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GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE, STALKING AND FEAR OF CRIME

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GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE, STALKING AND FEAR OF CRIME

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background to the study

Between 1994 and 2002 a series of 23 rapes of young women occurred in Bochum, Germany near the Ruhr University. The incidents received a great deal of media attention in the city and surrounding districts, led to the setting up of a special police commission (still in existence today), and the DNA profiling of 10,000 men in the region. Unsurprisingly, it triggered a great deal of uncertainty, particularly among female students at local Higher Education (HE) institutions. These "stereotypical" incidents of violent sexual assault – involving an unknown perpetrator who attacks his victim outdoors, at night, and subdues them using a weapon – continue to exist in the collective consciousness of female students as the "typical" form of sexual violence, affecting young women's sense of safety and security accordingly. Incidents of this sort have important consequences for health and negative implications for study and could conceivably happen at any European university.

A number of questions have arisen in light of these incidents at Bochum. For example, to what extent, and in what ways, are female students in Europe actually affected by gender-based sexual violence? What are the factors that influence young women's sense of safety and security? With regards to this second question, to what extent and in what specific ways can universities, as places where young women spend their daily lives for substantial periods, be held accountable when sexual assaults occur, not least in terms of how they should respond to such experiences? Since there have been no systematic studies in European countries to date addressing these questions, the primary available data come from campus research carried out in North America. These data indicate high prevalence rates of sexual violence on campus, often matched by a zero tolerance policy on the part of universities, involving binding rules of behaviour for both students and teachers (United States Department of Justice, 2007). However, due to socio-cultural differences in Higher Education environments, campus culture, and legislation, it is not possible to assume that these findings reflect the situation in Europe or to take American research as a basis for developing recommendations for prevention and response at European universities. It is also the case that differences exist within Europe in terms of prevalence, forms, and ways of dealing with sexual violence. In this regard, empirical research in selected countries of the European Union (EU) was urgently needed, partly to generate insights and understanding about the problem, and partly to provide Higher Education institutions with the necessary knowledge on which to base approaches (in terms of both policy and practice) that can effectively address violence. Including a range of different countries in such research, with their very different experiences, reactions, and responses to this sensitive issue, enables a broad range of effective and appropriate measures for preventing gender-based sexual violence to be developed. It also enables the development of practical ways of confronting and responding to sexual violence incidents at universities.

The application to conduct a research project entitled "Gender-based Violence, Stalking and Fear of Crime" was made by a consortium of five European partner universities. It received funding within the European Commission's programme "Prevention of and Fight against Crime" run by the Justice, Freedom, and Security Directorate. As such, it is linked to the European Council's explicit declaration of intent

to protect women from sexual violence. Sexual violence is interpreted as a manifestation of historically unequal power relations between men and women. Consequently, there is the need to protect females from all forms of gender-based (sexual) violence by creating a comprehensive political and legal framework that includes victim support measures.

1.2 An interdisciplinary approach to a complex phenomenon: Study objectives

Are female students, due to their age and lifestyle, especially at risk from various forms of sexual violence? The aim of the three-year European-wide research project was to verify this hypothesis and to collect, analyse, and compare relevant data in five European countries. The results and recommendations emerging from the project are presented as part of this publication.

The victimisation of young women through sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence, their fear of crime, and their need for support, were the subject of a survey administered at universities in Germany, Italy, Spain, Poland, and England, to which some 22,000 students responded. In order to develop a comprehensive and interdisciplinary approach, this quantitative data collection was undertaken alongside qualitative analysis of material gathered through interviews with female students and experts working within support services and the criminal justice system. By undertaking a trans-national comparison of the quantitative and qualitative data gathered, the study also sought to draw valid conclusions around socio-cultural factors and how gender-based sexual violence experiences and perceptions differed across countries.

In 2010 and 2011 two surveys were administered at a total of 35 Higher Education institutions in the five European partner countries. Students were asked about their sense of safety at their university, the ways and extent to which they had been affected by sexual harassment, stalking or sexual violence, the consequences these have had on well-being (defined in terms of mental and physical well-being and impact on education), whether they told anyone about the incident and if so, whom. Students were also asked about their awareness of support services and the kinds of support they would ideally like to receive if faced with gender-based sexual violence. Through the research process it became apparent that the survey itself had served as a means of generating greater awareness around the everyday nature of sexual violence for those women surveyed:

> "I was surprised that I had so much to say. I had already virtually forgotten about my experiences or suppressed them and thought I'd have to put a tick next to "no" all the time. Now I've become aware of the fact that it's almost normal for a woman to have experienced this or that negative incident." (Female student in online questionnaire)

The results from the study will fill a gap in relevant research on violence by investigating the introductory hypothesis above, namely, that female students are affected to a higher than average extent by incidents of sexual violence – due to their age and life circumstances – when compared with other national studies on gender-based sexual violence.

1.2.1 Organisation of the study

The study was organised by gathering quantitative and qualitative data and analysing these in relation to a range of key questions. This was done in two stages, namely, for each partner country and also in a comparison between all partner countries. For this purpose an analytic review was undertaken of female European university students' experiences of gender-based sexual violence, which also drew upon wider international research on the issue. This provided the context in which the current studies outcomes could be embedded and where possible, compared (see **2. A review of the extant research**).

An online survey tool was developed and piloted in order to test the utility of this kind of instrument amongst the target group. This was done to ensure that the questions asked about incidents of sexual violence had been properly designed and thoroughly pre-tested (see **3.1 Methodology**). In order to guarantee optimum trans-European comparability and to ensure that the same issues were explored and analysed in the same way in all partner countries: 1) a core team (at Bochum University, Germany) coordinated the work and incorporated revisions into the research instruments, 2) annual steering group meetings took place to discuss procedure, survey design and analysis methods, and 3) standardised data entry systems, database structures, and core syntaxes were used by all the partners.

Having piloted the online questionnaire, it ran in two waves, A and B, first at all partner universities in winter 2009/10 (A) and second at participating universities in the five countries in winter 2010/11 (B).

The first online survey (wave A) conducted at the five partners' home universities was downloaded by a total of 13,670 female students, of which 8,111 respondents completed it (2,593 at Ruhr University Bochum; 2,393 at Bologna University; 2,226 at Jagiellonian University Cracow; 416 at Keele University UK; and 483 at Autonomous University of Barcelona). The comments contributed by female students referred to multiple issues, many of which highlighted the awareness-raising aspect of the survey:

> "I think that improvement of women's security is very important, because unpleasant experiences in sexual issues influence a woman's whole life. In our country it is hard to receive help because women are ashamed to ask for it. Often even close friends consider women to be guilty." (Polish female student in the Cracow survey)

Others referred to the responsibility of the home university to provide adequate services to women who has experienced victimisation:

> "…You identify with the university, so there's less hesitation there, because there's a connection, unlike some service run by the city council. So, yes, I do think it's quite important that there should be something like that." (German female student in the Bochum survey)

Finally, the need for specific data in order to be able to implement meaningful prevention tools at university was mentioned:

> "As a researcher, I consider scientific investigation an important part of a decision-making process, necessary to introduce changes." (British female student in the Keele survey)

In the online questionnaire (wave A) female respondents were asked to volunteer to take part in focus group interviews. In total, 143 female students took part in 20 focus group interviews and four in-depth interviews (see **4.1 Focus group interviews with female students**). All partners decided against only engaging those female students who had experienced victimisation. However, nearly all the interviewees who self-selected for further participation in the study had been affected by some form of gender-related violence during their time at university.

The students typically viewed the project as an "initial spark" that might initiate a change in attitude towards the problems of gender violence. Generally, female students felt they had been taken seriously by their universities as a consequence of the project:

> "I think it's wonderful that this kind of research is being done. It shows that it is important to the university that their students feel at ease on campus." (German student)

> "I am pleased that the Jagellonian University decided to address the issue of violence against women, since it seems to me that the problem is large and has so far been absent in the environment, perhaps from a desire to protect the employees of the university." (Polish student)

Interviews were also conducted with university-based and external professionals. The five research partners talked to a total of 71 stakeholders in and outside the university in 60 expert interviews (see **4.2 Interviews with stakeholders**). The aim here was to record the opinions of relevant stakeholders concerning the extent and nature of gender-based sexual violence against female university students and to gather recommendations for meaningful preventive work and creation of response measures.

The national rollout in every partner country took place in winter 2010/11 (wave B). Overall, 21,516 female student respondents at 34 universities took part (see **3.1.2 National rollout**). The comments of the participating female students on the project's benefits highlighted – as in wave A – the awareness-raising effects of the survey and the issue of support for victimised women:

> "It really made me feel good. At some moments unpleasant feelings came up, but the questions were asked with the necessary sensitivity. Thank you for helping to make a better world." (Spanish student in survey B)

Respondents also expressed satisfaction that their home university took seriously the feelings and fears of its students and intended to develop response tools:

> "It is true that you ask for very intimate information, but the anonymity always encourages the timid person to speak. I hope this helps other people having bad times for this reason, and I also hope this little "effort" results are useful." (Spanish student in survey B)

During the preparation of the national rollouts, the universities' executive boards as well as the university administration and – where they existed – Equal Opportunities Officers were in charge of implementing the survey. Various stakeholders from the national universities worked in close contact with the relevant project teams in order to organise the implementation of the questionnaire. They considered the outcomes of the survey to be very helpful for their work and for future developments at the university:

> "The results will help us a lot with our work on another project in which this university is participating ("Discrimination-free University"). In that context we're currently thinking about putting in place an ombudsman system, so the students' responses about the counselling and advice situation are extremely useful for that. I'll present the Presidium with a summary of the set of issues to do with the architectural situation; I reckon there are quite a few things that could be improved here on campus. The student union is also looking closely at this issue at the moment and wants me to let them have the results from the survey to use in their discussions. All in all it seems to me that a whole lot is coming out of this survey." (Equal Opportunities Officer at Ruhr University Bochum, in survey B)

Following the analysis of the overall data, discussions about recommended prevention and response tools for universities were held in collaboration with the staff of the relevant universities who were responsible for experiences of (sexual) violence in the broadest sense. Depending on the situation at the different partner universities, the project teams reported the study results and discussed their significance with specialised working groups or units (such as "Fair Treatment for Staff and Students" at Ruhr University Bochum/Germany and the Residence Hall Manager and Student Support Office at Keele University/UK). As these units are responsible for implementing prevention and response measures, the project teams established a process of ongoing consultation with the relevant university stakeholders who in turn passed on the information and outcomes to other units concerned with these issues (see **5. Prevention and response model**).

The quantitative and qualitative results are placed in the context of current research on gender-based violence. This forms the basis for those recommendations made to universities aimed at protecting female students from sexual assaults through the implementation of a holistic framework containing policy and practice measures. The extent to which universities should feel responsible, or are responsible, for responding to gender-based sexual violence is raised again in this context. Further research questions are formulated on the basis of the results from the present study (see **6. Conclusions**).

1.2.2 European partners in research: The participating universities

The current EU research was coordinated at the Department of Criminology at Ruhr University Bochum in Germany, the named beneficiary of the project. The composition of the consortium guaranteed a multidisciplinary approach suited to develop a

comprehensive understanding of gender-based sexual violence against female students. It was carried out by the following five European partner institutions:

1) Chair of Criminology, Faculty of Law at Ruhr University Bochum/Germany

The Ruhr University Bochum (RUB) is a non-profit public body and one of the 10 largest universities in Germany, with more than 34,000 students and 5,500 employees (including about 400 professors). In 2006, the Ruhr University Research School of the RUB became part of the German government's "Excellence Initiative" programme, which promotes top-quality university research. Since its inauguration in 1974, the Chair of Criminology, Criminal Policy, and Police Science has established a notable reputation as one of the main educational and research institutions in the fields of criminology and police science in Germany. The early focus on a more practically oriented approach, adopted in close cooperation with police and governmental institutions, led to a variety of research projects at both national and international level.

The Chair of Criminology at Ruhr University Bochum hosts an interdisciplinary team of researchers in the disciplines of criminology, economics, law, education, political, and other social sciences. The department has long-standing practical experience in (qualitative) research, especially in collaboration with German public security institutions in several different contexts. Other projects in the department have been run in cooperation with international partners, e.g. the international research project "police use of force", which dealt with the ultra vires actions of police officers and was completed in 2005 (Klukkert et al., 2009). The project "policing the streets of Europe" was completed in 2007.

2) Interdepartmental Centre for Research on Victimology and Security at Bologna University/ Italy

The "Centro Interdipartimentale di Ricerca sulla Vittimologia e sulla Sicurezza" (or C.I.R.Vi.S.) was founded at the University of Bologna in 1991 and owes its existence to the interests and efforts of a variety of Departments including Sociology, Psychology, Education Sciences, the Institute of Forensic Medicine, and the Department of Legal, Economic, and Business Studies. As a result of its interdisciplinary approach, it seeks to address a large number of subjects from different fields of study and research. This approach is particularly important in relation to the study and analysis of crime, security and victimisation undertaken at the Centre.

