

Did you intervene/help?

☐ Yes (1)

☐ No (2)

Display This Question:

If Have you personally ever witnessed a sexual assault? = Yes

Where did it occur?

☐ House party (1)

☐ Night club (2)

☐ Pub (3)

☐ Other: Please specify (4)

Display This Question:

If Did you intervene/help? = Yes

In what manner did you intervene/help?

☐ Direct (1)

☐ Indirect (2)

Display This Question:

If In what manner did you intervene/help? = Indirect

Which option is the main method you utilised when you indirectly intervened/helped?

- ☐ Called the police (1)
 - ☐ Told friends (2)
 - ☐ Told victim's friends (3)
 - ☐ Asked victim if they are okay or need help (4)
 - ☐ Told the perpetrator to back off (5)
 - ☐ Other: Please specify (6)
-

End of Block: Questionnaire

Start of Block: Social Desirability Scale

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is **true** or **false** as it pertains to you.

I like to gossip at times

- ☐ True (1)
 - ☐ False (2)
-

There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone

- ☐ True (1)
 - ☐ False (2)
-

I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake

☐ True (1)

☐ False (2)

I always try to practice what I preach

☐ True (1)

☐ False (2)

I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget

☐ True (1)

☐ False (2)

At times I have really insisted on having things my own way

☐ True (1)

☐ False (2)

There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things

☐ True (1)

☐ False (2)

I never resent being asked to return a favour

☐ True (1)

☐ False (2)

I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own

☐ True (1)

☐ False (2)

I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings

☐ True (1)

☐ False (2)

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: Social Desirability Scale

Start of Block: Rape myth acceptance scale

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements on a 5-point scale by marking the corresponding box (**strongly disagree, strongly disagree**).

If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex is a real "turn-on"

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

If a woman is willing to "make out" with a guy, then it's not big deal if he goes a little further and has sex

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Many women secretly desire to be raped

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Most rapists are not caught by the police

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

All women should have access to self-defence classes

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

It is usually women who dress suggestively that are raped

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it a rape

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Rape is unlikely to happen in the woman's own familiar neighbourhood

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

It is preferable that a female police officer conduct the questioning when a woman reports a rape

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was ambiguous

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
- ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
- ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: Rape myth acceptance scale

Start of Block: Self-efficacy scale

Please read each of the following behaviours. Indicate how **confident** you are that you could do that behaviour. Rate your degree of confidence by recording a number from 0% to 100% using the scale provided below:

0%	10	20	30	40	50%	60	70	80	90	100%
Can't	Quite				Moderately					Very
Do	uncertain				certain					certain

Click to write the question text



****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: Self-efficacy scale

Start of Block: Bystander intent scale - Friends

Please read the following list of behaviours and indicate how likely you are to engage in these behaviours for friends using a 5-point scale (**extremely unlikely, extremely likely**)

I approach someone I know if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know I'm here to help

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I let someone who I suspect has been sexually assaulted know I'm available for help and support

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I ask someone who seems upset if they are okay or need help

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

If someone said they had an unwanted sexual experience but don't call it rape, I express concern or offer to help

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I express concern to someone I know who has unexplained bruises that may be signs of abuse in a relationship

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I stop and check in on someone who looks intoxicated when they are being taken upstairs at a party

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I see a guy talking to a woman I know. He is sitting close to her and by the look on her face I can see she is uncomfortable. I ask her if she is okay or try to start a conversation with her

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I see someone and their partner. The partner has their fist clenched around the arm of the person and the person looks upset. I ask if everything is okay

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Ask someone who is being shoved or yelled at by their partner if they need help

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Tell someone if I think their drink was spiked with a drug

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: Bystander intent scale - Friends

Start of Block: Bystander intent scale - Strangers

Please read the following list of behaviours and indicate how likely you are to engage in these behaviours for strangers using a 5-point scale (**extremely unlikely, extremely likely**)

I talk with people I don't know about sexual abuse and intimate partner abuse as issues for our community

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I talk with people I don't know about going to parties together and staying together and leaving together

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I talk with people I don't know about watching each other's drinks

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I talk with people I don't know about what makes a relationship abusive and what the warning signs might be

