BYSTANDERS

Literature Review

Maria José Magalhães, Nicola Sharp-Jeffs, Cátia Pontedeira, Ana Guerreiro, Liz Kelly, Raquel Felgueiras & Vera Silva

BYSTANDERS project was funded by the European Union's Rights, Equality and Citizenship Programme (2014-2020). The contents of this report are the sole responsibility of Team of the Bystanders' Project and can in no way be taken to reflect the views of the European Commission.

U.PORTO FACULDADE DE PSICOLOGIA E DE CIÊNCIAS DA EDUCAÇÃO UNIVERSIDADE DO PORTO · UMAR · cieg · Mirovni inštitut The Peace Institute · DNK Društvo za nenasilno komunikacijo · L-Università ta' Malta · London Metropolitan University

BYSTANDERS

Index

Literature Review

Introduction 2
Conceptualising sexual harassment 2
Defining Sexual Harassment 3
Sexual Harassment In Schools 3
Prevalence of Sexual Harassment 4
Consequences of Sexual Harassment 5
Primary Prevention of Sexual Violence 6
Why work with young people? 6
Prevention programmes on sexual harassment 7
Interventions in schools 8
GEAR Project (2016) 8
UMAR: Gender Violence Prevention in Schools and Family programme 8
AGENDA: a young people’s guide to making positive relationships matter 9
Bystanders and bystanders approach 9
Pedagogy for bystanders intervention on sexual harassment 11
Conclusions 14
References 16

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

This literature review about primary prevention programs on sexual harassment was undertaken to inform the development of a bystanders program for high school students and teachers. The first section focuses on sexual harassment as a form of gender based violence and outlines its consequences. The second section is a review of the literature on primary prevention work with a particular focus on preventing sexual violence and sexual harassment in schools. We then present an overview of existing bystander intervention programs, analysing six programmes on sexual violence and developing a table (see Annex) which identifies their main characteristics. Finally, we focus on pedagogy and how this might shape our intervention.

CONCEPTUALISING SEXUAL HARASSMENT

The phenomenon of violence against women was put on the agenda in the 1970s through the work of feminist activists and writers. The issue has gained academic and public attention, with a now strong evidence base, albeit that this is less the case for sexual harassment. International human rights agencies have developed policies to address violence against women, with a strong focus on prevention. In 1979, the CEDAW Committee adopted General Recommendation No. 19 on VAW. This defines gender based violence as:

> 'Violence which is directed at a woman because she is a woman or which affects women disproportionately; it includes acts which inflict physical, mental or sexual harm or suffering, threats of such acts, coercion or other deprivations of liberty' (CEDAW, 1979).

In 2011, the Council of Europe produced a Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence (known as the Istanbul Convention). The Convention is grounded in the understanding that gender inequality is a cause and consequence of violence against women. Prevention work should therefore recognise:

> 'A continuum of forms of violence against women, including: physical violence, sexual and psychological violence, stalking, sexual harassment, female genital mutilation, forced marriage, forced abortion and forced sterilisation' (Council of Europe, 2014).

Rather than focusing on the different forms of violence and their impacts as discrete issues, the continuum of sexual violence (Kelly, 1987) recognizes commonalities, connections and overlaps between them. Whilst most legal reform and policy development has focused on intimate partner violence,sexual harassment has re-emerged in recent years through the work of young women and campaigns such as Everyday Sexism, Take Back the Tech and Hollaback.

DEFINING SEXUAL HARASSMENT

The initial naming of sexual harassment took place in the 1970s and was particularly linked to workplace. Catherine MacKinnon (1979) defined its presence in the workplace as a form of sex discrimination. It's presence in others spaces, including schools and universities has since been documented (FRA, 2014; Hester and Lilley, 2016; Vera-Gray, 2016).

There is variance in definitions of sexual harassment. The Istanbul Convention (Article 40) describes it as:

> 'Any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, in particular when creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment'.

For MacKinnon (1987) it operates as sexual pressure imposed on someone who is not in a position to refuse it. Fitzgerald et al. (1995) distinguish three categories: sexual coercion, unwanted sexual attention andgender harassment.

Wise and Stanley (1987: 67) suggest that by identifying 'particular' behaviours for inclusion within the definition, then sexual harassment is framed as 'extraordinary' rather than a routine expression of men's power. Experiential realities may be excluded from the sexual harassment framework as it is normatively understood (Vera-Gray, 2016). Examples here include the impact of anticipation or behaviours that are not 'sexual' in nature. For instance, Vera-Gray (2016; 11) argues that calls to 'cheer up' would be difficult to define as sexual harassment using the formal definitions, yet they 'form a significant part of some women's experience of unknown men in public space and are uniquely gendered'. Larkin (1997) observes that such encounters are so normalised they are rarely named as harassment. Practices not experienced as 'sexual' or 'harassment' may, therefore, be missed (Vera-Gray, 2016).

Vera-Gray (2016) observes that the term sexual harassment arose to provide a framework for legal and policy reform but that there is 'usefulness' in developing a range of concepts to mobilise for different purposes. On this basis, she draws on the work of Kelly (1988) and Stanko (1985; 1990) to conceptualise sexual harassment as 'intrusions'. This is 'the deliberate act of putting oneself into a place or situation where one is uninvited, with disruptive effect'. The term

Co-funded by the Rights, Equality and Citizenship (REC) Programme of the European Union

encompasses 'a wider range of behaviours without predefining the ways they are experienced'.

SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN SCHOOLS

Sexual harassment has been documented in schools (Hill & Kearl, 2011; Meyer, 2008; Women and Equalities Committee, 2016) including primary schools, although it is most common in adolescence. It is sometimes reframed as sexual bullying or the more gender neutral concept of bullying in this context (Timmerman, 2003). However, because SH is linked to norm setting and policing the performance of heterosexual gender roles, bullying policies do little to address the underlying issues of the school climate that allow these behaviours to persist (Meyer, 2008). This is because they do not name and explore systems of power and privilege (op. cit.). A recent Inquiry in the UK into sexual harassment and sexual violence in schools found that the sexual harassment of girls was accepted as part of daily life, with teachers accepting it as being "just banter" (Women and Equalities Committee, 2016: 3). This inaction teaches students that the institution of the school and – by extension – society condones such behaviour (Meyer, 2008).

The performance of hegemonic masculinity takes a number of different forms. In addition to physical violence and intrusive acts, harassers assert themselves through acts of domination and humiliation. Verbal harassment is the most common form reported by students and includes sexualised jokes and comments (op. cit.). Non-verbal sexual harassment includes leering and sexualised gestures. More recently the use of social media or other electronic media for the purpose of spreading sexual rumours or sexually explicit images has been highlighted (Alonso-Ruido; Rodríguez-Castro; Pérez-André & Magalhães, 2015). This is not so much a new form of sexual harassment as a new context for old practices. Girls experience more frequent and more severe forms of SH than boys, creating a hostile school environment for them. Girlguiding UK (2015) found that 75 per cent of girls and young women said anxiety about potentially experiencing sexual harassment affects their lives in some way.

PREVALENCE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

An EU-wide survey undertaken by the Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA) found that sexual harassment (SH) was the most prevalent form of violence against girls and women, across the 28 EU member states (FRA, 2014). An estimated 83 to 102 million women (45 to 55 per cent in the Member States) had experienced sexual harassment since the age of 15. Within the four countries that this project is being implemented, the prevalence of sexual harassment since the age of 15 was as per next page.

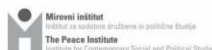

Table: Prevalence of sexual harassment since the age of 15 (%)

	Full sets of items (n=11)	Short sets of items (n=6)
Malta	50	38
Slovenia	44	37
Portugal	32	21
United Kingdom	25	16

Given that these figures exclude most of the years girls spend in schools the proportions might rise if this were included.

There is limited recent research which looks at sexual harassment in schools but almost half (48%) of middle and high school students said they were sexually harassed at least once, typically by their peers, during the 2010-2011 school year in the US[1].

There is also data from the UK:

- the BBC in 2015 found that 5,500 sexual offences were recorded in UK schools over a three year period, including 600 rapes[2];
- 59% of girls and young women aged 13–21 said in 2014 that they had faced some form of sexual harassment at school or college in the past year[3];
- 22% of young girls aged 7–12 have experienced jokes of a sexual nature from boys[4].

CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Sexual harassment has a number of consequences for victims (Torres et al., 2016). Immediate impacts are reported to include anxiety, lower job/academic performance, absenteeism, drug and alcohol abuse and at the most extreme suicide (Meyer, 2008). In the FRA (2014) study women reported feeling anger, annoyance, embarrassment, shame and fear. Over the longer term women experienced feeling vulnerable, anxious, having difficulties in relationships and with sleeping and, in some cases, being depressed (op. cit.). The impacts are also gendered. Banyard and colleagues (2007) suggest that men report fewer impacts, although if they are targeted because they are gay the pattern is more similar. Where harassment serves to reinforce positions of inequality the impacts are more extensive.

When sexual harassment takes place at school it ceases to be a safe space, which can

[1] https://www.usnews.com/education/blogs/high-school-notes/2011/11/09/survey-nearly-half-of-students-sexually-harassed-in-school
[2] http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/education-34138287
[3] https://www.endviolenceagainstwomen.org.uk/campaign/metoo-at-school/
[4] https://www.girlguiding.org.uk/social-action-advocacy-and-campaigns/research/girls-attitudes-survey/

Co-funded by the Rights,
Equality and Citizenship (REC)
Programme of the European Union

affect engagement in the school community and education. What many would see as 'low level' behaviours can, when repeated, have negative impacts on the educational experience: anxiety interferes with focus. One strategy many use is to avoid the harasser, which in turn is linked with absenteeism and lower academic performance (Meyer, 2008). That students bear the burden is more likely where sexual harassment in schools is normalised (op. cit.). Girls get the message that they are worth less than boys, and that the school community allows these behaviours to continue.

PRIMARY PREVENTION OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE

Violence against women and girls, and specifically sexual harassment, takes place in social and cultural contexts rooted in patriarchal systems which are reproduced through symbolic representations, beliefs and practices which consolidate the heteronormative gender order (Connell, 2010). Therefore changing social representations and practices requires interventions which transform and build contexts based on gender equality. The predominant approach to prevention of VAW uses a public health concept (Lab, 2014; see also WHO 2002) with three levels. Primary prevention programmes seek to reduce the prevalence of gender violence, and often address the norms underpinning violence. Secondary and tertiary prevention seek to reduce the harmful consequences of an act of violence and/or further acts of violence (Harvey et al., 2007).