3) Faculty of Law and Administration at Jagiellonian University Cracow/Poland

With almost 6,500 students, 34 departments and 122 academic staff, the Faculty of Law and Administration at Jagiellonian University Cracow is one of the biggest Law Faculties in Poland. The Department of Sociology of Law has existed since the 1970s. In recent years the Department and its staff have been involved in many empirical research projects. The main topics have included problems around the awareness of laws in Polish society, the application of laws, attitudes towards the law, and towards selected branches of law. Other topics include the dynamics of (social) values in law during the period of social transformation and reconstruction and citizens' opinions about the functioning of law courts in Poland.

4) "Antigona" research group, Department of Political Science and Public Law, Faculty of Law at the Autonomous University of Barcelona UAB/Spain

The Department of Political Science and Public Law includes four areas of knowledge: Political Science and Administration, Constitutional Law, Criminal Law, and Philosophy of Law. The current project was coordinated within the framework of the research group "Antigona", within the area of Philosophy of Law. It is a research group addressing law and society from a gendered perspective and is recognised by the government of Catalonia. The main areas of research have been: gender and public policies, legal theory, gender violence, feminist criminology, and gender equality at local, national, and European levels.

5) Research Institute for Law, Politics and Justice at Keele University/UK

Keele University is a research-based university founded in 1949 to promote interdisciplinarity and multidisciplinarity, both in education and research. The Research Institute for Law, Politics and Justice has its origins in the major re-structuring of Keele University in 2006 in keeping with the then government's policy initiative to promote research. This institute brings together a substantial group of researchers working in the fields of - and exploring the interdisciplinary links between - law and ethics, politics and international relations and crime, security, and justice. The Research Institute for Law, Politics and Justice is committed to research of excellent quality with a focus on knowledge transfer and engagement with end users. To that end it has built on existing research groups at Keele University.

1.3 Female students as a high-risk group for sexual violence?

1.3.1 The tertiary-type A sector in the participating countries and the proportion of women in that sector

The process of creating a joint European area of Higher Education, and thus restructuring each country's Higher Education system, was initiated by the 1999 Bologna Declaration and involved reforming the structure and content of the courses on offer to students. A two-tier course structure – Bachelors (BA) and Masters (MA) – has largely replaced the qualifications in place up to this point and is intended to offer greater flexibility in Further Education options as well as international compatibility between courses. While the two or three-tiered system of study (including PhD level) has existed in Britain for some time, the tiered approach has only recently been introduced into Germany, Italy, Poland, and Spain, where it cannot be assumed that there has been comparable, uniform development in each country's Higher Education system. This is the case with regards to the breadth of study courses (varying time scales and exceptions in certain subject areas), and their duration. Although 3+2 years for Bachelors and Masters is the basic model, numerous deviations from this exist. In Britain, for example, Masters courses generally last one year (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Wissenschaft, 2005). In addition to having different systems of Higher Education, there are also historical and cultural differences between different countries' student populations in terms of age (including age of access to Higher

Education) and social background. For example, students in Britain and Poland enter Higher Education at the age of 18. In Italy they are 19, in Spain 19-20, and in Germany 19-21 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2011). Similarly, the age at which students attain their first degree qualification varies considerably between the project countries: in Britain it is 20-25, in Spain 22-23, in Italy 23, in Poland 23-25, and in Germany 24-27. Differences also exist in the various countries with regard to the extent to which socio-economic background has an impact on student access to Higher Education. For example, socio-economic background is a particularly significant factor in Germany: its negative impact is higher than the average defined by the OECD (2011). By contrast, Poland, Spain, and Britain fall within the OECD average, although there are gradations among the three countries. Socio-economic background is least significant in Italy, thus ranking below the OECD average. This picture could be correlated with the percentage of the total population of a year group that enters Higher Education: in Germany, just 40 percent of a year group enters a Higher Education study programme. However, looking at the other project countries, the original assumption that the impact of socio-economic background may be correlated with the number of people entering Higher Education in a year group appears to not be applicable. In Italy just 50 percent of a year group enters a Higher Education institution, in Spain and Britain the figure is 61 percent, and in Poland 85 percent. This may be due to country-specific differences in the way education policy is put into practice, which in turn affects the regulations regarding Higher Education access and student financial support (grants systems).

One of the key aims of the Bologna Declaration, which was due to be completed by 2010, was to reform Bachelors and Masters programmes in a gender-equitable way in terms of structure and content:

> "The need to increase competitiveness must be balanced with the objective of improving the social characteristics of the European Higher Education Area, aiming at strengthening cohesion and reducing social and gender inequalities both at national and at European level." (Conference of Ministers responsible for Higher Education, 2003. p.1)

The aim of establishing flexible learning pathways, including part-time study options and improved ways of structuring the study process, was to accommodate women's specific life/work situations and to help improve the degree of compatibility between study/work and family.

Table 1: Number of universities and other tertiary education institutions within partner countries

Country	Universities	Percentage of tertiary-type A qualifications awarded to women (2009) Resource: OECD, 2011	Other Higher Education Institutions
Germany (2011)	134	55.1%	106
Italy	58	not specified	31
Poland	400	65.0%	181
Spain	73	59.9%	not specified
UK (2010)	115	55.7%	131

Women comprise the majority of students and graduates in all the partner countries. In relation to the overall numbers of students in 2009, 30 percent of the female student population in Germany graduated (27 percent of men graduated), 38.9 percent of the women in Italy (26.5 percent of men), 64.3 percent in Poland (36.5 percent of men), 34.7 percent in Spain (20.5 percent of men), and 53.8 percent in Britain (42 percent of men). Whilst in Germany there are few differences between the proportion of female and male graduates, the difference in favour of women in Poland accounts for more than 25 percentage points and in Spain, 14 percentage points. In all of these countries, women dominate the fields of education (generally more than 70 percent), health (between 68 percent and 76 percent), humanities (between 60 percent and 70 percent), and social sciences (between 52 percent and 68 percent). By contrast, they constitute only 22-33 percent of graduates in engineering and construction. In the natural sciences, the proportion of women is between 38.2 percent (Britain) and 44 percent (Germany). Between 2000 and 2009 the proportion of women studying natural sciences increased by 10 percentage points in Germany thanks to greater efforts to boost numbers in this field (OECD, 2011).

Table 2: Graduates from tertiary education, by field of education and gender, in the European Member States (Eurostat, 2009)
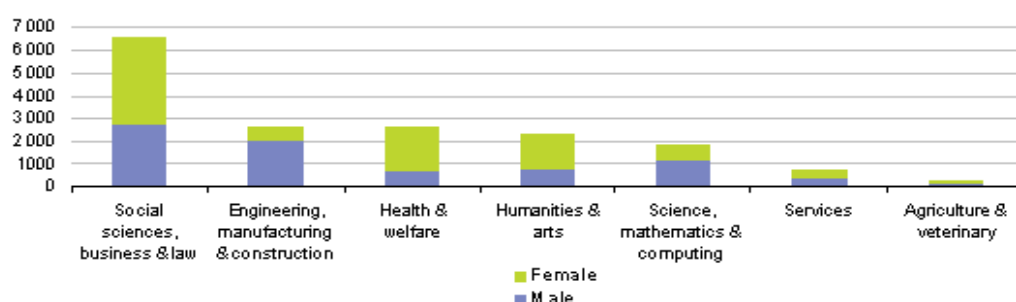
(1) Refer to the Internet metadata file (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/en/educ_esms.htm).
Source: Eurostat (online data code: educ_enrl5)

In assessing the Bologna Declaration and its contribution to women's educational opportunities, there are indications implicating a lack of impact. For example, a greater proportion of women appear to leave Higher Education once they have completed their Bachelors degree: in Germany, for example, 53.9 percent of female students (46.1 percent of male students) completed a Bachelors degree but only 40.7 percent of female students completed a Masters (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2008). Whether women take up a Masters course at a later date (after a period of work or raising a family, for example) is not yet known. Apart from Britain, with its longstanding two-tier system of study, there are no comparative figures available for other European countries. Looking at the figures for Britain, the assumption that women end their academic training after their first degree appears to be confirmed: in 2004 56.8 percent of women attained a Bachelors degree whilst only 51.3 percent attained a Masters. Conversely, the percentage of men increases from 43.2 percent (BA) to 48.7 percent (MA). Forty-six percent of women and 54 percent of men go on to complete a PhD (Mok, 2006).

Within a framework of European comparison, female graduates are older on average than their male counterparts. In Britain, for example, 16.8 percent of first degree

female graduates in 2003/4 were over thirty years of age (as opposed to 11.6 percent of men) while in 2008 the figure was 9.1 percent (6.1 percent of men) (OECD, 2011). In Poland in 2008, 10.5 percent of women were older than thirty compared to 4.8 percent of men. This suggests that women start their careers later and have a shorter working life, with the associated social and economic implications. It also suggests that women spend longer at university and may consequently be faced with greater expense.

Although there are considerable similarities in the proportion of female graduates, and their preferred study subjects, in the countries under review, European comparisons are made difficult by the noted differences across countries. That is, age of institutional entry and graduation, course structure and duration, as well as socio-economic background factors, which all implicate that there is not a "standard type" of female European student. This leads to further questions around whether there are also European differences in students' experiences of gender-based sexual violence and the conditions under which such experiences occur. Indeed, it is clear from the current study's quantitative data that a female student's experience of gender-based sexual violence, and the way she copes with it, is influenced by whether she is a younger woman away from home for the first time or a woman in her mid-20s living with family. It is also likely to be influenced by the form of assault that is experienced and although difficult to measure, the normative cultural environment of the partner country concerned.

University-based factors have an influence on women's experiences of safety and sexual assaults, such as the spatial layout and social facilities available at a university. The way in which institutions are designed, often in terms of their connections to the surrounding environment (traditional campus-based, non-traditional campus-based, non campus-based, urban versus rural universities), has advantages and disadvantages that impact on students' studies, the way they organise their time, and their access to university facilities, events, buildings, and public transport (Flade and Rölle, 2004). In terms of the use of public and semi-public space – which a university has – women's sense of safety is an important factor, especially during hours of darkness. When universities come to address the architectural and planning details of their facilities, it is important therefore that they avoid constructing spaces/buildings that generate feelings of fear, but instead support students to feel safe and at ease on campus. The organisation of social communities at university also has an influence on the potential for violence (Barton *et al.*, 2010). This may potentially be more related to campus-based universities which provide a predominantly self-enclosed "community life" where students live in closely located premises and socialise together in groups. Unfortunately, due to the anonymity of those who responded to the online questionnaire, and the lack of information about the type of campus system in operation at respondents' institutions, it is not possible to draw firm conclusions from the current study on this issue.

1.3.2 Support services in the participating countries

Gender-based sexual violence arises from the complex interaction between individual, social, interpersonal, cultural, and environmental factors and results in significant social and economic costs (European Parliament, the Legislative Observatory, 2011). It impact on health and security-related services undermine (mainly women's) feelings of safety and reduces productivity and well-being. Public responses to gender-based violence include health sector strategies that often focus on changing behavioural,

social, and environmental variables. Given that the health impacts of sexual violence take a variety of physical, emotional, and sexual forms (Thümmler, 2009) and are typically more extensive and hidden than purely physical injuries, prevention activities need to be geared towards the communities (e.g. the university community) in which the violence occurs. At the same time, it may be the community context that serves as a risk factor for experiencing gender-based violence (Krug *et al.*, 2002). This raises important questions as to whether female students are faced with social and cultural norms when at university that cultivate gender roles in specific ways (Barton *et al.*, 2010), and which somehow relate to their experiences of gender-based sexual violence. The analysis of the qualitative data in the present study offers some important observations on this topic.

A social welfare sector dealing with incidents, and impacts, of sexual violence exists in each of the partner countries – albeit to a varying extent. Victimised women can, depending on their needs and wishes, apply to shelters, Rape Crisis centres, utilize help-lines, advocacy projects, and/or survivor groups. By signing the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action for Equality, Development and Peace (BPfA), all European Member States have recognised their responsibility for the advancement of women, including the critical area of violence against women. Therefore, European Member States have statutory obligations under the BPfA to take all reasonable measures to prevent, investigate, and punish all forms of female violence. While victim support strategies have a strong reputation in some of the participating partner countries, in others, such measures are still lacking. Overall, support for victims can be regarded as an area in need of advancement. Whilst some countries are developing and running an innovative system of service provision, others struggle with a lack of basic public service. There are a number of reasons for this: the existence (or lack) of (feminist) initiatives that take violence against women seriously, knowledge about the extent and nature of gender-based sexual violence and, linked to this, national policy on providing public services to victims of sexual violence.

Even in those countries with well established social services, there are some areas – not just geographically but also in terms of specific forms of violence – where service provision is lacking. For example, services dealing with domestic violence are fairly readily available and provide adequate support, in principle, to all those needing it. However, violence directed against minority ethnic women, disabled women or those living in rural areas often remains under reported and under documented. Close collaboration between governments and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) is an urgent necessity in order to support survivors and ensure the availability of relevant/quality support services.