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I express concern to someone I don't know if I see their partner exhibiting very jealous behaviour and trying to control them

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I share information or resources about sexual assault and/or intimate partner abuse with someone I don't know

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I approach someone I don't know if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

I let someone I don't know who I suspect has been sexually assaulted know that I am available for help and support

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: Bystander intent scale - Strangers

Start of Block: Peer attitudes scale

Please rate how likely **YOUR FRIENDS** are to do each of the following behaviours using a 5-point scale (**extremely unlikely, extremely likely**)

Ask a stranger if they need to be walked home from a party or get their friends to do so

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Criticise a friend who says they had sex with someone who was passed out or didn't give consent

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Do something to help a very intoxicated person who is being brought upstairs to a bedroom by a group of people at a party

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Do something to help a person who has had too much to drink and is passed out

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Tell a campus or community authority if they see a person who has had too much to drink and is passed out

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Do something if they see a woman surrounded by a group of men at a party who looks very uncomfortable

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Express discomfort/concern if someone make a joke about a woman's body or about gays/lesbians or someone of a different race

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Knock on the door to see if everything is all right if they hear sounds of fighting or arguing through dorm or apartment walls

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Go to an RA or RHD, other campus or community resource for advice on how to help if they suspect someone they know is in an abusive relationship

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Accompany a friend to the police department or other community resource if they needed help for an abusive relationship

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Ask a stranger who looks very upset at a party if they are okay or need help

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Ask a friend if they need to be walked home from a party

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Talk to people they know about the impact of using language that is negative toward groups like gays/lesbians/women/people of color

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Speak up to someone who is making excuses for using physical force in a relationship

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Speak up to someone who is calling his/her partner names or swearing at them

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Contact a community resource (e.g., counselling centre, RA) to discuss concerns about a friend who may be in distress

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Educate themselves about sexual abuse and intimate partner abuse prevention and share this information with others

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Approach a friend if they thought she/he was in an abusive relationship to let them know they were there to help

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Step in and say something to someone they knew who was grabbing or pushing their partner

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

Go to a community resource (e.g., crisis centre, counselling centre, police, professor, supervisor, etc.) if they saw someone grabbing or pushing their partner

- ☐ Extremely unlikely (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat unlikely (2)
 - ☐ Neither likely nor unlikely (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat likely (4)
 - ☐ Extremely likely (5)
-

****Please note once you leave this page, you cannot return to review or amend that page****

End of Block: Peer attitudes scale

Start of Block: Happy to submit

Informed Consent Question

Thank you for partaking in this study, are you still happy to submit your responses?

- ☐ Yes, I consent to submitting my responses (1)
- ☐ No, I wish to withdraw my data from the study (2)

End of Block: Happy to submit

Start of Block: Debrief form

Debriefing Form The aim of this study is to determine how contextual information surrounding a sexual assault scenario at a student party increases or decreases the likelihood of bystander intervention (helping behaviour) through the use of a hypothetical vignette and questionnaire. In understanding what factors students perceive as influencing the likelihood of bystander intervention, the data can be utilised to develop methods to reduce the prevalence of sexual assaults on university campuses. The data collected within this study will be used to develop an experimental methodology to develop an experimental study to measure actual bystander behaviour. The subject matter is sensitive in nature and if you have any questions regarding the interview or this study please contact either myself, Danielle Labhardt, at labharddd@uni.coventry.ac.uk or my supervisor, Dr. Emma Holdsworth, at aa7076@coventry.ac.uk. Additionally, if you feel in any way unsettled by the vignette or the questionnaire or you wish to seek support, you can obtain support from the Coventry University Welfare Services, located in the Hub, at 024 7765 8029 or by email at welfare.ss@coventry.ac.uk. You can also contact CRASAC at 02476 277777 or by email at helpline@crasac.org.uk. CRASAC is an organisation that is equipped with the tools, skills, and knowledge to effectively support any individual wishing to discuss this further. This organisation specialises in trauma and injustice of sexual violence and abuse. If you have any complaints or concerns about this study and would like to speak with someone not directly involved in the research study, please contact Olivier Sparagano at ab8677@coventry.ac.uk **THANK YOU AGAIN FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION**

When you click to continue on to the next page you will be automatically taken to a new survey to enter into the prize draw. The information you will provide on the next page will not be associated with any of the answers you have provided in this survey. All survey data will remain anonymous.