Public health approaches seek to identify the conditions and contexts which are conducive for VAW (including cultural, social, economic and political conditions). Schools have been located as one such conducive context (Banyard et al., 2009; Meyer, 2008). Within this intersectionality needs to be recognised since the harassment may combine gender with other oppressions, including race/ethnicity, sexuality, disability and class. Sexual violence prevention uses different strategies, methodologies and media. In relation to sexual harassment in college campuses, Potter and colleagues (2009) describes a campaign based on training and posters to increase intervention of bystanders; they note that whilst a poster campaign can be an important tool in raising awareness on college campuses, this should not be the only tool a community uses to facilitate change.

The focus of primary prevention efforts is not on individual perpetrators or victims but in the development of strategies and tools to promote social, cultural and political change based on the principles of equality, justice and human rights. In this sense, primary prevention addresses the specific conditions that support the occurrence of violence. It increases understanding about the causes and consequences of gender violence with the objective of changing attitudes, transforming behaviour and improving strategies that respond to violence (Magalhães et al., 2007).

Educational programmes are the most usual strategies used in primary intervention and schools are a natural setting for such interventions seeking to achieve social and cultural change for the future. Nevertheless, evaluations of the impact of these programmes show mixed results, with change over time less well documented (Potter et al., 2010).

WHY WORK WITH YOUNG PEOPLE?

Youth is a period of significant development and change. In adolescence, young people establish stronger relationships with individuals beyond the family and are influenced by the opinions of their peers. Hence in this phase of life, peers can strongly affect young people's attitudes and behaviours. Some define the way in which young people interact with each other as conforming to 'peer norms' (Banyard et al., 2009). Of particular interest to this project, are youth cultures that reproduce prejudices, gender stereotypes and tolerance/acceptance of sexual violence. As Banyard and colleagues (2009) state, peer and wider community norms influence motivations to use violence, often also providing a legitimation of their actions.

Early adolescence has been termed a period of "gender intensification" (Katz et al., 2011) in which young people experience increased pressure to conform to gender norms, including in relationships (Taylor; Stein & Burden, 2010). Such norms narrow the potentials of young people, and for those who do not conform can be a resource for harassment. Working with young people is clear to deconstruct gender stereotypes at a time of personal transformation offers more space for individuality at the same time as challenging the context in which harassment take place. Within these opportunities can be created to debate and explore the importance of bodily and sexual autonomy, personal space, privacy and sexual ethics.

PREVENTION PROGRAMMES ON SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Prevention programmes reported on in research are primarily focused on rape and sexual assault, with – especially in the US – an emphasis on university campuses, and some programmes training young women in self-defense skills. A recent review of women's self-defence in EU Member States suggests that whilst many of these these programmes are more focused on changing individual behaviour rather than on seeking to affect change at a community level it should, nonetheless, be regarded as a promising practice in terms of prevention (Kelly & Sharp-Jeffs, 2016).

Community based bystander intervention programmes are considered innovative in that the:

> … approach does not rely on identifying women as victims, messages which may promote defensiveness. It is believed that such an approach may reduce both men and women's resistance to rape prevention messages and enhance efforts to change broader group and community norms around sexual violence (Banyard et al., 2005: 2)

Most prevention programmes are run in single sex groups, based on the understanding that intervention needs to be targeted differently to girls and boys, due to the gendered distribution of victimisation and perpetration. However, casting young women as all potential victims and young men as all potential perpetrators risks reinforcing the very gender norms that programmes seek to disrupt (Schewe & O'Donohue 1993; Carmody 2006). Moira Carmody (2006) notes the danger of placing responsibility on young women for protecting themselves. A bystander approach avoids these positionings.

One such programme which has been used in universities and in military colleges (Potter et al., 2010) discovered that change was more effective when programmes combined different strategies with what they call "social self-identification". This is about whether the photos/names/locations depicted in materials enhance "an individual's ability to see himself or herself and a familiar context in the social marketer's message" (idem: 5). This programme adapts their basic framework to each new context, and is relevant to this project as it will be delivered in four different national contexts.

INTERVENTIONS IN SCH OOLS

In this section we provide a brief description of 3 primary prevention programmes delivered in schools settings with students and teachers and which have relevant aspects to the development of our Project. There is further information on prevention programmes in the table attached to this document. The table presents: author(s) and title, number of participants, a brief description of the programme and effectiveness where available.

GEAR PROJECT (2016)

This project[5] seeks train high school teachers to be agents of prevention through raising student awareness of gender equality and through this prevent VAW in the promotion of healthy, non-violent intimate relationships. The first phase involved working with teachers to build tools and strategies for use in the classroom. The aim is to integrate these primary prevention activities into

[5] Gernder Equality Awareness Raising Project

the school curriculum. The rationale for working with teachers was because they:

> *Work on a daily basis with adolescents and are the ones who may conduct the workshops in the classroom, they may have much more opportunities to positively influence students towards a zero tolerance attitude against violence against girls and women* (Ntinapogias et al., 2015: 8).

After the training, teachers can start to intervene with students in the classroom using the activities developed by the GEAR project.

A resource book with strategies for work has activities on: gender roles (society, job, etc.); sex and gender; deconstruction of gender stereotypes; intimate relationships; myths vs reality. There are no specific activities about sexual harassment because it is focused on gender violence in general.