Table 3: Availability of victim support services in partner countries

Country	Shelters No./places available	Rape Crisis	Helplines National/regional	Advocacy projects	Survivor groups
Germany	346/6,968	Available	0/74	Available	Available
Italy	54/500	Available	1/113	www.antiviolenzadonne.it list of advocacy projects and survivor groups for each Italian region	
Poland	1/26	Available	0/No data	Unknown	Unknown
Spain	148/4,500	Available	1/17	Available	Available
UK	685/3,890	Available	4/36	Available	Available

Resource: Kemik *et al* (2010).

The partner countries also differ widely in terms of the availability of institutional structures to support victims within Higher Education settings. Whilst certain countries have a wide range of university services and people available to turn to, others provide very few professionals and/or no specific service through which a victim can seek support. Although having a greater number of available services gives women the chance to choose which service they prefer (as well as greater anonymity), victimised students may often refrain from contacting professionals at university who deal with incidents of gender-based sexual violence because they are afraid of losing their anonymity. The willingness of survivors to utilize support services also depends on the degree to which the different types of sexual violence are perceived "taboo" subjects in the country concerned.

Table 4: University services dealing with incidents of sexual violence at national partner universities

Country	Professionals/university services provided
Germany	Equal Opportunities Officer, Counselling Service, Student Residences Manager, Student Support Committee
Italy	Equal Opportunities Officer, Psychological Help Student Center, Commission on Violence against Women, Guarantor
Poland	Student Governor, Student Dormitories Officer, University Legal Clinic Coordinator
Spain	Observatory for Equality, Ombudsman, Psycho-Pedagogic Counselling, Labour Health Service
UK	Student Support and Anti-harassment Officer, Student Discipline and Complaints Officer, University Security Personnel, allocated Regional Police Constables and Police Community Support Officers, Residence Hall Managers, Student Union Gender Officer, Women's Society Officer, Student Counsellor

As this list shows, the services available at universities in the different countries fulfil different tasks and a variety of labels are given to the person or service providing support. This makes it difficult to make a comparative assessment of the merits of the

services available at universities in different countries. Furthermore, it is not known what powers the professionals providing support have in terms of implementing measures to protect the victim (such as restraining orders on campus). It is assumed that these powers are organised and regulated in different ways at the partner institutions. The way in which support services are organised, the way protective measures are regulated, the authority accorded to the service in question, and the publicity around the availability of the service itself, are all important factors in female students' decisions to use or reject university services. Finally, research findings stress that "currently, services are not sufficient in capacity, geographical distribution, and quality" (European Commission, 2010. p.19). As the provision of services is the principal responsibility of each Member State, there is no legal basis for EU-wide preventive measures. It therefore seems advisable for Member States to follow the EU Directive which stipulates: "each Member State shall ensure that victims who are particularly vulnerable can benefit from specific treatment best suited to their circumstances" (Council of the European Union, 2001. Article 2). The sharing of information on good practice, which is an aim of the current project, is one important way for institutions of Higher Education in Europe to benefit from each other's experience. Such sharing of knowledge will be instrumental in developing and implementing quality standards and procedures to support women who have experienced gender-based sexual violence at universities.

In considering the above issues, questions arise as to whether university policy and responses to violence reflect the modern realities of the phenomenon. For example, do they consider new forms of sexual violence such as Internet-based harassment? Having an empirically grounded and theoretically robust analysis of the prevalence and nature of gender-based sexual violence against female university students will give stakeholders and policy makers a better understanding of the realities of such violence and the costs incurred by both university and student. Additionally, the current project asks about the need to establish formal responsibility, at the level of university management, to effectively address the problem of gender-based sexual violence within the university community. The current research therefore provides insights on whether such suggestions are perceive practical.

1.4 The challenge of comparability

1.4.1 Violence against women: From a shared definition to a comprehensive understanding

One of the outcomes of the 4th World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995 was the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action for Equality, Development and Peace (BPfA). In this document, violence against women was identified as one of twelve critical areas of concern and one of the major barriers to achieving gender equality. Former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan stated that violence against women is:

> "... Perhaps the most shameful human rights violation, and it is perhaps the most pervasive. It knows no boundaries of geography, culture or wealth. As long as it continues, we cannot claim to be making real progress towards equality, development, and peace." (Annan, 1999)

The European Council has provided a common legislative framework for European Member States to guide their commitment to combating sexual violence against women, manifested in country-specific strategic objectives and legal measures. Whilst the main responsibility for promoting and protecting women's human rights lies with national governments, the European Union supports its Member States in taking action and implementing measures in this field. Violence against women is defined as:

> "A violation of human rights and a form of discrimination against women and shall mean any act of gender-based violence that result in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life." (United Nations, 1993. Article 1)

Any understanding of sexual violence that regards the phenomenon as a widespread structural problem, and one that prevents women from achieving their full (personal and social) potential, must necessarily include a gender-sensitive approach that takes into consideration social structures, gender norms, and gender roles. Violence against women involves different forms of violence which are nonetheless linked in multiple ways. Indeed, all types of violence against women share a number of common similarities. One such similarity is the persistence of myths and victim/perpetrator stereotypes that serve to sustain such violence. Other similarities include the impacts and consequences of violence including the internalisation of feelings of shame and self-blame (Kelly and Lovett, 2005). Sexual harassment, assault, and rape, as well as stalking, are all types of gender-based violence on which the current research project has focused.

The lack of comparable data across Europe is a major challenge in dealing with questions concerning the extent and nature of violence against women, women's perceptions of safety, and the development of measures to prevent and eliminate gender-based sexual violence. In addition, the disclosure of violence to (legal) authorities and educational institutions is compounded by under-reporting, further rendering the task of producing comparative and accurate data problematic. Methodological inadequacies also impact on sexual violence research and include a lack of standardised data collection approach which again makes it difficult to achieve a comparable and comprehensive understanding of gender-based sexual violence in Europe. In this regard, the manual "Researching Violence Against Women" (Ellsbery and Heise, 2005) had highlighted the need for methodologically rigorous sexual violence research that employs a variety of innovative techniques. Meanwhile, the European project "Co-ordinated Action on Human Rights Violations (CAHRV)" (2004-2007) has developed standards for data collection and conceptual frameworks for comparative data analysis. It has also adapted and tested a variety of research instruments for collecting data on gender-based violence, to which the present research project adheres (see **3: Methodology**).

1.4.2 Is sexual violence and related legal practice the same in every participating European country?

Surveys such as those presented by Eurobarometer (2010) show that people's awareness of violence against women has developed in Europe, tolerance of violence has fallen, and support for stringent measures against perpetrators has increased. At

the same time, data on sexual violence against women (representing reported cases only) still fail to capture the extent of the crime: only 5-25 percent of women in European Member States who suffer rape report the incident to the police. Sexual violence is still a widespread problem in European societies but undertaking comparisons of rape statistics contained in major publications, such as the European Sourcebook, which focus on police reported cases across the Member States, are problematic. As the authors of the report argue:

> "The problems involved are even more serious when it comes to international comparisons, because nations differ widely in the way they organise their police and court systems, the way they define their legal concepts, and the way they collect and present their statistics." (Aebi *et al.*, 2006. p.21)

Many European countries have differing standard definitions of rape which they utilize in statistical survey research, although "many countries are reporting some changes in legal definition of rape leading to more compliance with the standard definition" (Aebi *et al.*, 2006. p.31). This again makes it difficult to compare the prevalence of sexual violence across countries. Statistics on rape offences (per 100,000 population) in 2003 show an increasing number of incidences in Germany, Italy (a rise of 17 percent in both countries between 2000 and 2003), and Spain (a rise of 16 percent): only in Poland did the figures decrease (a drop of four percent) (Aebi *et al.*, 2006). However, the reporting and recording of violence also reflects country specific differences in reporting and recording practices which must again be taken into consideration when interpreting data.

In conjunction with the above, there is a lack of knowledge in wider society concerning the nature of legislation aimed at preventing violence against women. In Germany, only 55 percent of people surveyed (Italy five percent, Spain six percent, Britain and Poland six percent) knew something about legislation regarding sexual violence (Eurobarometer, 2010). Setting standards and providing tools to guide social actions are the key aims of legislation, and these aims are perhaps especially valid in the complex field of interpersonal violence. However, when looking at existing legislation on sexual violence in the project countries, it is clear that the specific institutional cultures in these countries exert a significant influence on the status of legislation and progress in dealing with/overcoming violence. There is no unified sexual violence legislation in Europe, instead, what exists is a diverse array of legal systems, institutional structures, and support services, all embedded in different socio-cultural traditions. The means to transform this diversity into coherent and consistent legislation has yet to be achieved (Müller and Schröttle, 2004).

There is only one binding EU regulation which refers to a form of violence against women, namely, a Directive addressing **sexual harassment**. **Directive 2002/73/EC** addresses the principles **of equal treatment between women and men** and considers sexual harassment to be contrary to these principles and is therefore prosecuted on the basis of being discriminatory. The main issue dealt with by the Directive is that of equal treatment in terms of access of employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions. The directive acknowledges that "persons who have been subject to discrimination based on sex should have adequate means of legal protection" (European Parliament and the Council of the European Union, 2002. c.20).

Certain partner countries have comprehensively implemented this Directive while others have introduced regulations that limit its effectiveness.

The **Spanish law** on equal treatment **(2007)** for example implements Directive 2002/73/EC and defines equal treatment between the sexes as a "lack of any and all discrimination on grounds of sex, or any other condition or circumstance personally or socially linked to sex, whether directly or indirectly" (Freshfields Bruckhause Deringer, 2007. p.1). **Germany (2006)** has passed similar legislation to address sexual harassment in the workplace. Namely, the General Act on Equal Treatment (AGG) 2006 – most recently amended by Article 15 para.66 of the Act of February 2009 – which replaced the Employee Protection Act. The General Act on Equal Treatment defines sexual harassment as unwanted conduct of a sexual nature that takes place with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of the person concerned. The EC Directive 2002/73/EC has also been ratified by **Italian** legislation in the form of two decrees: D.lgs. 215/03 and D.lgs. 216/03, both approved in July **2003**. With regard to employment and working conditions, decree D.lgs. 216/03 specifically establishes equal treatment for all workers, regardless of their religion, personal beliefs, physical abilities, age or sexual orientation. By transposing the provisions of the EU Directive into law, the **Polish** Act of 24 August 2001, entered into force on 1 January **2002**, is limited mainly to the field of employment. Its aim was to realise the equal status of female and male workers and to prohibit discrimination based on gender and age. However, the EU Directive was not transposed completely and work on the Polish "Draft Law on Equal Treatment" is ongoing. The **UK** passed the Equality Act **2010** which imposed a duty on public bodies (including universities) to promote equality between men and women. The Equality Act 2010, builds on its precursor the Equality Act 2006, and stipulates that UK universities have a "specific duty" to publish Gender Equality Schemes and that such schemes must show how the general duties outlined in the Act will be fulfilled. These specific duties include reviewing equal pay, tackling career development and segregation, and conducting impact assessments on gender. All UK universities' activities are now underpinned by their obligations under the Equality Act and by every university's individual Gender Equality Scheme. Similar legislation is available in Germany for universities through the General Act on Equal Treatment.

Apart from legislation on sex discrimination in the employment sector, none of the partner countries have specific legislation addressing sexual harassment. In most cases however, it is addressed within Equality Law, the Penal Code, Labour Law, and Administrative Law. Incidents of sexual harassment are also prosecuted using legislation that deals with other sexual crimes such as sexual assault and stalking.

Table 5: What incidents are covered by national legislation in partner countries?

	Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK
Stalking	§238 StGB 2007	Law n. 38 2009		Organic Law 3/2007, 22nd march, on equality between women and men (Article 7)	Protection from Harassment Act 1997
Sexual assault, rape	§177 StGB 1997	Article 609 bis c.p. Criminal Code	Penal Code chapter XXV offences against sexual freedom and decency	Rape Article 179 Sexual Assault Article 178	Sexual Offences Act 2003
Sexual harassment	No specific Article General Act on Equal Treatment: Article 15 para. 66 of the Act 2009	No specific Article Equal Treatment: D.lgs. 215/03 D.lgs. 216/03 2003	No specific Article Polish Labour Code Discrimination on Sex	Law of Equal Treatment between Women and Men 2007 (Article 7) Penal Code (Article182) Workers' Statue (Article 8.3)	Protection from Harassment Act 1997
"Intimate partner violence"			Law on Preventing Domestic Violence 2005	Usual Violence (Article 173) Physical Damage (Article 148.4) Threats and acts of Coercion (Article 171.4 and 172.2) Break of Restraint Order (Article 468.1 and 468.2)	
Abuse of dependents	§174 to 174c StGB			Article 173	

Laws on **stalking** are relatively new in the EU. Among the project's partner countries, the UK passed the first such law in 1997. More recently, are specific criminal laws passed in Germany in 2007 and in Italy in 2009. In Spain, certain behaviours included within the criminal definition of stalking are also classified as sexual harassment via the Equality law. In Poland, a proposal to introduce a stalking law is currently being considered by the country's parliament. In addition to criminal prosecution, both

Germany and the UK have enacted specific civil laws to address stalking. Those Member States which have no stalking law currently deal with the behaviour under generic offences, such as intimidation, damage to property or assault, or, in the case of post-separation violence, under "intimate partner violence" regulations (European Commission, 2010).