End of Block: Debrief form

Appendix 6: Debrief form for Study One (Chapter Four)

Debriefing Form

The aim of the study is understand university students' perceptions of what factors that increase or decrease the likelihood of intervening in a sexual assault. Additionally, it is also examining students' perception and understanding of the context of sexual assault and the consequences associated with sexual assault. In understanding how students perceive sexual assault and what influences their helping behaviour, the data can be utilised to develop methods to reduce the prevalence of sexual assaults on university campuses. The themes identified within this study will be used to generate a hypothetical vignette in a following study to determine the validity of the themes on a larger university population.

The subject matter is sensitive in nature and if you have any questions regarding the interview or this study please contact either myself, Danielle Labhardt, at dlabhard@usc.edu.au or my supervisor, Dr. Nadine McKillop, at nmckillo@usc.edu.au. Additionally, if you feel in any way unsettled by what we discussed in the interview or you wish to seek support, you can obtain support from any of the following services.

- USC Student Wellbeing, located in Building E, at 07 5430 1226 or by email at studentwellbeing@usc.edu.au
- Lifeline at 131 114
- For organisations that are equipped with the tools, skills, and knowledge to effectively support any individual wishing to discuss this further contact Laurel Place at 07 5443 4711 or Living Well (specifically for men who have been sexually victimised) at 07 3028 4648. These organisations specialise in trauma and injustice of sexual violence and abuse.

If you have any complaints or concerns about this study and would like to speak with someone not directly involved in the research study, please contact the Research Ethics Officers at humanethics@usc.edu.au

THANK YOU AGAIN FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

Appendix 7: Initial General Consent Form for Study Three (Chapter Six)

General Consent Form

Information about the project:

The aim of this study is to determine how effective the use of spaces like the Immerse studio is, in hosting campus based social activities, like parties.

Please Tick

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 8. I confirm that I have read and understood the participant information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. I agree to having my responses recorded during the study | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. I understand that if I withdraw from the study by the date noted, that all individual data associated with the study will be destroyed and will not be included in the study. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. I understand that all the information I provide will be treated in confidence. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13. I understand that I also have the right to change my mind about participating in the study up until <u>2 weeks after completing the study</u> . | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. I agree to take part in the research project. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Use the first letter of your first name and your last name plus your birthdate to create your Participant ID number (ex: John Smith 17 January = JS1701):

Participant ID number: _____

Signature of participant: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 8: Interview Schedule/Funnelling Debrief for Study Three (Chapter Six)

Interview Schedule

1. What is your unique participant ID number you created using the first letter of your first name and your last name plus your birthdate to create your Participant ID number (ex: **John Smith** 17 January = JS1701)

-
1. What did you think of the overall experience?
 - a. *Prompt: What did you do during the party? Selfie-wall, DJ wall, Kinect*
 2. Could you elaborate on what you found positive regarding the experience?
 3. Could you elaborate on what you found negative regarding the experience?
-

If nothing about sexual assault mentioned:

1. Concerns were raised about some uncomfortable/awkward behaviour in the room – could you elaborate on that?
 - o *Prompts: Did you notice anything? Were you concerned about anything? Concerns you would like to raise?*

Still nothing – interview ends; if something is brought up move to next section!

Something – interview continues

1. Can you elaborate a bit about what you noticed/concerned about?
 2. What made you feel that way?
 3. Did you act on your concerns?
 - a. If yes,
 - i. What influenced you to act on your concerns?
 - b. If no,
 - i. What prevented you from acting on your concerns?
 1. *Prompt (prevent): what would make you more comfortable to intervene?*
-

Only for participants that reacted in an extreme way (e.g., direct intervention or got the experimenter as a method of intervening)

4. Reacted quite strongly to situation – what prevented (or influenced) you to do something?

Interview ends

Appendix 9: Post-Debrief Consent Form for Study Three (Chapter Six)

Post-Debrief Consent Form

Study Title: An experimental methodology to understand bystander intervention and awareness of a sexual assault at a party

Given the design of the study, we are ethically bound to seek participant consent after the study. As you are now aware, deception was part of the research design, enabling us to observe and record actual responses in real time. Now that you are fully aware of the parameters of the study, we require you to complete another consent form. If you choose not to consent, this would mean that your individualised responses (i.e., questionnaire responses and interview data) will be withdrawn and no reference will be made to anything you said or did during the experiment. However, as this was a social experiment involving a group of participants, data resulting from the video cannot be withdrawn. If you do withdraw, there is no penalty. You will still receive payment for the study. Please note that no identifiable information will be published that can link back to you.