UMAR: GENDER VIOLENCE PREVENTION IN SCHOOLS AND FAMILY PROGRAMME

Since 2005 UMAR[6] (Association of Women Alternative Answer) has been developing teacher training courses on gender violence prevention, which includes how to address incidents of violence. The UMAR training programme for teachers is framed by a feminist standpoint and has been developed in partnership with the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences at the University of Porto. The training programme has the following objectives: to sensitize and train teachers on gender discrimination, gender violence and gender equality; to provide tools for the development, by teachers, of primary prevention programmes (in the classroom and integrated into the curriculum); and to promote the creation of networks among teachers and schools in building and applying primary prevention programmes on domestic and intimate partnership violence.

AGENDA: A YOUNG PEOPLE'S GUIDE TO MAKING POSITIVE RELATIONSHIPS MATTER

AGENDA is a young people's guide using an innovative approach to prevention in Wales. The guide was created by 12 young people and 6 adults and led by Professor Emma Renold. It seeks to enable young people to develop their skills and to promote their right to speak out and change things that matter to them. The themes range from equality, diversity, and children's

[6] A feminist NGO from Portugal

rights to social justice. It promotes young people's autonomy and ability to come together and organise around themes which are important to them. The project does not rely on teachers to introduce themes and activities but rather on the students' interests and willingness to get involved in change. The guide is structured in a way that enables students to navigate freely around the document searching for themes and activities that catch their attention and has links to external websites, organizations and further information. There are also examples of art-based activities like drama, literature, music or visual arts that can be used to raise awareness.

Some of these examples may be of interest to our project and could be a starting point to develop our own activities. There is interesting focus on new technologies: from blogging and vlogging to digital magazines and online campaigns, petitions and social media platforms.

BYSTANDERS AND BYSTANDERS APPROACH

In general, the term *bystander* refers to someone who witnesses an event but chooses to stand by rather than intervene. The term bystander intervention makes clear that shift which is being sought is that they not stand by, but stand up and speak out. This means working with people to explore the best ways to intervene to the situation and context.

Latane and Darley (1970) were the first to develop this idea and use a five-step model to explain the process individuals must:

1. notice the event
2. interpret the situation as intervention-appropriate
3. take responsibility
4. decide how to help
5. intervene.

Based on this model Berkowitz (2009) also describes a 4 stage process involved with becoming an active bystander. The first three stages are broadly consistent with those identified by Latane and Darley (1970) but the fourth suggests that bystanders need to have the necessary skills to act.

1. Notice the event
2. Interpret it as a problem
3. Feel responsible for dealing with it
4. Possess necessary skills to act

In cases of sexual harassment, interpreting a situation as unacceptable will be one of the

most challenging steps for young people, since so much sexual harassment is dismissed as joking/banter/unimportant. enabling them to see this as part a continuum of violence and that it has harmful consequences are some of the things that Fenton, Mott, McCartan and Rumney (2016) identify as necessary for action to be considered appropriate. Empowerment through knowledge (Coy & Kelly, 2010) will be an important part of this intervention. To intervene a bystander needs to know not only when but also how to act, whilst considering their own safety. This can be as simple as walking a drunk friend home, explaining that rape is not funny to a group of friends and that violence against women is not acceptable or calling the police or other security figure when someone is being aggressive.

Research has also revealed some of the barriers that prevent bystanders from choosing to intervene. Banyard, Plante and Moynihan (2004) describe these in terms of social influence – including the "diffusion of

responsibility". When something happens in a large group many do not act because they think someone else will. If violence happens in small groups, the possibility of bystander intervention is higher. If these groups are cohesive, communicate effectively and have consensus in their perceptions of abuse, they are even more likely to intervene. Another factor which might increase intervention is when a victim asks for help or is visibly distressed.

However, fear of retaliation might inhibit a bystander. When a bystander believes that there is a relationship between victim and offender this may be a deterrent to intervention (Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). Bystanders' personal and situational characteristics are also involved in the decision making process – for instance, their gender, mood, number of witnesses and perception of danger (Fenton et al., 2016).

The bystander approach has been applied to sexual assault and domestic violence, but less so to sexual harassment. Considering its importance, some authors have been developing the bystanders approach in primary prevention programmes on sexual violence (Banyard et al., 2005; Katz et al., 2011). Approaches seek to create communities which intervene to interrupt victimisation, support the person who is being harmed and communicate to the perpetrator that their behaviour is unacceptable.

Using a bystander approach offers a different route into prevention, one in which young women and young men are located in the same position. This is considered an advantage since it creates an opportunity to form alliances for change, engaging a whole community to challenge social norms by enabling people to take action and alter attitudes which legitimise violence. This

type of intervention with no specific targets (i.e. girls and boys) also has potential for increasing student receptivity to the programmes from which, as Banyard, Plante and Moynihan (2004) suggest, other positive outcomes might follow.

According to Potter and colleagues (2009) a bystander programme can be defined as:

A peer-facilitated bystander education programme that trains participants to identify situations that could lead to sexual violence and to intervene in safe, nonviolent and prosocial ways before, during and after an incident with friends, acquaintances, or strangers. (idem:108)

This approach also considers different bystander opportunities; including reactive and proactive responses to a situation. Reactive responses are usually divided into primary prevention (before an assault), secondary prevention (during an assault), and tertiary prevention (after an assault). Proactive bystander intervention opportunities can be defined as positive actions that individuals take to demonstrate and promote commitment to addressing sexual violence and have no perceived risks (McMahon and Banyard, 2011). All community members should recognise that they have a role to play (Potter et al., 2009).

Evaluation surveys with students (pre and post intervention), key informants and focus groups alongside observation of programme delivery (initial, during and at the end of the intervention) are used to measure the programme's impact on students' knowledge, attitudes and behaviour changes.