In most partner countries, criminal stalking law definitions share three common elements, in addition to defining stalking as a repeat offence. These include: (1) "ways of behaviour" or "repetitive behaviour", (2) intention on the part of the perpetrator, and (3) non-specific terminology or broad concepts. These latter broad concepts often manifest in survey research as a lack of clear stalking definition, again making cross-country data analysis difficult. They may also lead to strict and counter-productive interpretations through case law (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007).

Table 6: Stalking law in partner countries

	Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK
Stalking law provision	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Article	§238 StGB	Law n.38	--	Article 7	Protection from Harassment Act
Date entered into force	2007	23 April 2009	--	2007	1997
Imprisonment	Max. 10 years	Max. 6 years	--	No penal response	Max. 5 years
Restraining Orders?	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
Other legal ways of dealing with stalking behaviours	Breaking and entering, insult, sexual coercion, deliberate or negligent bodily harm, Coercion and threat, violation of a person's personal and private sphere	Article 660 of Penal Code "Harassment or Disturbance to Persons"; Article 610 of Penal Code "Private Violence"; Articles 582 and 583 of Penal Code "Bodily Harm"; Article 594 of Penal Code "Insults"; Article 612 of Penal Code "Threats"; Article 635 of Penal Code "Damage to Private Property"	Article 156 of Penal Code "Bodily Harm"; Article 190 of Penal Code "Threat"; Article 216 of Penal Code "Insults"; Article 288 of Penal Code "Damages"; Article 189 of Penal Code "Deprivation of Liberty"; Article 191 of Penal Code "Illegal Duress (threat)"; Article 202 of Penal Code "Presentation of Pornography"; Article 207 of Penal Code "Cruelty"; Article 212 of Penal Code "Imputation, Aspersion"; Article 217 of Penal Code "Harm to Somebody's Inviolability"; Article 267 of Penal Code "Harm to Somebody's Privacy".	Article 620.2 of Criminal Code "Misdemeanour of humiliation or coercion"; Article 172 of Criminal Code "Offence of coercion"; Article 173 of Criminal Code "Tortures and other offences against moral integrity"	Public Order Act 1986 Criminal Damage Act 1971 Criminal Justice and Public Order Act 1994 Communications Act 2003 Telecommunications Act 1984 Malicious Communications Act 1988
Services available for stalking victims	Yes	N.S.	No	Yes	Yes

All partner countries have a specific **crime of rape**. As rape law is formulated in a resolutely gender-neutral way, all partner countries recognise female and male victimisation. In all partner countries the perpetrator may be male and, in all except the UK, female:

> "The United Kingdom is unusual in retaining a gendered approach, but only with respect to perpetration: rape is defined as penetration by a penis, with parallel but separate offences regulating penetration by objects or other body parts where both males and females can be perpetrators" (European Commission, 2010. p.51).

Germany, Italy and Poland use definitions of "extended force" in interpreting the rape crime, meaning that the perpetrator has taken advantage of a person who is in a helpless state: "...by exploiting a situation in which the victim is unprotected and at the mercy of the offender" (Bundesjustizministerium, 1998. s.177). Of all partner countries only England and Wales use a solely consent-based definition: under the Sexual Offences Act 2003, rape, sexual assault, assault by penetration, and causing a person to engage in sexual activity without consent are all criminal offences.

In conclusion, all of the partner countries provide legislation relating to incidents of sexual violence due to international consensus that the law cannot tolerate such acts. However, differences exist within counties in terms of the specific legislation they adopt, their classifications of acts as criminal, available options regarding punishment, and the general degree of protection offered to the victim. The way in which each country legislates on the different forms of gender-based sexual violence inevitably interlinks with legal tradition and contributes further to the difficulty of gathering comparable cross-country data.

Legislation that addresses equal treatment and sexual violence, and that can be utilized in Higher Education settings, is enacted in multiple ways in participating project countries. As described above, legislative Acts of equal treatment, which exist in nearly all partner countries, place responsibility on public bodies, including universities, to promote equality amongst men and women. Such responsibilities encompass issues of equal pay, career development and segregation, and equal access to opportunities. However, such measures can be argued to apply primarily to university employees with student groups not inevitably being included within the protection aims of these Acts.

The UK Equality Act 2010 places a "specific duty" on universities to publish Gender Equality Schemes and all UK universities' activities are now underpinned by their obligations under this Act. Under the statutory requirements of the UK Equality Act, all publically funded universities must develop policies and procedures, and working and learning environments that follow the principles in specific legislations (such as the equality law and the human rights law) to prevent discrimination on grounds of gender, race, disability, religion or belief, sexual orientation, and age. In other European countries however, institutions of Higher Education are not legally obliged to develop and implement schemes that consider the promotion/advancement of equality - and as part of this – the protection of students from gender-based (sexual) violence. Such responsibilities are currently largely voluntary commitment made at the discretion of individual institutions. In this regard, a formal responsibility, at university management

level, to address the problems of sexual violence within the university setting does not typically exist. This leads back to the primary questions of the current project: how do students experience gender-based sexual violence? How do they perceive related university policies and responses? Do they view them as adequate? The recommended model for prevention and response developed by the project will take the quantitative and qualitative data into consideration when addressing these questions and provide informed recommendations that European universities can implement.

2. A review of the extant research on gender-based sexual violence against female university students

The current research project has been examining the extent and nature of female university students' experiences of gender-based sexual violence. Such violence is defined by Article 1 of the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (1993) as:

> "Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life." (United Nations, 1993. Article 1)

Article 2 of the Declaration emphasises that the definition should include, but not be limited to; acts of physical, sexual, and psychological violence which occur in the home, community or that are perpetrated or condoned by the State:

> "a) Physical, sexual, and psychological violence occurring in the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, marital rape, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence, and violence related to exploitation;
> (b) Physical, sexual, and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutes and elsewhere, trafficking in women, and forced prostitution;
> (c) Physical, sexual, and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the State, wherever it occurs." (United Nations, 1993, Article 2)

In recognition of this background, and whilst acknowledging that violence is a term that remains imprecise and contested (Burman *et al.*, 2003; Dobash and Dobash, 1998a; Leibling and Stanko, 2001), the current research project defines gender-based sexual violence as any act of sexual harassment, stalking, coercive sex, and sexual assault. This literature review provides the context in which the current research is based and incorporates three chapters. First, the prevalence, nature and extent of sexual violence against female European university students are defined. Next, the theoretical literature around sexual victimisation, assault, harassment, and stalking is reviewed, drawing on key approaches in the field. The section goes on to provide an overview of the extent of European research in this area, also drawing on the international research, and concludes with a discussion of key issues raised.

2.1 Prevalence, nature and extent of gender-based sexual violence against female university students in Europe

This section of the literature review addresses feminist theory, criminological theory, sociological narratives, and public health discourses to comment on the prevalence, nature, and extent of sexual violence against female university students. The section specifically focuses on students' experiences of rape, sexual assault, and coercion, drawing upon existing literature from the European and North American contexts. The section also addresses methodological criticisms around sexual violence research as well as addressing fear of crime and considerations around the discontinuity between that fear and the likelihood of becoming a crime victim.

Gender-based sexual violence can have a profound personal and social impact. It can diminish quality of life, result in on-going health problems, and impact upon productivity (Adami *et al.*, 2000; Temkin and Krahe, 2008). Sexual violence also has important financial implications due to the government and community resources involved in responding to its occurrence, consequences, and prevention (HM Government, 2007). English and Welsh crime survey data demonstrate that women fear being the victim of rape more than any other offence (Walby and Allen, 2004) whilst the World Health Organization (2005) recognises gender-based sexual violence to be a crucial violation of the human right to liberty and freedom from fear: findings confirmed by other European crime survey data (Government of Catalonia, Department of Home Affairs, 2010). Over the past 20 years there has been growing recognition in Europe around the frequency with which sexual violence takes place, despite such acts often remaining unreported to the police (Estrich, 1987; Kelly *et al.,* 2005; Martinez *et al.*, 2006; Naredo, 2009; Schröttle *et al.*, 2006; Temkin and Krahe, 2008). Studies have also noted the relationship between sexual violence and gender inequality, the frequent "blaming" of the victim for their victimisation, and the falling conviction rate for rape offences (Bisi and Faccioli, 1996; Bodelón, 2008; Ellison and Munro, 2009; Estrich, 1987; Gunby *et al.*, 2010; Hanmer *et al.*, 1989; Lovett and Kelly, 2009; Payne, 2009; Stanko, 2004; 1990).

It is useful to highlight that the terms "victim" and "survivor" are both used in the research literature to describe an individual who has experienced some form of sexual victimisation. For some, the term "victim" does however evoke notions of disempowerment (Bodelón, 2003; Gill, 2009; Pitch, 1989). Multiple academic and advocacy groups have consequently attempted a paradigm shift from victimhood to survivorship via the use of the "survivor" label. Certain individuals however choose to retain the term "victim" on the grounds that it emphasises the harm they have experienced or because this is how the individual has come to be identified via the process of officially reporting the victimisation (Horvath and Brown, 2009). In recognition of these debates, the current report uses both the "survivor" and "victim" labels.

Whilst sexual offences occur throughout the life span, academic research and crime survey data have consistently documented that they are most prevalent between the ages of 16-24 (Abbey *et al.*, 2004; Müller and Schröttle, 2004; Myhill and Allen, 2002). In recent years there has been a plethora of European research into sexual violence and rape supportive attitudes. There has also been invaluable discussion around

gender-based sexual violence in Europe due to the introduction of new legislation and statutes (See Agnes *et al.*, 2009; Bartolini, 2009; HM Government, 2011; The Stern Review, 2010). Despite these advances, almost no research has addressed the nature and extent of sexual violence as experienced by female university students. To date, the overwhelming majority of research to have addressed college and university students' experiences of sexual victimisation comes from North America. Whilst some research has been conducted in European countries (see for example in Spain Bosch, 2006 or Valls *et al.*, 2007), this work has not solely focused on sexual violence, but more generally on gender-based violence. In addition, the different definitions of violence that have been adopted by these studies, combined with the use of disparate methodologies, makes it difficult to compare the data obtained.

Certain American survey research has suggested that between eight and 35 percent of female students experience sexual violence during their college or university years (Fisher *et al.*, 1998; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007; Koss *et al.*, 1987). The college/university environment is often one where individuals experiment with alcohol and enter into regular sexual relationships. This combination of factors has been proposed to relate to the coercive experiences reported by students (Adams-Curtis and Forbes, 2004). The first study of sexual coercion amongst American college pupils was conducted by Koss *et al* (1987). This survey based study of 2,972 male and 3,187 female students aged 18-24 years addressed women's experiences of sexual violence and men's experiences of perpetrating coercive sexual acts. A total of 53.7 percent of women were found to have experienced some form of sexual victimisation since the age of 14, ranging from non-consensual kissing through to rape. Of this total, 15.4 percent of women reported rape and 12.1 percent reported attempted rape. In contrast, 25.1 percent of college males revealed perpetrating some form of sexual aggression with 7.7 percent of men reporting acts that met the legal definition of rape and attempted rape. Koss *et al* (1987) suggested that college men often report perpetrating lower rates of sexual violence than are actually identified by women in victimisation surveys. This is due to a proportion of men viewing a woman's sexual communication as ambiguous or insincere and consequently believing that their sexual behaviour was legitimate. This clearly highlights the importance of incorporating men into preventative sexual violence work. In the Koss study, only five percent of the rapes were disclosed to the police with 42 percent of individuals telling no one at all about the experience. Five percent of women were found to have utilised specialist victim support services and just 27 percent defined their experience as rape. Elsewhere, Koss draws attention to 74 percent of sample perpetrators and 55 percent of rape victims having been drinking alcohol at the time the offence took place (Koss, 1988).

A more recent study of student sexual coercion was conducted by Fisher *et al* (2000). This study involved national stratified random sampling of 4,446 American college women. Using a telephone interview methodology, Fisher *et al* (2000) identified that 1.7 percent of their female sample had been raped in the previous seven month period with an additional 1.3 percent of women having experienced attempted rape. Fisher *et al* (2000) also asked about experiences of sexual victimisation that had occurred prior to starting college or university. These findings indicated that 10.1 percent of women had experienced rape with a further 10.9 percent reporting attempted rape. The study documented that 48.8 percent of women did not label their experience as rape despite the act perpetrated against them meeting the legal definition. Although the reasons for not labelling experiences were not explored, Fisher *et al* (2000) hypothesised that

factors such as not understanding the legal definition of rape and not wanting to define someone they knew as a rapist may have impacted. The study also documented that rape offences were most frequently committed by someone known to the victim, principally classmates. Low levels of official police reporting were found; fewer than five percent of rapes and attempted rapes were reported to the police.