I give consent for my data to be used in the analysis for this study

☐

I do NOT give my consent for my data to be used in the analysis for this study. Please withdraw them from the study and destroy them immediately.

☐

Use the first letter of your first name and your last name plus your birthdate to create your Participant ID number (ex: **John Smith** 17 January = JS1701):

Participant ID number: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 10: Debrief Form for Study Three (Chapter Six)

Study Title: An experimental methodology to understand bystander intervention and awareness of a sexual assault at a party

Thank you for participating. This was a deception study; you were told this was a party and we wanted to know whether this room would be a good space to have university parties. In fact, we were exploring bystander intervention around sexual harassment. Approximately 1 in 3 sexual assaults are witnessed by a third-party, yet most people don't intervene. To understand what influences intervening behaviour when seeing a sexual harassment, we need to measure actual helping behaviour. We invited people 18-25 to participate as they are more likely to attend parties during university and can offer insight into what affects helping behaviour.

You may or may not have been aware that signs of sexual harassment were occurring between some of the people in your session. You were one of ten participants, in addition to four actors. Two of those actors (one male and one female) were there to encourage you to engage with the activities and two others, one male who was showing interest in the female.

A scenario with sexual harassment behaviours was constructed with the actors: the female entered the room with her friend. In the room, she meets a man through her friend. The female's friend leaves to socialise and her and the male chat. The female and male took a selfie, he gets her a drink. The male forced the female to drink the second drink. She got uncomfortable, moved to the Kinect, he follows and dances too close to her. The male took an inappropriate photo of her and without consent uploaded it to the selfie-wall. She is visibly upset, he wants to hug it out to apologise. Finally, she left and the male followed her to "see if she's okay".

You were then interviewed on the overall experience, if you noticed any awkward behaviour in the room. If you did, what was it, how did you react, and why. The study was monitored via one-way glass, as well as video and audio recorded, to ensure everyone's safety.

The results will provide a new and unique perspective of when people initially notice something isn't right, their response, and how they understand it to advance intervention programmes to reduce rates of sexual assault on university campuses.

To protect the integrity of the study we request that you do not disclose any details about this study for the next 48 hours until all experiments have been conducted. The subject matter is sensitive in nature. If you have any questions regarding the study please contact either myself, Danielle Labhardt, at dlabhard@usc.edu.au or my supervisor, Dr. Nadine McKillop, at nmckillo@usc.edu.au. Additionally, if you feel in any way unsettled by the study or you wish to seek support, you can obtain support from any of the following services.

- USC Student Wellbeing, located in Building E, at 07 5430 1226 or by email at studentwellbeing@usc.edu.au
- Lifeline at 131 114
- For organisations that are equipped with the tools, skills, and knowledge to effectively support any individual wishing to discuss this further contact Laurel Place at 07 5443 4711 or Living Well (specifically for men who have been sexually victimised) at 07 3028 4648. These organisations specialise in trauma and injustice of sexual violence and abuse

If you have any complaints or concerns about this study and would like to speak with someone not directly involved in the research study, please contact the research ethics officers at humanethics@usc.edu.au

THANK YOU AGAIN FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

Appendix 11: Interview Schedule for Study One (Chapter Four)

Part 1: Opening

1. Introduction to study
 - a. Discuss with participant the purpose, motivation, and time commitment for the study.

Part 2: Interview questions

1. Demographics
 - a. Are you happy to answer some demographic questions? You don't need to answer if you do not feel comfortable.
 - i. Gender
 1. Male Female
 - ii. Age _____
 - iii. Ethnicity _____
 - iv. Relationship status _____
 - v. Year of study _____
 - vi. What are you studying _____