When work to prevent violence against women is undertaken, a 'whole school' approach to addressing gender inequality is crucial (Womankind, 2010; Coy et al., 2013). The curriculum, school policies, pastoral support and school ethos all contribute to environments that enable or challenge harassment and the attitudes that condone it (Chakravorty, 2016). Involving the whole community holds the promise of changing local cultures. It is important to create what Dalton, Elias and Wandersman (2001) call "competent communities", characterised by a strong sense of community and responsibility for each other.

PEDAGOGY FOR BYSTANDERS INTERVENTION ON SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Research in the education field has shown that educational programmes which aim to change social values, cultural attitudes and behaviours, should be based on what is usually referred to as critical and/or transformative pedagogy.

Critical pedagogy contributes to changing social representations and attitudes towards social hierarchies; challenging the exclusionary practices of racism, sexism, classism, ableism and heterosexism in addition is challenges notions of pedagogy as only 'classroom instruction' (see, for example, Hoodfar 1992; Ledwith, 2007). As Hoodfar (1992) puts it, "there is a tacit agreement that a central objective of critical pedagogy is to encourage students to develop their ability to analyse and assess critically the social structure" (idem: 303). The author continues:

Students should be assisted to locate themselves, as well as others, in the social system so as to assess the way they and others have been shaped by and in turn shape their social environments, albeit to various degrees and in different directions depending on their social positions (op. cit.: 304).

Critical pedagogy usually starts with people's experience(s), enabling analysis of the dialectic between theory and practice. Shared knowledge is grounded in everyday life, based on both collective and individual experience.

Sexual harassment is embedded in social, cultural and interpersonal relations where power is actualised not only in social structures but also in everyday life, where power and domination emerges in more elusive forms. Children are socialised in values, ideas and preconceptions of gender, sex, race, sexuality. A requirement from this perspective in developing a primary prevention programme on sexual harassment is to create pedagogical conditions that enable these structures to be named and questioned

We propose that this project be located at the intersection of critical pedagogy and critical feminist theories on gender and education (Weiler, 1991).

Critical pedagogy encompasses different approaches in the educational context: content, active, dialogic and engaged pedagogy (Nagda et al., 2003). It is informed by the Freirean dialogical pedagogy where all learning is relational, and knowledge is produced through interaction. As Bartlett (2005) states:

> *Knowledge is not a piece of data, something immobilized, concluded, finished, something to be transferred by one who acquired it to one who still does not possess it."(…) Freire insisted that students are not blank slates, stating that "no one knows everything and no one is ignorant of everything." He suggested that students' experiences were a major source of their own knowledge* (idem: 346).

Many proponents link knowledge production with artistic/creative production. The practice of making and encountering art is thought-provoking and can impact individuals and communities by bringing up new perspectives (Sullivan, 2011). The use of artistic

methodologies is also of great interest to our project. Arts- based projects promote the engagement of students in creating new ideas for change. The active participation of students through creating art involves engaging with emotions, leading to greater motivation. Arts-based activities open up new spaces and opportunities for students to express and communicate complex thoughts (Barone, 2003). Art mediums can be valuable tools in giving students a voice and strengthening their feeling of belonging to the school community. Visual art products contribute to further reflection by people outside the project.

Critical and transformative pedagogy combining content activities and arts-based activities could be a useful approach to our project.

CONCLUSIONS

Sexual harassment is a contested concept. It is usually defined as any unwelcome behaviour of a sexual nature (physical, verbal and non-verbal acts, including social media) targeting the victim's sexuality and experienced as offensive or threatening. At the same time there is 'usefulness' in conceptualising sexual harassment as 'intrusions' – a term which encompasses 'a wider range of behaviours without predefining the ways they are experienced'. Harassment/intrusions have negative consequences for the victim's health and personal development.

Feminist and gender perspectives are crucial for the development of primary prevention programmes on sexual harassment because they locate the roots of violence within patriarchal cultures and gender inequality.

Many authors (Thompson & Trice-Black, 2012; Huth-Bocks, Schettini, & Shebroe, 2001; Wolfe & Jaffe, 1999) conclude that prevention needs to begin with raising awareness of sexual violence among young people and adolescents and that schools are an appropriate space for doing this.

In the programmes reviewed (see table attached), the number of sessions vary from one of 90 minutes to 20 hours of training for students and from one session (1-3 hours) to 50 hours of training for teachers. The number of participants varies from small groups of 15-20 students to more than 100 in awareness-raising sessions. Fenton et al., (2016) describe the criteria for effective prevention programmes as: a comprehensive programme; varied teaching methods; sufficient dosage; theory driven; positive relationships; appropriate timing; socio-culturally relevant; and well trained staff. One group of researchers argue that bystander programmes which work young women and men together are more effective (Banyard, Plante & Moynihan, 2004).

From this literature review we understand that effective bystander prevention programmes need to be transmitted (content pedagogy) in a clear and strong way (definition, causes and consequences). The message (content) should challenge myths and stereotypes about sexual harassment and recognise the harms it does.

The message that everyone has a role to play in challenging sexual harassment and that everyone has a responsibility to act in a certain situation is also fundamental to the efficacy of bystander programmes (Banyard, Plante & Moynihan, 2004). Alongside the content transmitted in the sessions, participants should be engaged in critical activities, reflecting upon and debating when and where sexual harassment occurs. Learning how to act/intervene should be a co-construction between students and facilitators. Critical and transformative pedagogy combining content activities and arts-based activities could be a useful approach to our project. The commitment of individuals is fundamental and that is why it is so important that programmes involve active participation.