Fisher *et al* (2000) reported lower frequencies of rape and attempted rape than those documented by Koss *et al* (1987). It should be noted that Koss *et al* (1987) included specific questions that asked about sex that occurred when someone was incapacitated by drugs or alcohol. These questions were not asked in the Fisher *et al* (2000) research and in light of the relationship between alcohol and non-consensual sexual outcomes (Abbey *et al.*, 2004), this is a major limitation. Subsequent American research has used a range of methods, but principally quantitative survey approaches, to build upon these studies. This research has similarly documented that women infrequently disclose their victimisation to the police, report to campus security, utilise specialist victim services or define their experience as rape (Fisher *et al.*, 2008; Fisher *et al.*, 2003; Fisher *et al.*, 1998; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007).

Whilst this literature review focuses on the victimisation of university-based students, it should be noted that American and South African research has documented school based experiences of sexual violence. Research has begun to highlight that adolescent girls and boys experience acts of sexual victimisation and harassment within the school setting. Such victimisation is perpetrated by peers and teachers, has a discriminatory impact on educational attainment, and is often ineffectively responded to (George and Finberg, 2001; Young *et al.*, 2009). These issues are also being increasingly recognised in the UK where the Director of Public Prosecutions declared sexual abuse, domestic violence, and stalking to be key areas for intervention, due to rises in such behaviours amongst the 13-16 year old demographic (Starmer, 2011). As noted, school based experiences of gender-based sexual violence are not the focus of this report, however, school based harassment has the potential to escalate into serious abuse and assault (Firmin, 2011). This has clear implications for the points at which intervention and preventative work should commence and for the follow-up work that may need to take place during the university years. It also emphasises the importance of the current research project's methodology where wave A surveys were undertaken with students and respondents specifically asked whether they had experienced sexual victimisation "before the age of 16". Wave B surveys by contrast asked more specifically about "lifetime" experiences of victimisation, including those that occurred during the university years. Findings from these questions will help to build upon the limited evidence base around when in the life cycle sexual victimisation commences.

To date, the only national UK study to have addressed students' experiences of harassment, stalking, violence, and sexual assault was "Hidden Marks" carried out by the UK National Union of Students (National Union of Students (NUS), 2010). This online survey of 2,058 college and university females aged 16-60, identified that one in four respondents studying across English, Welsh, Northern Irish, and Scottish institutions of Higher and Further Education had experienced some form of sexual assault whilst a student. This compares with national data that indicate 23 percent of adult women experience sexual assault, suggesting that there is an elevated potential of being affected by such offences whilst a student (Interdepartmental Ministerial

Group on Sexual Offending, 2007). Of those women surveyed in the NUS (2010) study, and who had experienced sexual assault, five percent had been raped, two percent had faced an attempted rape, and just less than one percent had experienced assault by penetration. Follow-up survey questions identified that 76 percent of serious sexual assaults (rape, attempted rape and assault by penetration combined) took place in someone's home: either the survey respondent's, a friend's, partner's or ex-partner's house. In 81 percent of cases the perpetrator was known by the victim, typically another male student. One in ten women were given alcohol or drugs against their will prior to the offence although no elaboration of "against their will" was provided. It is therefore not possible to ascertain whether drinks were spiked, pressure was placed to consume alcohol and drugs or other methods of administration were employed. Only ten percent of serious sexual assaults were reported to the police and the primary reasons for not reporting included not thinking the event was serious enough, not thinking what had happened was a crime, feeling ashamed, and fear of not being believed. If participants did disclose it was most frequently to friends and family members although 43 percent of participants told no one at all. Around two thirds (63 percent) of women who experienced serious sexual assault said that their relationships had suffered as a consequence whilst 49 percent had experienced mental health difficulties. A further 12 percent had experienced problems with their physical health and 13 percent had considered leaving their course. This emphasises the multi-faceted impacts of sexual violence.

The NUS (2010) findings corroborate the trends that appear within the American student literature that indicate male college acquaintances are the most frequent perpetrators of sexual violence and that such victimisation has a detrimental effect on educational attainment and psychological well-being (Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007). They also confirm that friends are the most frequent group of individuals told and reasons for not disclosing to the police include a lack of proof that the incident had occurred and the event not being perceived serious enough to report (Fisher *et al.*, 2003; Fisher *et al.*, 2000; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007). Stanko (2006) emphasises that familiarity with the perpetrator is a central feature of violence against women and simultaneously argues that such familiarity facilitates discourses for minimizing the harm experienced - by both women and men, third parties and the victim themselves. The NUS (2010) study also aligns with certain findings from an online Australian NUS survey of 1,549 women's experiences of sexual harassment, assault, stalking, and physical abuse (Sloane, 2011). For example, the Sloane (2011) study noted that in 56 percent of cases the individual who perpetrated the sexual assault was an acquaintance or friend and in 22 percent of cases the perpetrator was a current or ex-partner. The Sloane (2011) study however identified higher levels of victimisation than those recorded by the UK NUS (2010) research. Seventeen percent of female respondents in the Sloane (2011) study had experienced rape, 12 percent had experienced attempted rape and 11 percent had experienced assault by penetration during their time as a student. In light of the Sloane (2011) methodology being closely modelled on that of the NUS (2010) study, the higher Australian prevalence estimates are likely to reflect the more frequent occurrence of sexual violence amongst Australian student populations.

German research also indicates that female victims of sexual violence typically know their perpetrator. Perpetrators are often acquaintances or friends but more frequently, current or former intimate partners. A German study by Ruch (2011) surveyed 3,425 female students from a single university institution to identify experiences of rape and

the role of alcohol and drugs in the police disclosure process. Study findings indicated that 11.2 percent of respondents had experienced forced sexual acts since the age of 16 with a further 12.6 percent reporting having experienced forced acts whilst they were physically helpless, due to the effects of drugs and alcohol. The study identified that victims more frequently reported forced sexual violence that involved penile penetration. In 80.4 percent of offences the perpetrator was known to the victim and was typically a current or former partner. This likelihood increased as the severity of the offence increased (56.3 percent of completed rapes were perpetrated by a current/former partner). A further study to have addressed prevalence rates of sexual victimisation amongst female German students was conducted by Kury *et al* (2004). This study used behaviourally specific questions to survey 309 females from a single German institution about a range of unwanted sexual experiences from rape through to lower level forms of sexual harassment. Study results indicated that 40 percent of participants had experienced non-consensual touching of their breasts or genitals at least once in their life. In addition, 0.1 percent of students had experienced at least one act of non-consensual intercourse due to force or the threat of force. A further 4.9 percent of students had experienced attempted intercourse due to such tactics whilst ten percent of females had been coerced into sex via verbal or psychological pressure at least once. It is recognised that whilst this latter behaviour may be unwanted and result in harm, agreeing to sex as a consequence of verbal or psychological pressure would typically not be recognised as sufficient to constitute rape in the eyes of the law (Beres, 2007).

2.1.1 Methodological issues

Multiple methodological considerations surround gender-based sexual violence research. For example, different prevalence studies have used a range of time frames and operational definitions of sexual violence to establish rates of victimisation. The NUS (2010) study looked at experiences of sexual assault during the university years. Koss *et al* (1987) by contrast looked at coercive experiences since the age of 14 and during the last 12 months. Fisher *et al* (2000) observed "life time" experiences and those that had occurred during the previous seven months. These disparities inevitably make prevalence estimates difficult to obtain and compare. Similarly, university environments vary greatly both within and between countries. American universities for example typically consist of purpose built campuses that include halls of residence within closely located parameters. European universities by contrast are not inevitably campus-based but also consist of buildings that are distributed across different locations and which may incorporate independent, non-halls of residence style accommodation. Such disparities in university environment may again relate to variations in rates of victimisation recorded and make it difficult to compare findings from countries which operate different campus systems. Related to this point is whether, and how well, different studies examining experiences of gender-based sexual violence have distinguished between experiences that occurred within the university environment and those that occurred in locations outside of the campus (for example, in city centre bars, in independent non-university owned housing). These differences in offence location clearly have important implications for the type of response and preventative measure universities can reasonably be expected to implement. A failure to draw these distinctions again causes difficulties in interpreting and comparing data across studies.

Other methodological issues should also be highlighted, for example, many of the sexual violence studies discussed have used telephone survey methods (for example, Fisher *et al.*, 2000; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007) which raises the possibility of reduced disclosure if other people were present during the interview. Schwartz (1997) argued that inconsistencies in rape prevalence measures can largely be attributed to the mode of survey dissemination. Whether a survey is administered face-to-face, via a questionnaire that is completed in isolation or via a telephone approach, impacts on reporting behaviour. This has led to significant debate around what mode of survey administration is most appropriate when asking about gender-based sexual violence and whether there should be a move towards online approaches to maximise confidentiality (Koss *et al.*, 2007; Turner *et al.*, 1998). Certain studies suggest that online surveys are a useful approach when researching sensitive topics, such as sexual violence, because they enhance anonymity and by default, an individual's likelihood of disclosing victimisation (Fischelmanns, 2007; Kreuzer, 2005). These debates have led to recognition that accurately identifying and recording instances of gender-based sexual violence is one of the biggest methodological challenges facing sexual violence researchers. Indeed, disparities in the number and content of questions in survey research impacts on sexual violence prevalence estimates. For example, certain screen questions used in sexual victimisation surveys are not sufficiently nuanced to provoke all women's recollections of rape or other non-consensual experiences (Fisher, 2009; Johnson, 1998; Koss *et al.*, 2007). It is now largely accepted that best practice approaches must use behaviourally specific questions where the wording graphically depicts a non-consensual experience (Fisher, 2009). Questions from the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss *et al.*, 2007; Koss and Gidycz, 1985) adhere to these rules and are recognised to be one of the most effective measures for identifying victimisation (Testa *et al.*, 2004). These questions mirror legal definitions of rape, attempted rape, and sexual assault without using the terms "rape" or "assault" which individuals infrequently respond to, due to not labelling their experience as such (Koss *et al.*, 2007). A two stage questioning process is also recommended in gender-based sexual violence research in order to effectively identify non-consensual experiences (Fisher, 2009). A set of "screen questions" should initially determine whether a participant has experienced a victimising act. If a respondent answers "yes" to a screen question they should be asked to complete an "incident report" which contains detailed questions about the nature of the victimisation. It should be noted, that the current study adheres to these principles in the construction of its victimisation surveys. It also uses a standardised survey tool across the five countries to identify experiences of victimisation. Use of such a tool enables measurement error to be reduced and effective country comparisons to be made.

The methodological concerns highlighted go some way toward explaining why divergent prevalence estimates exist within the literature (Martinez *et al.*, 2006; Schröttle *et al.*, 2006). Studies cannot be fully evaluated without reference to these issues, which make summaries of extant work tenuous. These issues also feed into wider arguments around quantitative studies in isolation being ineffective at identifying the prevalence of sexual violence or indeed capturing the lived experiences of what it means to be a sexual violence victim (see Westmarland, 2001 for a further discussion of these issues). It is evident from the work that has been discussed that there is a dearth of empirical data surrounding European students' experiences of gender-based sexual violence and much of the extant American literature has used survey designs to generate information around sexual violence. Additional European work is therefore

paramount to give a localised context which can incorporate qualitative methods, such as interviews with victims, to help build a robust understanding of European students' experiences of gender-based sexual violence.

2.1.2 The fear of crime

It is useful to address issues surrounding women's fear of crime specifically. The NUS (2010) study for example identified that over one third of female students reported feeling unsafe on and around campus during the evenings. These concerns largely related to fears around being harassed or intimidated. The wider empirical research indicates that fear of crime has become one of the most researched topics in contemporary criminology and that the fear of becoming a crime victim often exceeds the likelihood of experiencing victimisation (Farrall *et al.*, 2000; Hanmer *et al.*, 1989; King, 2009). The British Crime Survey has consistently reported high levels of fear, despite falling crime rates (Dixon *et al.*, 2006). Walklate (2007) highlights however that similar trends cannot be reported across Europe due to factors that include multiple European countries not yet participating in the collection of victimisation survey data. Walklate (2007) has also argued that when addressing fear of crime at a country level, it must be considered in conjunction with the wider social and economic climate of that country. In Poland for example, fear of crime statistics make little sense unless they are understood within the context of the fall of communism (Krajewski, 2004). Similarly, a history of Basque terrorism in Spain (Barberet, 2005) and issues of xenophobia, for example, in Germany (Oberwittler and Hofer, 2005) all act to influence fear.