Give them a fact sheet on prevalence of sexual assault on university campuses

2. What do you think sexual assault entails?
3. In relation to point 1:
 - a. What do you think about this definition of sexual assault?
 - b. Is the definition clear?
 - c. What is your understanding about consent? How do you interpret consent? How is consent given in sexual relationships?
 - i. *Prompt: In relation to context, how is consent given within a relationship (couples)? How is consent give between two people who meet in a club on a night out for the first time?*
4. In relation to point 2:
 - a. What do you think about these figures?
 - b. Who do you think the perpetrators are? Talk me through who you think the victims are?
 - c. What's your understanding of the relationship between the victim and perpetrator?
 - i. *Prompt: Do they know each other, are they strangers, acquaintances?*
5. In relation to point 3:
 - a. What do you think about this statistic?
 - b. Why do you think women between 16 and 19 are at an increased risk of being victimised?

- c. Can you describe to me what a risky situation looks like.
 - d. In your opinion why do pubs or night clubs increase the risk of sexual assault?
 - i. *Prompt: for example, how do you think alcohol influences sexual assault?*
- 6. In relation to point 4:
 - a. What do you think about the rate of reporting for victims?
 - i. *Prompt: do you think it is high or low? Why do you think that?*
 - b. Tell me what you think would influence a victim to report a sexual assault. Tell me what you think prevents a victim from reporting a sexual assault.
 - c. In your opinion, what is the most traumatic aspect of sexual assault for the victim?
- 7. In relation to point 5:
 - a. What do you feel about this statistic?
 - b. What do you believe are some signs of an impending sexual assault?
 - i. *Prompt: think about the amount of alcohol.*
 - c. Talk me through what you believe prevents a witness from intervening.
 - i. *Prompt: being alone or with friends*
 - d. Talk me through what you believe influences a witness in intervening.
 - i. *Prompt: relationship with victim or perpetrator*
- 8. Stanford Case
 - a. What do you think about this case?
 - b. What do you think about the 6 month sentence?
 - c. Can you explain what you think about the situation of this case?
 - i. *Prompt: situation, bystanders, victim, perpetrator, consent*

Part 3: Closing

- 1. I appreciate the time you took for this interview. Is there anything else that you wanted to add regarding this topic area that you believe would be of help in my project?
- 2. Thank you for partaking in this study to identify how university students perceive sexual assault, the consequences associated with it, and what influences and inhibits helping behaviour.

Appendix 12: Online Questionnaire for Study Three (Chapter Six)

Study 3 questionnaire 2018

Start of Block: Demographics

Please enter your Participant ID number you created using the first letter of your first name and your last name plus your birth date to create your unique participant ID number (ex: **John Smith** 17 January = JS1701):

The influence of university culture and the effect it has on university students' social interactions within a party environment.

What is your age?

What is your gender?

☐ Male (1)

☐ Female (2)

☐ Other (please specify): (3)

Are you of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander Origin?

- ☐ Yes, Aboriginal (1)
- ☐ Yes, Torres Strait Islander (2)
- ☐ Yes, both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander (3)
- ☐ No (other: please specify): (4)
-

What is your year of study?

- ☐ First year undergraduate (1)
- ☐ Second year undergraduate (2)
- ☐ Third year undergraduate (3)
- ☐ Fourth year undergraduate (4)
- ☐ Postgraduate masters (5)
- ☐ Postgraduate PhD (6)
-

What are you studying?

End of Block: Demographics















Start of Block: Self-efficacy

*Please read each of the following behaviours. Indicate how **confident** you are that you could do that behaviour. Rate your degree of confidence by recording a number from 0% to 100% using the scale provided below:*

0%	10	20	30	40	50%	60	70	80	90	100%	Can't
t	Quite										
Do	uncertain				Moderately				Very		
					certain				certain		