Most of the projects we reviewed use a quantitative evaluation strategy. Some of them use both qualitative and quantitative methods. In quantitative evaluation surveys (pilot, pre and post) are used to measure the programme's impact on students' knowledge, attitudes and behaviour changes. The most common method with respect to qualitative evaluation is interviews with students (pre and post intervention), with key informants, focus groups and observation of programme delivery (initial, during and at the end of the intervention).

Our pedagogical strategy could be based on the Freirean perspective intersected with feminist pedagogy to critically analyse inequalities and power relations and promote the collective construction of social relations and political structures based on equality and justice.

REFERENCES

Alonso-Ruido, Patrícia; Rodriguez-Castro, Yolanda; Pérez-André, Carmen & Magalhães, Maria José (2015). "Estudio cualitativo en un grupo de estudiantes ourensanos/as sobre el fenómeno del Sexting", Revista de Estudios e Investigación en Piscología Y Educación, 13, 58-62.

Banyard, Victoria; Moynihan, Mary & Crossman, Maria (2009) "Reducing sexual violence on campus: the role of student leaders as empowered bystanders", *Journal of College Student Development*, 50(4), 446-457.

Banyard, Victoria; Moynihan, Mary & Plante, Elizabethe (2007) "Sexual violence prevention through bystander education: an experimental evaluation", *Journal of Community Psychology*, 35(4), 463-481.

Banyard, Victoria; Plante, Elizabethe & Moynihan, Mary (2005) "Rape prevention through bystander education: bringing a broader community perspective to sexual violence prevention" *Project Report*, U.S. Department of Justice.

Banyard, Victoria; Plante, Elizabethe & Moynihan, Mary (2004) "Bystander education: bringing a broader community perspective to sexual violence prevention" *Journal of Community Psychology*, 32(1), 61-79.

Barone, Tom (2003) "Challenging the educational imaginary: issues of form, substance, and quality in film- based research", *Qualitative Inquiry*, 9 (2), 202-217.

Bartlett, Lisley (2005) "Dialogue, knowledge, and teacher-student relations: Freirean pedagogy in theory and practice" *Comparative Education Review*, 49(3) 344-364.

Berkowitz, Alan (2009) *Response Ability: Complete Guide on Bystander Behavior*, Chicago: BECK & CO.

Bowes-Sperry, Lynn & O'Leary, Anne (2005) "To act or not to act: the dilemma faced by sexual harassment observers" *Academy of Management Review*, 30(2), 288-306.

Carmody, Moira (2006) "Preventing adult sexual violence through education?" *Current Issues* in Criminal Justice, 18(2), 342-356.

Connell, Raewyn (2010) *Confronting Equality: Gender, Knowledge and Global Change,* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence (2011). *Council of Europe*, available on: https://rm.coe.int/CoERMPublicCommonSearchServices/DisplayDCTMContent?documentId=090000168046031c, accessed in 30th November 2016.

Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (1979) Adopted in 1979 by the United Nations Geneal Assembly and instituted on 3rd September 1981, rtified by 189 countries.

Coy, M. and Kelly, L. (2010) *Islands in the Stream: An evaluation of four London independent domestic*

violence advocacy schemes London: London Metropolitan University, The Henry Smith Charity and Trust for London.

Coy, Madeleine; Kelly, Liz; Elvines, F., Garner, M. and Kanyeredzi, A. (2013) “Sex without consent, I suppose that is rape”: How young people in England understand sexual consent London: Office of the Children’s Commissioner.

Dalton, J. H., Elias, M. J. & Wandersman, A. (2001) Community Psychology: Linking Individuals and Communities. Belmont, CA. Wadsworth.

European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (2014) *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey - Main Results*, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Fenton, Rachel; Mott, Helen; McCartan, Kieran; Rumney, Philip (2016*) A review of evidence for bystander intervention to prevent sexual and domestic violence in universities*, London: Public Health England.

Fitzgerald, L. F., Gelfand, M. J. & Drasgow, F. (1995) “Measuring sexual harassment: Theoretical and psychometric advances” Basic and Applied Social Psychology 17(4):425-445.

Girlguiding UK (2015). Women and Equality Committee Inquiry: Sexual harassment and sexual violence in schools - Girlguiding Response. Available at: https://www.girlguiding.org.uk/globalassets/docs-and-resources/research-and-campaigns/sexual-harassment-in-schools-inquiry---girlguiding-response-may2016.pdf

Harvey, A.; Garcia, Moreno C.; Butchart, A. (2007) *Primary prevention of intimate partner violence and sexual violence: Background paper for WHO expert meeting May 2-3*, Geneva: World Health Organization, Department of Violence and Injury Prevention and Disability. Hester, Marianne & Lilley, Sarah-Jane (2016). Rape investigation and attrition in acquaintance, domestic violence and historical rape cases. Investigative Psychology and Offender Profiling, 14 (2), pp. 175-188. doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/jip.1469

Hill, Catherine & Kearl, Holly (2011) *Crossing the Line: Sexual Harassment at School*, Washington: American Association of University Women.

Hoodfar, Homa (1992) “Feminist Anthropology and Critical Pedagogy: The Anthropology of Classrooms’ Excluded Voices”, *Canadian Journal of Education*, 17(3), 303-320.