It has been argued that gender is one of the most stable predictors of crime fear (Ferraro, 1996; King, 2009). Women consistently report higher levels of fear than men (May *et al.*, 2010; Stanko, 2009; 1990) despite crime survey data indicating that women are less likely to experience victimisation (with the exception of sexual assault, domestic violence, stalking, and sexual harassment; see Walby and Allen, 2004). Women also report being more fearful in situations that do not typically affect mens' fear levels, including being home alone (Grabosky, 1995). This incongruence has been referred to as the "gender-fear paradox" due to perception failing to align with lived experience (Ferraro, 1996). It should however be noted that crime survey data suggest that men are often unwilling to identify themselves as victims (Walklate, 2007), which may go some way towards explaining the relative invisibility of male fear in victimisation data. Gilchrist *et al* (1998) also emphasise that when representative survey samples are used, and qualitative research approaches adopted, the more nuanced nature of fear of crime across the sexes is identified. Namely, that men and women are not independent homogeneous groups. Rather, there are clear examples of women who exhibit low fear of crime whilst certain men exhibit high fear. In their qualitative study, Gilchrist *et al* (1998) identified that men and women talked similarly about the factors that related to their fear of crime. Women however made reference to a wider range of people, situations, and factors that informed their fear whilst men were more likely to refer to characteristics which reduced theirs, such as familiarity with an area. Indeed, Box *et al* (1988) similarly argued that multiple factors impact on the potential for fear beyond gender. For example, an individual's physical vulnerabilities, factors in the local environment (such as housing conditions and neighbourhood cohesion), personal knowledge of crime, previous experiences of victimisation, the crime type, being lesbian or gay, and confidence in the criminal justice system (Laing and Davies, 2011; Otis, 2007; Tseloni and Zarafonitou, 2008).

Box *et al* (1988) also argued that looking at single predictive factors of fear misses important interactional effects across other key variables. Their analysis of British Crime Survey data highlighted that whilst women were more fearful of crime than men in every age group, the gender-fear gap narrowed considerably as people aged. That is, older men experienced significantly more fear than their younger counterparts. This study also documented that experiences of being victimised were negatively related to the fear of crime. Having previously been a crime victim may have resulted in precautions being factored into individuals' lifestyles which subsequently reduced their fear levels. However, when the effect of living in a run-down inner-city neighbourhood was introduced into the statistical model, the effect of having experienced victimisation was to increase fear amongst those who lived in such areas. The point to be highlighted is that the relationship between gender (and other variables) and the fear of crime can relate to multiple factors and that not all women are irrationally fearful of crime. In addition, not all men remain indifferent to its potential.

Controversy around the way fear of crime is conceptualised and measured exists in the literature. Certain academics have argued that fear levels have been routinely over-estimated as a consequence of vague crime survey indicators and closed survey questions (Farrall *et al.*, 1997; Farrall and Ditton, 1999; Tseloni and Zarafonitou, 2008). Goodey (2005) specifically asked what constructs are being identified via fear of crime victimisation surveys. Walklate (2007) has pointed out that fear is often operationalised through questions that assess perceptions of being "at risk" of certain offences. That is, victimisation surveys typically ask how safe respondents feel in their local neighbourhood, when walking in this area at night and when alone in their home. Questions follow which focus on respondents' worries about specific crimes happening to them. These questions are then followed with additional questions that focus on individuals' direct experiences of being crime victims. Thus, levels of perceived safety are used as indicators of fear. Clearly, the leap between respondents' perceptions of safety and being fearful of crime is a long and problematic one to make. Whilst distinctions between "fears" and "worries" are useful, data from victimisation surveys provide little insight into how such fear and worry corresponds with other fears and worries respondents may experience and how these potentially relate to structural/material inequalities in the wider environment (Kury and Obergfell-Fuchs, 2008; Walklate, 2007). Farrall *et al* (1997) also emphasises that the term "worry" covers a broad spectrum of emotions (from fright and alarm through to upset and annoyance) which may result in divergent interpretations by those who complete surveys. Walklate (2007) has also highlighted that victimisation survey questions reflect a narrow behavioural focus and consequently fail to capture the reality of a person's life. Questions that address fear of being alone for example implicate this to be a situation in which fear is the most likely to be heightened. This makes it problematic in terms of truly understanding women's fear of crime. Indeed, many women's fears are associated with the home and when they are in the presence of their partner. Failure to recognise the familiar as a space in which women may experience fear leads to the inclusion and exclusion of certain places and people into victimisation surveys and by default, impacts on the development of comprehensive models for understanding. Kury and Obergfell-Fuchs (2008) specifically emphasise that fear is a nuanced construct that is insufficiently operationalised by singular fear of crime survey indicators and argue that the affective and cognitive components of fear

should both be investigated through multiple survey items. In the absence of such analysis, findings from crime survey data should be treated with caution.

Explanations for women's enhanced fear have focused on females being smaller in physical stature and therefore increasingly concerned that they will be inadequate in resisting an attack. This is exacerbated by women being socialized into being aware of their physical vulnerabilities (Hale, 1996; Stanko, 1990). Women also experience more frequent lower level harassment from strangers and acquaintances, potentially enhancing their fear (MacMillan *et al.*, 2000). Bodelón (2009) argued that women's fear also increases because women often believe that their security concerns will not be taken seriously by the authorities. May *et al* (2010) argued that the most popular explanation for female fear relates to the "shadow hypothesis" (Ferraro, 1996). This hypothesis states that women's enhanced fear of crime is the consequence of their overriding fears of experiencing sexual violence. Fear of sexual offences thus attunes and escalates women's fear of being the victim of multiple crime types (see Fisher and Sloan, 2003 for a replication and refinement of this model with college women). Stanko (1990) similarly argues that as children, adolescents, and adults, women's life experiences are based in an ever present context of sexual danger, making women's fear highly rational. Academic debates around the rationality or irrationality of the fear of crime have become increasingly nuanced as a consequence of the notion "climates of safety" (Stanko, 1990). Stanko (1990) argued that given the evidence that suggests fear is a "normal" part of women's lives (as connected to their enhanced potential for violence in the private sphere), it makes more sense to ask about the conditions in which women (and men) feel safe. Focusing on safety in everyday life would thus more effectively untangle those situations in which women experienced fear. In light of these debates, the victimisation survey has encountered multiple modifications to ensure such perspectives are increasingly captured within it.

Inevitably, fear of crime and being victimised can lead to avoidance behaviours, as well as resulting in the psychological stress associated with feeling intimidated. Such pressures may impact on educational attainment as well as restrict participation in all aspects of college/university life. Research demonstrates that women's fear can increase perceptions of risk and result in women engaging in behaviours that restrict their social freedom (May *et al.*, 2010; Naredo, 2009; 2010; Pain, 2001; Stanko, 2009). Self-report research has been carried out with English students to identify how fearful they are of specific crimes and to also establish how at risk of experiencing specific offences they perceive themselves to be (Barberet *et al.*, 2004; Barberet *et al.*, 2003). Barberet *et al* (2004) carried out surveys with a representative sample of 405 students based at nine East Midland universities in England. This study identified that students believed they were at greatest risk of experiencing vehicle theft, including having property stolen from their car. Similarly, students' greatest fears were around the offences of theft from, and of, a motor vehicle. Students perceived the least risk, and were least fearful, of experiencing all forms of intimate partner violence including being raped, stalked or physically attacked by a dating partner. Women perceived a greater risk of victimisation from all crimes except theft from their vehicle. Women felt significantly more at risk than men of being mugged, robbed, and raped by an intimate partner and stranger. Women also perceived a greater risk of being stalked by an intimate partner and stranger, being physically attacked by a stranger, and having their bicycle stolen. Gender differences were also identified in terms of students' fear of crime with women again being more fearful of all crime types than men. Students in

this study were asked about the behaviours they engaged in to avoid crime. Findings indicated that students were more likely to avoid certain areas than entirely give up going out at night. Tactics such as not leaving drinks unattended and telling others where they were going were also engaged in, suggesting students had a level of appreciation for potential risks. The crime avoidance behaviours engaged in by students in this study were not analysed by gender and it cannot therefore comment on whether certain crime reduction strategies were engaged in more frequently by women. Holst (2003) argued that avoidance patterns (decisions to take better lit routes, to be picked up by friends on evenings out or to use a car or taxi) play an important role in coping responses to crime fear. Perceptions of "risk" and the choice of coping response are inevitably integrated into cultural norms around "femininity" (and "masculinity"), link to self-perception, and are connected to an individual's lifestyle (Holst, 2003). Fisher and Sloan (2003) identified that college females reported higher levels of fear than men, irrespective of the time of day. This study noted that women's perceptions of risk and fear of crime exceeded those of men during the day on all offences examined except larceny theft whilst female fear in the evenings exceeded men's on all offence types analysed. Day (1994) and Igareda (2011) have argued that campus safety initiatives that attempt to minimise such fear can paradoxically serve to constrain women's behaviour. This issue will be discussed in further depth in the prevention and response section of the current report.

2.2 Theorising sexual victimisation, assault, harassment and stalking

This section of the literature review examines more closely the narratives that have emerged to better understand sexual victimisation, assault, harassment, and stalking. The three forms of victimisation are considered in turn and psycho-social, criminal justice, organisational, and clinical perspectives discussed and critiqued. The section also considers the overarching influence of feminist perspectives in developing understandings of gender-based sexual violence.

Whilst multiple theories have attempted to explain sexual victimisation, assault, harassment, and stalking, a number of these theoretical approaches have their roots in feminist perspectives. Broadly speaking, feminists have argued that structural and cultural influences, such as patriarchy, provide the context which allows for women to be victimised (Brownmiller, 1975; DeKeseredy, 2011; Kitzinger, 2009; Schwartz and DeKeserdy, 1997).[1] Feminists have suggested that female victimisation has historically, and still is, condoned by the State through institutions such as the legal system and the criteria they adopt in relation to the handling of these offences (for example, in England and Wales rape within marriage was only codified into law as illegal in 1994 and in Germany in 1998). The reality that much victimisation takes place within the context of an intimate relationship (Danna, 2009; Dobash and Dobash, 1998b; Temkin and Krahe, 2008) also acts to question the structural role of family and marriage in the perpetration of violence (Danna, 2007; DeKeseredy, 2011). Feminism is not a monolithic discipline and there are multiple feminist perspectives (Maidment, 2006). "Radical feminism" for example views male power and dominance as the cause of all inequality, all violence against women, and all societal relations (MacKinnon, 1989). All societal relationships are deemed to be based in patriarchy with all other

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1 The anti-victim feminist perspectives on sexual violence are also recognised. See for example, Roiphe (1994) and Langelan (1993).

societal frameworks, including social class, deriving from this imbalanced gender relationship. "Marxist feminism" by contrast has argued that gender divisions of labour and social class determine a man and woman's societal position, and that the gender division of labour is the product of the class division of labour (DeKeseredy, 2011). Marxist feminists have stated that violence against women is not inevitable across all societies but more likely in those capitalist cultures that place male superiority and dominance at the top of the hierarchy and nurture unequal gender relations (Burt, 1980). Whilst radical approaches have suggested that patriarchy is the cause of sexual violence, more recent feminist theories have recognised the limitations of single-factor explanations of female abuse. These approaches consequently emphasise the roles of family, class, substance use, and peer support as other important factors that mediate the victimisation process.[2] Common across feminist theories however is the significance of gender. Most violent crimes are perpetrated by men (Temkin and Krahe, 2008) yet there is variation across cultures in rates of violence against women (Ward, 1995), demonstrating that the propensity towards such acts is interlinked with social position, class, peer group, and an array of other factors. In light of the multiple perspectives on feminism it is unsurprising that certain feminist approaches promote tough law and order responses to rape, assault, and victimisation whilst others are critical of punitive measures arguing that they individualise the problem, disconnect sexual violence from gender inequality, and fail to solve the wider societal issue (DeKeseredy, 2011).

2.2.1 Theories of sexual victimisation and assault

Two of the most frequently cited explanations for sexual victimisation are sexual script theory and miscommunication theory, the former having its roots in feminist approaches. Sexual scripts are the cultural messages that define what constitutes sex, how to recognise a sexual situation, and how to behave when in one (Frith, 2009). Lees (1993) argued that western sexual scripts dictate that women are responsible for setting sexual limits and providing "control" over the time and place of sex whilst men are socialised to seek and initiate sexual encounters. The development of such scripts inevitably relates to restrictive conceptions of the "consent" construct. Typically, those that depict consent in terms of "permission" or something "given" by the woman to the man - as opposed to being mutually negotiated between parties (see Beres, 2007; Hickman and Muehlenhard, 1999). Irrespective of the changes to sexual landscape which mark women's increased sexual liberation, authors have argued that for many, the traditional scripts remain unchanged (O'Byrne *et al.*, 2008). Whilst Keys (2002) for example suggested that "masculinity" and "femininity" are fluid concepts related to time, place, and culture, he also argued that certain scripted sexual norms will endure. It may therefore be suggested that retention of the traditional gender scripts will not be inevitable but will relate largely to the influence of an individual's environment, social convention, media, economic activity and group norms. Sexual interactions also follow culturally prescribed scripts where sex is largely accepted to progress from the stages of kissing through to heavier foreplay and culminating in penetrative intercourse (Frith, 2009). UK survey research demonstrates that third parties often believe that having allowed a sexual interaction to progress to a certain stage results in the woman then forfeiting her right to say no at this late point (Opinion Matters, 2010a; 2010b). Such ideas, coupled with beliefs around men being responsible for initiating sex and overcoming women's refusal, have been used to explain why certain

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2 It should be noted that patriarchy itself has been subject to academic deconstruction. See for example Kandiyoti (1988) and Gill (2006).

males may feel justified in using physical and verbal force to obtain intercourse (Abbey *et al.*, 2004).