Click to write the question text

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

1. Express my discomfort if someone makes a joke about a woman's body ()	
2. Express my discomfort if someone says that rape victims are to blame for being raped ()	
3. Call for help (e.g., call 000) if I hear someone in my dorm yelling "help" ()	
4. Talk to a friend who I suspect is in an abusive relationship ()	
5. Get help and resources for a friend who tells me they have been raped ()	
6. Able to ask a stranger who looks very upset at a party if they are OK or need help ()	
7. Ask a friend if they need to be walked home from a party ()	
8. Ask a stranger if they need to be walked home from a party ()	
9. Speak up in class if a professor is providing misinformation about sexual assault ()	
10. Criticise a friend who tells me that they had sex with someone who was passed out or who didn't give consent ()	
11. Do something to help a very drunk person who is being brought upstairs to a bedroom by a group of people at a party ()	
12. Do something if I see a woman surrounded by a group of men at a party who looks very uncomfortable ()	
13. Get help if I hear on an abusive relationship in my dorm or apartment ()	
14. Tell a property/residential manager or other campus authority about information that I have that might help in a sexual assault case even if pressured by my peers to say silent. ()	

End of Block: Self-efficacy

Start of Block: Agreeableness - Personality Scale

*Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements on a 5-point scale by marking the corresponding box (**strongly disagree, strongly agree**):*

I feel little concern for others

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I am interested in people

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I insult people

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I sympathise with others' feelings

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I am not interested in other people's problems

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I have a soft heart

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I am not really interested in others

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I take time out for others

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I feel other's emotions

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
- ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I make people feel at ease

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
- ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly agree (5)

End of Block: Agreeableness - Personality Scale

Start of Block: Prosocial personality scale short form part 1

*Below are a number of statements that may or may not describe you, your feelings, or your behaviour. Please read each statement carefully and indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements on a 5-point scale by marking the corresponding box (**strongly disagree**, **strongly agree**):*

When people are nasty to me, I feel very little responsibility to treat them well

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I would feel less bothers about leaving litter in a dirty park than in a clean

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

No matter what a person has done to us, there is no excuse for taking advantage of them

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

With the pressure for grades and widespread cheating in school nowadays, the individual who cheats is not really as much at fault

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

It doesn't make much sense to be very concerned about how we act when we are sick and feeling miserable

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

If I broke a machine through mishandling, I would feel less guilty if it was already damaged before I used it

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

When you have a job to do, it is impossible to look out for everybody's best interest

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the "other person's" point of view

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I am usually pretty effective in dealing with emergencies

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I am often quite touched by things that I see happen

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I believe that there are two sided to every question and try to look at them both

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I tend to lose control during emergencies

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in their shoes" for a while

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

When I see someone who badly needs help in an emergency, I go to pieces

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
- ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly agree (5)

End of Block: Prosocial personality scale short form part 1

Start of Block: Prosocial personality scale short form part 2

*Below are a set of statement, which may or may not describe how you make decisions when you have to choose between two courses of action or alternatives when there is no clear right way or wrong way to act. Some examples of such situations are: being asked to lend something to a close friend who often forgets to return things; deciding whether you should keep something you have won for yourself or share it with a friend; and choosing between studying for an important exam and visiting a sick relative. Read each statement and indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements on a 5-point scale by marking the corresponding box (**strongly disagree**, **strongly agree**)*

My decisions are usually based on my concern for other people

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

My decisions are usually based on what is the most fair and just way to act

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I choose alternative that are intended to meet everybody's needs

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I choose a course of action that maximises the help other people receive

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
 - ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
 - ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
 - ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

I choose a course of action that considers the rights of all people involved

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
- ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly agree (5)
-

My decisions are usually based on concern for the welfare of others

- ☐ Strongly disagree (1)
- ☐ Somewhat disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ☐ Somewhat agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly agree (5)

End of Block: Prosocial personality scale short form part 2

Start of Block: Prosocial personality scale short form part 3

Below are several different actions in which people sometimes engage. Read each of them and decide how frequently you have carried it out in the past. Read each statement and indicate which response best describes your past behaviour. Use the scale presented below.

I have helped carry a stranger's belongings (e.g., books, parcels, etc.)

- ☐ Never (1)
 - ☐ Once (2)
 - ☐ More than once (3)
 - ☐ Often (4)
 - ☐ Very often (5)
-

I have allowed someone to go ahead of me in line (e.g., supermarket, copying machine, etc.)