Huth-Bocks, A., Schettini, A., & Shebroe, V. (2001). Group play therapy for preschoolers exposed to domestic violence. Journal of Child and Adolescent Group Therapy, 11(1), 19–34.

Katz, Jackson; Heisterkamp, Alan & Fleming, Michael (2011) “The Social Justice Roots of the Mentors in Violence Prevention Model and Its application in a High School Setting” *Violence Against Women*, 17(6), 684-702.

Kelly, Liz (1987) “The continuum of sexual violence” in Hanmer and Maynard (eds) (1987) *Women, Violence and Social Control Atlantic Highlands*, NJ: Humanities Press International, 46-60.

Kelly, Liz (1998) Surviving Sexual Violence, Oxford, Polity Press.

Kelly, Liz & Sharp-Jeffs, Nicola (2016) The role of self-defence in the prevention of violence against women. European Parliament's Committee on Women's Rights and Gender Equality.

Lab, Steven (2014) *Crime Prevention: Approaches, Practices, and Evaluations*, Waltham: Routledge.

Larkin, J. (1997) Sexual terrorism on the street: The moulding of young women into subordination. In A. M. Thomas and C. Kitzinger (Eds), Sexual harassment: Contemporary feminist perspectives (pp.115-
130) Open University Press.

Latane, Bibb, & Darley, John M. (1970) *The unresponsive bystander: Why doesn't he help?* , New York: Appleton-Century Crofts.

Ledwith, Margaret (2007) On being critical: uniting theory and practice through emancipatory action research,
Educational Action Research, 15(4), 597-611.

MacKinnon, C. A. (1979) *Sexual harassment of working women: A case of sex discrimination*, New Haven: Yale University Press.

MacKinnon, C. A. (1987) Feminism unmodified: Discourses on life and law. Harvard University Press.

Magalhães, Maria José; Canotilho, Ana Paula & Brasil, Elisabete (2007) *Gostar de Mim, Gostar de Ti: aprender a prevenir a violência de género*, Porto: UMAR.

Mccan, Deirdre (2005) *Sexual harassment at work: National and international responses. Conditions of Work and Employment Programmeme* , 2, Geneva: International Labour Office.

McMahon, Sarah & Banyard, Victoria L. (2011) "When can I help? A conceptual framework for the prevention of sexual violence through Bystander intervention", *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, 13 (1), 3-14.

Meyer, Elizabeth (2008) *A Feminist Reframing of Bullying and Harassment: Transforming schools through critical pedagogy Journal of Education*, 43(1), 33-48.

Nagda, Biren; Gurin, Patricia & Lopez, Gretchen (2003) "Transformative Pedagogy for Democracy and Social Justice", *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 6(2), 165-191.

Ntinapogias, A., Petroulaki, K., & Tsirigoti, A. (2015) *Master Package "GEAR against IPV". Booklet I: Master Package and how to develop your own "GEAR against IPV" National Package*, Athens: European Anti-Violence Network.

Potter, Roberto; Krider, Jeanne & McMahon, Pamela (2000). Examining elements of campus sexual violence policies, *Violence Against Women*, 6, pp. 1345, 1362.

Potter, Sharyn; Moynihan, Mary; Stapleton, Jane & Banyard, Victoria (2009). “Empowering Bystanders to Prevent Campus Violence Against Women”, Violence Against Women, 15(1), 106-121.

Schewe Paul & O’Donohue, William (1993) “Rape prevention: Methodological problems and new directions”,

Clinical Psychology Review, 13, 667-682.

Stanko, Elisabeth Anne (1985) *Intimate Intrusions: Women’s experience of male violence*. London: Unwin Hyman.

Sullivan, Graeme (2011) “Artistic cognition and creativity” *The routledge companion to research in the arts*, Biggs & Karlsson (eds.), 99-119, New York: Routledge.

Taylor, Bruce G., Stein, Nan, & Burden, France F. (2010) “Exploring gender differences in dating violence/harassment prevention programmeming in middle schools: Results from a randomized experiment” *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 6(4), 419-445.

Thompson, E. Heather & Trice-Black, Shannon (2012) “School-Based Group Interventions for Children Exposed to Domestic Violence”, Journal of Family Violence, 27:233–241.

Timmerman, Greetje (2003) “Sexual Harassment of Adolescents Perpetrated by Teachers and by Peers: An Exploration of the Dynamics of Power, Culture and Gender in Secondary Schools” *Sex Roles*, 48(5/6), 231-244.

Torres, Anália; Costa, Dália; Sant’Ana, Helena, Coelho, Bernardo & Sousa, Isabel (2016) *Assédio sexual e moral no local de trabalho em Portugal*, Lisboa: Comissão para a Igualdade no Trabalho e no Emprego.

United Nations (1993) *Declaration of the Elimination of Violence against Women. Resolution 48/104 of 20 December 1993*, available on http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/reports.htm , accessed in December 2016.

Vera-Gray, F. (2016) “Men’s stranger intrusions: Rethinking Street Harassment”, Women’s Studies International Forum, 58: 9-17.

Weiler, Kethleen (1991). “Freire and a Feminist Pedagogy of Diference”. Havard Educational Review, 61(4), 449-474.

Wise, Sue & Stanley, Liz (1987) Georgie Porgie: Sexual harassment in everyday life. London: Pandora Press.

Wolfe, David A. & Jaffe, Peter G. (1999) “Emerging Strategies in the Prevention of Domestic Violence”, The Future of Children *Domestic Violence and Children*, Vol. 9 • No. 3 – Winter 1999.