Miscommunication theory interlinks with script theory and helps to explain acquaintance rape specifically. Sexual violence often occurs in situations where consensual sex is also a potential outcome. A man and woman's interpretation of the social engagement may consequently influence the potential for assaultive behaviour. The cues used by men and women to signify attraction are typically ambiguous, and serve to mitigate potential rejection. Misperception may easily occur in the interpretation of ambiguous cues, such as smiling, which may be taken as an indicator of sexual interest. Whilst men and women are used to indirect forms of communication and are typically able to make clear their intentions, when cues are subtle, misinterpretation of a woman's verbal and non-verbal behaviour is possible. This may in turn result in coercion being used to obtain intercourse (Abbey *et al.*, 2004). If alcohol has been consumed, misperception is likely to be heightened due to alcohol disrupting higher order cognitive processes, making it increasingly difficult to evaluate complex stimuli and situations (Steele and Josephs, 1990). Gendered sexual scripts are largely used as the basis to explain why misunderstanding occurs. Women may fail to articulate a clear "no" to sex (either via a verbalised response or overt action) due to being socialised into passive sexual responses. Men by contrast are suggested to be sexual initiators and therefore more likely to interpret ambiguous sexual situations as having sexual intent and to view women's refusals as part of the sexual interplay (Abbey *et al.*, 2000). Gender differences in the way consent is perceived and communicated (Beres, 2007; Hickman and Muehlenhard, 1999) are also likely to heighten misunderstanding.

Alcohol may further serve to increase the potential for assault by impairing a victim's ability to detect perpetrator sexual intent cues and impede the process of rectifying misperception (Loiselle and Fuqua, 2007). Should a problematic sexual situation arise, a drinking woman may not be able to effectively fight off a perpetrator, due to alcohol's effects on motor skills. Based on a review of American college student sexual offence research, Abbey (1991) found that alcohol can diminish a victim's capacity for generating coping responses including verbal and physical resistance. It should be noted that the miscommunication model has been criticised on the grounds that misunderstanding can be used as an "excuse" to justify behaviours which men clearly understand to be constitutive of a lack of consent. It has also been criticised for placing responsibility on women specifically to improve their communication skills, so as to avoid sexual offences. Indeed, there is typically no comparable discourse around the importance of men making serious efforts to establish a partner's sexual intentions or debate around how the impact of alcohol, for example, could impinge on a man's ability to "read" sexual cues (O'Byrne *et al.*, 2008). Irrespective of these criticisms, the theory is widely referenced (Frith, 2009) and the teaching of "refusal skills" has been incorporated into many acquaintance rape prevention programmes in an attempt to reduce instances of sexual violence through enabling women to say "no" effectively (Frith, 2009).[3]

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[3] It is recognised that the teaching of 'refusal skills' may not organically stem from miscommunication theory. For example, self defence theory is also fundamentally premised on 'refusal skills'.

It is also useful to acknowledge Cohen and Felson's (1979) routine activities theory in the understanding of sexual victimisation and assault because this approach has evolved to become one that is frequently referenced in the criminological literature. It also helps to explain the high levels of sexual victimisation found on the university campus specifically. The key principles of the approach are that the amount and location of crime are influenced, if not caused by, three main factors. These are: the availability or presence of motivated offenders, the absence of effective guardians in the nearby environment, and the availability of suitable targets. Schwartz *et al* (2001) highlights that traditional activities theories have paid insufficient attention to what motivates offenders to commit crimes and approach specific targets. Schwartz and Pitts (1995) consequently developed the feminist routine activities theory to address this gap and to make explicit why sexual victimisation is a problem on campus. They argue that a disproportionate number of sexual offences occur in college/university environments due to these settings having a large number of criminogenic convergences. Criminogenic convergences are more specifically defined as male students who are motivated (often via the disinhibiting influence of alcohol and motivational reinforcement of their peer group) to offend sexually against available female targets (especially when women are intoxicated and vulnerable), in an environment where guardians willing to intervene are lacking. Indeed, Schwartz *et al* (2001) argue that when perpetrators receive encouragement from peers for gender-based sexual violence, or receive no punishment from friends, university personnel, and law enforcement officials, effective guardianship is absent and thus contributes towards the potential for violence (Schwartz and DeKeseredy, 1997). Based on their sample of 1,307 male university and community college students who completed a nationally representative Canadian survey, Schwartz *et al* (2001) identified that undergraduate males who drank two or more times a week and who had friends that gave them peer support and reinforcement for emotional and physical abuse, were more than nine times more likely to report committing sexually victimising acts against females, compared to men who had none of these characteristics. The sharing of pornography amongst men is a further factor that has been argued to contribute towards the creation and maintenance of sexist peer groups that presuppose women are consumable objects (DeKeseredy and Olsson, 2011; Schwartz and DeKeseredy, 1997). Schwartz *et al* (2001) concluded that awareness raising campaigns around sexual victimisation were insufficient in isolation and that male peer support networks that reinforced and legitimised gender-based sexual violence must also be addressed if sexual offences on campus are to be effectively reduced.

2.2.2 Theories of sexual harassment

Multiple perspectives have attempted to account for the aetiology of sexual harassment with feminist theories being at the forefront of this debate (see Pina *et al.*, 2009 for a discussion of the different frameworks). Sexual harassment can be defined as any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical sexual conduct which occurs with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person (Council of the European Union, 2004). Broadly speaking, harassment perspectives can be subdivided into three groups: a) the natural biological model which considers the sex drive of men to be stronger than that of women. Men and women are attracted to each other sexually and this may give rise to inappropriate sexual behaviour at work. Personality characteristics and societal variables make some men more prone to perpetrating sexual harassment behaviours than others, b) the organizational model which emphasises the importance of structural factors within work institutions that

encourage harassment, and c) the socio-cultural model which considers harassment to be a manifestation of the patriarchal system in society: a model advocated by feminists.

Catherine Mackinnon was the first individual to conceptualise a theory of sexual harassment, from a feminist perspective, in her classic book "Sexual Harassment of Working Women" (Mackinnon, 1979). Feminist perspectives have argued that sexual harassment is the result of societal gender inequality and sexism (Thomas and Kitzinger, 1997). Harassment, especially in places of work, is deemed to exist due to beliefs around women being the inferior sex (Alemany *et al.*, 2001; Pérez del Río, 2009; Schacht and Atchison, 1993). Harassment behaviours also serve to maintain the gender divide by keeping women subordinate and reinforcing male dominance (Bosch and Ferrer, 2000; Pina *et al.*, 2009). Within work organisations (which may include college and university institutions), individuals bring gender stereotypes and gender role norms. Men and women are consequently socialised into stereotyped interactions within that organisation where men are expected to be dominant and women passive (Lees, 1993), thus providing the context in which harassment can take place. Whaley and Tucker (1998) suggested that harassment will be a somewhat inevitable consequence of societal gendered dynamics and present itself in multiple settings including institutions of work. Whilst feminist perspectives hold weight on the grounds that prevalence studies indicate that men are typically the perpetrators of sexual harassment and that such behaviours are more likely in male-heavy organisations (European Commission, 1998), the theory inadequately incorporates the evolution of gender roles. Namely, it fails to account for the increasing number of non-stereotyped gender behaviours which are now incorporated into workplace settings. In addition, the majority of men do not sexually harass and the theory provides inadequate explanation for why this is the case (Gamsjäger, 2010; Pina *et al.*, 2009).

Organisational theories have argued that power differentials within work institutions impact on the potential for sexual harassment. Power is a key principle of the approach and in Western societies men (are) typically (deemed to) hold more power, and be more dominant, than women (Pina *et al.*, 2009). However, the theory is gender neutral and states that sexual harassment may also be perpetrated by women who occupy positions of power, as an exertion of that dominance. The theory suggests that peers and subordinates may equally sexually harass in an attempt to gain power or equalise power differentials. Other factors including the ethics, climate, norms, and policies of the institution affect the potential for harassment (Whaley and Tucker, 1998) with those institutions with a lack of adequate policy and procedure being more likely to cultivate harassment behaviours. This has important implications for educational institutions where policies around sexual harassment should be clearly devised, promoted, and enforced. In support of the organisational approach, meta-analytic reviews identify that the culture of an institution, including tolerance towards harassment, and the number of women within that institution is associated with the likelihood of sexual harassment (Willness *et al.*, 2007). However, the theory has been criticised on the grounds that it fails to pay attention to individual difference and how stereotypes and expectations influence the potential to harass (Bosch and Ferrer, 2000; Pina *et al.*, 2009).

Natural/biological perspectives suggest that sexual harassment is a logical extension of mate selection (Pina *et al.*, 2009), and is viewed to be an expression of sexual desire.

From an evolutionary standpoint men are deemed to have a stronger drive to be aggressive and to find a mating partner. This elevated sex drive results in a mismatch between men and women's sexual desire, potentially leading to sexually aggressive behaviour within environments where men and women interact, including institutions of work. Whilst the approach recognises the instincts that may drive sexually aggressive behaviour, it can be viewed as overly simplistic, failing to consider the role of individual and societal level factors. Pina *et al* (2009) also argued that sexual harassment is presented as part of a normal reproductive process and consequently fails to provide strategies for the prevention of that behaviour. Application of the theory would logically assume that only men can perpetrate harassment behaviours but this is not always the case (see European Commission, 1998). As such, the approach comprises a number of weaknesses which undermine its ability to comprehensively explain sexual harassment.

2.2.3 Theories of stalking

Stalking behaviours have been documented since the 18th century despite the first anti-stalking law being passed in California in 1990, with Australia, the UK, Germany, and other European countries soon to follow with the introduction of legislation (Spitzberg and Cupach, 2003). However, stalking did not appear on the social and legal agenda until the feminist movement began to highlight the phenomenon and its impact on women's lives. An important consideration surrounding stalking statutes involved the differentiation between forms of stalking behaviour (Spitzberg and Cupach, 2007). Stalking does not comprise a single action or event, but covers a diversity of behaviours that can take place over a prolonged period of time and which in isolation, may be deemed harmless (Hoffmann, 2005; Sheridan and Davies, 2001). Examples of such behaviour may include following an individual, loitering near their home or place of work, watching or approaching an individual. Stalking may also include unwanted communication with a victim through letter, email, or notes, for example, attached to a car. Gifts may be ordered and sent to a victim, their property interfered with, accusations made about their feelings and intentions. Threats, physical, and sexual assault may occur and third parties including family and friends threatened, approached or made the recipient of stalker violence (Pathe and Mullen, 1997). Legal definitions of stalking have taken multiple forms but principally involve an (a) intentional (b) pattern of repeated behaviours toward a person or persons (c) that are unwanted and (d) result in fear, or that a reasonable person (or jury) would view as fearful or threatening (Scott and Sheridan, 2011; Spitzberg and Cupach, 2007). It should be highlighted that the current research project asks students about their experiences of stalking and in doing so, incorporates 15 actions which fall within the broad gamut of "stalking" behaviour. This enables a comprehensive picture to be developed which recognises the multiple forms of unwanted stalking behaviour that may be experienced by students.

The historic image of the stalker has often consisted of a pathological individual engaged in a course of delusional behaviour against a celebrity. However, most stalkers who come to the attention of the law are typically individuals morbidly attached to another person, but recognise that the attachment is not reciprocated. Alternatively, they constitute domestic stalkers who engage in retaliation or attempt to resurrect a failed relationship (Spitzberg and Cupach, 2003). These positions have inevitably influenced theory where the main theoretical literature typically falls into two camps. This includes the clinical, which focuses on paradigms of mental illness,

personality disturbance, and attachment disorder, and the social scientific literature. This latter approach regards stalking to be the result of challenges that surround the formation and breakdown of a relationship. When a relationship ends for example, a partner's persistence may intensify in an attempt to win back that relationship, culminating in stalking type behaviours (Spitzberg and Cupach, 2003).

Attachment theory has been consistently used by clinical psychologists to explain stalking behaviours. The theory emphasises the importance of the bonding process between the child and primary caregiver during infancy (Bowlby, 1980). Infants who develop a secure attachment derive a sense of safety and responsiveness from that caregiver. Those who develop an insecure attachment experience rejection or indifference. This insecure attachment manifests in avoidant tendencies (being detached from the caregiver) or anxious/ambivalence (a need for affection but fear it will be withdrawn). The attachment process during infancy is thought to guide an individual's attachment to significant others throughout the life course (Bowlby, 1980; Spitzberg and Cupach, 2007). Therefore, individuals who develop a secure sense of attachment develop positive views of themselves and others. In contrast, those who develop a preoccupied form of attachment (akin to anxious ambivalence) develop a negative view of self but positive perception of others. This results in a pursuit for self-acceptance, via approval from important people in that individual's life. Insecure attachment, specifically preoccupied attachment, is argued to be a precursor to difficulties in dealing with non-reciprocated affections and stalking behaviour the logical consequence (Meloy, 1996; Spitzberg and Cupach, 2007).