- ☐ Never (1)
 - ☐ Once (2)
 - ☐ More than once (3)
 - ☐ Often (4)
 - ☐ Very often (5)
-

I have let a neighbour whom I didn't know too well borrow an item of some value (e.g., tools, a dish, etc.)

- ☐ Never (1)
 - ☐ Once (2)
 - ☐ More than once (3)
 - ☐ Often (4)
 - ☐ Very often (5)
-

I have, before being asked, voluntarily looked after a neighbour's pets or children without being paid for it

- ☐ Never (1)
 - ☐ Once (2)
 - ☐ More than once (3)
 - ☐ Often (4)
 - ☐ Very often (5)
-

I have offered to help a handicapped or elderly stranger across a street

- ☐ Never (1)
- ☐ Once (2)
- ☐ More than once (3)
- ☐ Often (4)
- ☐ Very often (5)

End of Block: Prosocial personality scale short form part 3

Appendix 13: Example Photo use for Kinect Motion Monitor for Study Three

(Chapter Six)

Some materials have been removed due to 3rd party copyright. The unabridged version can be viewed in Lancaster Library - Coventry University.

(Pexels, n.d.)

Appendix 14: Immerse Studio Set Up and Camera Angles for Study Three

(Chapter Six)

Some materials have been removed due to 3rd party copyright. The unabridged version can be viewed in Lancaster Library - Coventry University.

Angle one: Camera in the centre of the back wall

Some materials have been removed due to 3rd party copyright. The unabridged version can be viewed in Lancaster Library - Coventry University.

Angle two: Camera on the left side, closest to door

Appendix 15: Ethics Certificates

Ethical Approval Certificates from Coventry University and the University of the
Sunshine Coast for Study 1



Certificate of Ethical Approval

Applicant:

Danielle Labhardt

Project Title:

University students perception of sexual assault: Perceived factors increasing or decreasing likelihood of intervening

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and approved as Medium Risk

Date of approval:

12 August 2016

Project Reference Number:

P43713

Figure 2: Study 1 UK Sample Ethical Approval Certificate 2016



Certificate of Ethical Approval

Applicant:

Danielle Labhardt

Project Title:

University students perception of sexual assault: Perceived factors increasing or decreasing likelihood of intervening

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and approved as Medium Risk


Date of approval:

08 August 2017

Project Reference Number:

P60560

Figure 3: Study 1 Australia Sample Ethical Approval Certificate 2017



28 August 2017

A/Prof Andrew Crowden
 Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee
 Tel: +61 7 5430 2823
 Email: humanethics@usc.edu.au
 F28409

Miss Danielle Labhardt
 Dr Nadine McKillop
 Prof Christian Jones

Dear Researchers

Expedited ethics approval for research project: University students' perception of sexual assault: Perceived factors increasing or decreasing likelihood of intervening (S/17/1092)

This letter is to confirm that on 21 August 2017, following review of the application for ethics approval of the above named research project, the Chairperson of the USC Human Research Ethics Committee granted expedited ethics approval for the above named project.

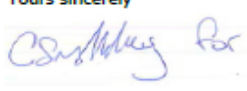
The USC Human Research Ethics Committee will review this expedited approval at its next meeting and, should there be any variation of the conditions of approval, you will be informed.

The period of ethics approval is from 28 August 2017 to 30 March 2018. The standard conditions of ethics approval are listed overleaf. In addition, the

Please note that the ethics approval number for the project is S/17/1092. This number should be quoted in your Research Project Information Sheet and in any written communication when you are recruiting participants.

If you have any queries in relation to this or if you require further information please contact us at humanethics@usc.edu.au or by telephone on +61 7 5430 2823 or 5459 4574.