Womankind (2010) Preventing Violence, Promoting Equality: A whole-school approach London: Womankind.

Women and Equalities Committee (2016) Sexual harassment and sexual violence in schools.

London: House of Commons.

World Health Organization (2002) “Sexual Violence” *World Report on Violence and Health*. 147-181.

Annex 1. Table of prevention programmes

Author (year); Title	sample	Activities	Results
Banyard, Victoria; Moynihan, Mary & Crossman, Maria (2009) Reducing Sexual Violence on Campus: The Role of Student Leaders as Empowered Bystanders	1 session (90 minutes) 2 groups of student leaders (a,b) Group a)residencehalladvisorsn=123 Groupb)studentswhostaffthestudent center n=73 Mean age: 20 years old (45% second academic year; 52% first or last academic year). Male - 79 participants Female - 117 participants	Phasesoftheprogram:1)introductiontothenotion of bystandersresponsibility;2)increasingknowledge about sexual violence - causes, consequences, some local statistics and examples of the positive difference that bystanders can do, 3)awareness about the importance of their own safety; 4) scenarios discussion that build specific skills; 5)participants write an individual plan of action; 6) participants write and sign a pledge to intervene that they take home.	This programme found scores from before and after the program to change significantly - participants reduced their rape myth acceptance, increased their bystander confidence and willingness to help, increased the pros of being bystanders, and decreased the cons. This program also worked equally well for both men and women. 89% participants would recommend the program
Banyard, Victoria; Moynihan, Mary & Plante, Elizabethe (2007) Sexual Violence prevention through bystander education: and experimental evaluation	versions of program: a) One session (90 min) Three session program (90 min each - same week) Ages: 18- 23. Paid for their time 217 women and 172 men Recruited using flyers posted around campus and through a recruitment table in the student union building	a) One session prevention program - Sessions developed by peer leaders previously trained in the prevention program. Contents: prevalence, cause and consequences of sexual violence, bystanders, what they would do if a friend approached them, participants own safety, using resources, bystander plan and sign a pledge. Active learning exercises. b) three session prevention program -. Same methodology and topics	demonstrated the utility of using a bystander approach to sexual violence prevention: participants from 1 and 3 session program show improvement. Both hadsignificantchangesaftertheprogram implementation but 3 session program found better results. Program was found to benefit both male and female participants

Katz,J.;Heisterkamp,H.& Fleming, M. (2011) The Social Justice Roots of the Mentors in Violence Prevention Model and Its application in a High School Setting.	16-20 hours of training Groups of student leaders (MPV mentors) from grades 9 to 12. n=894, 53% female 47% male	2 schools (one implemented MVP program the other did not). The TTT - Train the Trainer is divided in 2 phases: a)Introductionto MVPphilosophyandtosomeof the concepts (sexual assault, rape myths, gender roles, sexual harassment, heterosexism…) b) training to be trainer: how should a good facilitator behave? Discussion of dynamics, pedagogy, and program preparation	the programmes were evaluated in High School, College, Adult Professional and Military settings and has been proven to have statistically significant positive change in participant knowledge, attitude and behaviour. Regarding the work in schools Katz, Heisterkamp. and Fleming (2011) report that students exposed to MVP directly or indirectly reports more behaviours as being wrong than students not exposed to MVP programmes. No significant differences were found between students exposed to MPV programmes and students without the intervention with the regard of likelihood of intervening in less aggressive behaviours. This means that perceptions on wrong behaviours were significantly different but willingness to intervene was not, which is quite curious and needs further investigation.

Julie L. Whitman (s/d) Teen Action Toolkit	Resource with activities for educators, law enforcement personnel, outreach workers, victim service providers, youth workers, teens. This toolkit is divided in activities and handouts which can help with the activities.	**Act. 1-** chair's game - it is an icebreaker activity which intend to know the participants and as final goal, to do a statement about the implementation project. The person who does not have a place to sit, goes to the middle of the game. **Act. 2** - (break) Stereotypes between adults and youths. 3 different frames, each one with two columns Two groups: one with youths and another with adults. Each group writes in one frame the opinion about the other group. At the same time, the other group does the same about the first one. In the right column, each group write their opinion about what the first group think of them. Then, each one reads what they did and they need to share their feeling about this. The last frame is to write ideas to break the stereotypes associated to these groups. **Act. 3** - Conflict Resolution (it is a great activity, but needs to be adapted) People will be divided in groups. Each group writes in a paper a conflict that someone had or witnessed. The same group will provide three solutions for this conflict. All papers will be mixed and read for all the class. Each person notes which of the three possible responses is closest to the way he or she normally acts in situations of conflict: A, B, or C. If someone has a	

		different response that doesn't fit into the A/B/C categories listed above, it can be noted as option D. The last thing is to discuss their answers. **Act.4 -** A Motivational Activity: To Write two questions on the board: 1. Why do you want to help teen victims of crime? 2. What do you hope to get out of this project? Each person writes in a paper their opinions and then, whoever wants to, can share with the rest of the group. **Act. 5 -** Crime/Victimization Vocabulary Words: Abuse, Crime, Victimization, Trauma, Violence, Resource, Resilience Write these words in a heavy paper and cut each word. Then, each words needs to be cut in pieces (e.g. Vict, imi, za, tion). Shuffle all pieces and distributed by the students. Each person has to search for the complement. When they find it, the group will try to define the concept of the word.	