Yours sincerely



A/Prof Andrew Crowden
 Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee

University of the Sunshine Coast | ethics review and support centre

usc.edu.au

Figure 4: Study 1 Australia Sample USC Ethical Approval Certificate 2017

Ethical Approval Certificates from Coventry University and the University of the
Sunshine Coast for Study 2



Certificate of Ethical Approval

Applicant:

Danielle Labhardt

Project Title:

The influence of situational and contextual factors on helping behaviours after witnessing a sexual assault

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and approved as Medium Risk

Date of approval:

22 March 2017

Project Reference Number:

P50623

Figure 5: Study 2 UK Sample Ethical Approval Certificate 2017



Certificate of Ethical Approval

Applicant:

Danielle Labhardt

Project Title:

The influence of situational and contextual factors on helping behaviours after witnessing a sexual assault

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and approved as Medium Risk

Date of approval:

18 August 2017

Project Reference Number:

P60671

Figure 6: Study 2 Australia Sample Ethical Approval Certificate 2017



28 August 2017

A/Prof Andrew Crowden
 Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee
 Tel: +61 7 5430 2823
 Email: humanethics@usc.edu.au
 F28438

Miss Danielle Labhardt
 Dr Nadine McKillop
 Prof Christian Jones

Dear Researchers

Expedited ethics approval for research project: The influence of situational and contextual factors on helping behaviours after witnessing a sexual assault (S/17/1097)

This letter is to confirm that on 21 August 2017, following review of the application for ethics approval of the above named research project, the Chairperson of the USC Human Research Ethics Committee granted expedited ethics approval for the above named project.

The USC Human Research Ethics Committee will review this expedited approval at its next meeting and, should there be any variation of the conditions of approval, you will be informed.

The period of ethics approval is from 28 August 2017 to 30 March 2018. The standard conditions of ethics approval are listed overleaf. In addition, the

Please note that the ethics approval number for the project is S/17/1097. This number should be quoted in your Research Project Information Sheet and in any written communication when you are recruiting participants.

If you have any queries in relation to this or if you require further information please contact us at humanethics@usc.edu.au or by telephone on +61 7 5430 2823 or 5459 4574.

Yours sincerely

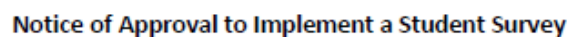


A/Prof Andrew Crowden
 Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee

University of the Sunshine Coast | Locked Mail Bag 9681, Sippy Downs, QLD 4556

usc.edu.au

Figure 7: Study 2 Australia Sample USC Ethical Approval Certificate 2017



Registration no: 361

Amanda Bailey
Student Evaluations and Communications Officer
Strategic Information and Analysis Unit
University of the Sunshine Coast

Figure 8: Study 1 and 2 USC Student Survey Approval 2017

Ethical Approval Certificates from Coventry University and the University of the
Sunshine Coast for Study 3



Certificate of Ethical Approval

Applicant:

Danielle Labhardt

Project Title:

An experimental methodology to understand bystander intervention and awareness
of a sexual assault at a party

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry
University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and
approved as Medium Risk

Date of approval:

10 February 2018

Project Reference Number:

P62637

Figure 9: Study 3 Australia Sample Ethical Approval Certificate 2018



16 February 2018

Claire Smith-Moloney
Research Ethics, Integrity and Compliance Senior Officer
Office of Research
 Tel: +61 7 5430 2823
 Email: humanethics@usc.edu.au
 F29612

Miss Danielle Labhardt
 Dr Nadine McKillop
 Prof Christian Jones

Dear Researchers

Expedited ethics approval for prior reviewed research project: An experimental methodology to understand bystander intervention and awareness of a sexual assault at a party (S/18/1157)

This letter is to confirm that on 16 February 2018, following review of the application for ethics approval of the above named research project, the USC Office of Research granted expedited ethics approval for the project, via the prior ethical review pathway.

The USC Human Research Ethics Committee will review this expedited approval at its next meeting and, should there be any variation of the conditions of approval, you will be informed.

The period of ethics approval is from 16 February 2018 to 29 June 2018. The standard conditions of ethics approval are listed overleaf.

Please note that the ethics approval number for the project is S/18/1157. This number should be quoted in your Research Project Information Sheet and in any written communication when you are recruiting participants.

If you have any queries in relation to this or if you require further information please contact us at humanethics@usc.edu.au or by telephone on +61 7 5430 2823 or 5459 4574.

Yours sincerely



Claire Smith-Moloney
Research Ethics, Integrity and Compliance Senior Officer
Office of Research

University of the Sunshine Coast | www.usc.edu.au

usc.edu.au

Figure 10: Study 3 Australian Sample USC Ethical Approval Certificate 2018