Despite the prominence of attachment theories within clinical settings it is possible that stalking behaviours relate to challenges associated with the development of a close relationship. "Relational goal pursuit theory" has developed to accommodate such arguments and is based on the premise that humans set goals to attain specific relationships, as they do in relation to achieving other outcomes (Spitzberg and Cupach, 2003). When the amount of effort required to achieve a goal exceeds the value of obtaining it, or it is deemed unobtainable, typically that goal is forfeited for the pursuit of another. Relational goal pursuit theory has argued that those who obsessively pursue a relationship that is unrequited inflate the importance of obtaining that relationship goal, resulting in thoughts and actions that fuel the pursuit (Spitzberg and Cupach, 2007). Such individuals overestimate the association between achieving that relationship and obtaining higher order goals such as happiness and self-worth. The individual therefore comes to believe that their happiness rests upon the attainment of the relationship. Anxieties that result from failing to achieve the desired outcome provide the motivation to persist, and intense feelings, coupled with anxiety and distorted thoughts, disinhibit the individual's ability to rationalise how much persistence is appropriate (Spitzberg and Cupach, 2007). Whilst the role of individual difference factors perhaps needs further development within the approach, the theory brings stalking behaviour into the relationship sphere, thus shifting it away from understandings of psychiatric disturbance. This is a positive move in light of Spitzberg and Cupach (2007) having argued that stalking research must begin to recognise the differences between the most dangerous forms of stalking which lead to violence and murder, and the more frequent forms that underpin relationship breakdown.

2.3 Overview of current European research

This section of the review focuses on the current state of European research around students' experiences of gender-based sexual violence. Section one of the review specifically addressed students' experiences of rape, sexual assault, and sexually coercive sex. Whilst inevitably crossing over into some of these issues, the focus of this section will be on students' experiences of stalking, physical violence, and sexual harassment. The section highlights the paucity of European literature in this area and again draws upon international research to help corroborate assertions made.

As noted, there has been a dearth of empirical research with European students to identify the extent and nature of female victimisation during the university and college years. Despite pockets of European investigation, there are no systematic, empirically grounded victimisation studies, as there are in North America. The UK NUS (2010) study "Hidden Marks" identified that from their sample of 2,085 female respondents, one in seven women had experienced a serious physical or sexual assault during their time as a student. Sixty-eight percent had experienced some form of verbal or non-verbal sexual harassment on campus such as groping, flashing, and unwanted sexual comments; for some, these experiences were everyday occurrences. Sixteen percent of women had experienced unwanted kissing, touching or molesting, whilst twelve percent of women reported having been stalked. The majority of stalking episodes were found to last for less than six months. The German based Kury *et al* (2004) study identified that from their sample of 309 female students, a significantly higher 58 percent of women reported having been followed or observed by a man in a way they found frightening. The study authors noted that this may be indicative of a widespread stalking phenomenon in Germany. Forty percent of participants in the Kury *et al* (2004) study were also found to have been witness to exhibitionist or masturbatory behaviours. "Exhibitionist behaviour" however was not defined by the study and it is therefore somewhat ambiguous as to what actions fell within the category. In Spain, Bosch and Ferrer (2000) conducted research into students' experiences of sexual harassment via interviews with male and female students, university lecturers and administration staff. The study specifically noted that sexual harassment frequently occurs at university yet was infrequently disclosed, or effectively responded to. Bosch *et al* (2006) went on to address domestic violence attitudes amongst 1,395 students through administration of the "Inventory of Distorted Thoughts about Woman" and the "Inventory of Social Desirability" by Crowne and Marlowe. Findings indicated that male students, and those without specific knowledge of domestic violence, held more positive beliefs and attitudes toward this form of victimisation. The study findings emphasised the importance of incorporating issues around domestic violence into the educational curriculum at university and called for professionals who work with groups of students who have experienced such violence to be fully and adequately trained on the key issues. Valls *et al* (2007) conducted research in several Spanish universities to identify the prevalence of gender-based violence, the most common forms, and the consequences of such victimisation. Findings indicated that the prevalence of gender violence within those universities sampled was similar to the rates found in wider Spanish society and paralleled other research conducted in similar cultural university contexts. Unique to the study however was identification of the small number of cases that were officially reported and the lack of awareness amongst university personnel around gender-based violence issues. In particular, universities lacked adequate protocols and formal structures to prevent and/or respond to such forms of victimisation.

It is useful to highlight that the increasing usage and development of the Internet, and accompanying "new media"- such as social networks and forums - are especially relevant to harassment and stalking behaviours carried out both within, and outside, of intimate relationships. Younger generations may be increasingly vulnerable to victimisation and harassment via these new media forms. For example, a German study that surveyed 8,322 social network users of multiple age groups identified that 12 percent of 18-19 year olds had experienced sexual harassment via the Internet (Schorb, 2010). The UK NUS (2010) study also identified that a small proportion of students in their sample had been filmed naked or semi-naked and that in two percent of cases, these images had been circulated without their consent. Although it was not specifically stated how these images were distributed, it is reasonable to assume that the Internet provided a forum for at least part of this exploitation. New Media is easily accessible, enhances anonymity, and is consequently an instrument that is likely to pose new challenges to the harassment arena (Belik, 2007; Müller, 2008).

More than one in ten women in the UK NUS (2010) study had been the recipients of serious physical violence. Within this category there were multiple examples of repeat victimisation. Over half of those subject to the most violent behaviours (being choked, strangled or burnt) had experienced these incidents on several occasions. Such findings fit with the wider European research, and American student literature, which demonstrates that women experience high levels of repeat sexual and physical violence (Daigle *et al.*, 2009; Fisher *et al.*, 2008; Stanko, 2004; Temkin and Krahe, 2007; Walby and Allen, 2004). Reasons for this may include the perpetrator being an intimate partner, hence their prolonged access to the victim where repeated relationship violence occurs. Equally, certain factors may leave an individual vulnerable to repeat assault. Heavy drinking to emotionally cope with a previous offence for example may enhance the potential for encountering drinking environments. As noted, such environments are associated with an increased potential for experiencing sexual violence (Abbey *et al.*, 2004). The symptoms of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder, which may be experienced in the aftermath of a sexual or physical assault, may equally affect the ability to defend oneself in dangerous situations, generate cognitive coping responses or form meaningful strategies for avoiding future offences (Petrak, 2002).

The NUS (2010) study identified that the majority of perpetrators of stalking, sexual assault, and physical violence were men and typically known students at the same institution. This contrasts with the findings of Kury *et al* (2004) where stalking incidents were typically committed by strangers, emphasising cultural differences in experience. Reporting of offences in the NUS (2010) study was low across all categories with respondents who were stalked most frequently disclosing to somebody within the institution (in 21 percent of cases) whilst victims of physical violence were most likely to have reported to the police (in 17 percent of cases). However, research across Belgium, Italy, and Slovenia with adult stalking victims has suggested that help seeking and perceptions around the usefulness of police, friends, and family varies significantly between countries (Galeazzi *et al.*, 2009; Modena Group on Stalking, 2005). This highlights the difficulties of making generalised victimisation statements and again demonstrates the need for European-wide studies with student populations that can identify possible cultural differences in victimisation, disclosure, and the utilisation of support. Across all categories of victimisation in the NUS (2010)

study the most frequent reason given for not reporting to official authorities was feeling that what had happened was not serious enough. This also reflects the primary reason given in the Australian NUS survey by Sloane (2011). Fisher *et al* (2003) have argued that American students' frequent classifications of their experience as not sufficiently serious to disclose may reflect what feminists refer to as a false consciousness. That is, women are in some way acculturated to view their non-consensual experiences as acceptable. Alternatively, students may make a cost-benefit decision in relation to disclosing where the gains of reporting are not thought to outweigh the potential negative consequences. In which case, the event may be deemed to lack seriousness not by comparison to an objective standard, but relative to the consequences of reporting.

NUS (2010) participants reported a range of health, learning, relationship, and confidence issues as a consequence of the violence, stalking and harassment experienced; with mental health difficulties being the most prominent. A quarter of all stalking victims said that their mental health, studies, and external relationships had suffered as a consequence. Within this group, negative outcomes were more likely if the stalking had persisted beyond three months. Victims of serious sexual assault reported the most detrimental impacts across all mental health, educational, confidence, and relationship variables, highlighting the clear debilitating impacts associated with such violence and corroborating findings from the American (Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007) and Australian (Sloane, 2011) student literature. They also corroborate the wider body of European research which highlights the long term psychological and physical impact of gender-based sexual violence (Danna, 2007; Modena Group on Stalking, 2005).

Other UK studies that have addressed students' experiences of stalking have been part of broader victimisation surveys (Barberet *et al.*, 2004; Barberet, *et al.*, 2003). The research of Barberet *et al* (2004) for example identified that one-third of students in their sample had been a victim of some form of crime during the previous year with theft, criminal damage, and burglary accounting for 74 percent of all crime experienced. However, almost five percent (n=19) of respondents had experienced stalking: ten of these victims being male and nine female. Of the body of literature that has asked men about their experiences of stalking it is evident that they are the recipients of this form of harassment, but are infrequently at disproportionate risk (Galeazzi *et al.*, 2009; Pathe and Mullen, 1997; Walby and Allen, 2004). Italian survey research with adult stalking victims for example identified that from a sample of 543 respondents who had been stalked, 92.4 percent of victims were female (Ravazzolo and Valanzano, 2010). The small numbers within the Barberet *et al* (2004) study must be noted and are likely to explain the study findings. Based on the sample of 19 stalking victims, Barberet *et al* (2004) identified that the most frequent pattern of stalking behaviour experienced by participants involved unwanted phone calls or notes that were threatening, obscene or a significant nuisance. Six of the stalkers were previous intimate partners, 15 were male, three female, and the gender of one was unknown. Four victims reported to the police, two reported to university security but primarily friends and family were informed. Barberet *et al* (2004) specifically acknowledged that their study only "scratched the surface" (p.50) in relation to stalking experiences amongst English university students and that additional research was needed to help highlight these experiences and their characteristics.

In conclusion, from the literature that has been reviewed it is clear that additional research with European student populations is paramount in order to help clarify the nature and extent of female students' experiences of sexual harassment, abuse, and stalking. As Jaquier *et al* (2006) have also observed, valid cross-national research is needed to help understand the situational and socio-cultural factors that relate to gender-based sexual violence and which should feed into prevention programming approaches accordingly. Much of the existent American research has used cross-sectional survey designs to understand experiences of gender-based sexual violence. Longitudinal and qualitative work is therefore also required to enhance quantitative perspectives and to build models of understanding upon which these issues can be conceptualised, understood and policy informed.

3. Quantitative Report

3.1 Methodology

3.1.1 Development of survey tool

3.1.1.1 Decision to use an online survey tool

The tool chosen to collect quantitative data was an online anonymous self-completion questionnaire (for a print version of it see **8. Appendix**). The decision to opt for an online survey tool was based on three factors: the possibility of ensuring complete anonymity, its suitability in terms of the media use behaviour of the target group, and the effectiveness of this means of data collection.

3.1.1.1.1 Anonymity

Research on violence has demonstrated many times over that compared with personal interviews, in which data are rendered anonymous at a later point in time, anonymous surveys lead to a marked increase in the willingness of target respondents to offer information about their experiences of violence (Nicholson *et al.*, 1998). For example, as the first national survey on sexual violence in Germany impressively shows, the prevalence rates of physical violence within relationships, ascertained through anonymous questionnaires, are four times higher than those obtained through face-to-face interviews (Wetzels and Pfeiffer, 1995). The interviewee's feelings of shame, and their fear that friends and acquaintances might find out about the interview topic, are the main reasons for the general lack of willingness to disclose experiences of violence. This barrier can be significantly lowered by the use of an online survey tool, thus helping cases of violence in respondents' immediate social environments (perpetrated by fellow students or teaching staff, for example) to be brought to public attention (Theobald, 2003). To ensure complete anonymity for respondents in the current survey, no use was made of an access protocol or of personalised transaction numbers as a precondition of access to the survey. In this way, there was no possibility at any time of tracing the identity of the survey participant. An implication of guaranteeing anonymity in this way was that *unauthorised* access could not be prevented using personalised transaction numbers. However, given that authorisation using such numbers is itself no guarantee that the numbers will not be misused or passed on to unintended respondents, this potential source of error was deemed acceptable.

3.1.1.1.2 Target group

As data collection tools, online surveys are frequently criticised for generating heavily distorted samples, as certain groups of people remain excluded from such a survey due to a lack of Internet access or ability to use the medium. This problem is described in the research literature as "coverage error" (Couper and Coutts, 2006. p.218). However, thanks to modern technical infrastructure and Internet-based teaching and learning methods at European universities, it can be assumed that the necessary technical competence, as well as Internet access, is available to students. Since they belong to the under-30s age group, female students can be considered "digital natives" for whom the everyday use of new media constitutes an integral part of their

study and leisure activities. In relation to the current survey, the existence of university email addresses and mailing lists made it easy to contact the intended group of female students in order to draw their attention to the online survey.

3.1.1.1.3 Efficiency

The use of statistical procedures to identify variables that influence the disclosure behaviour of respondents affected by violence harbours a fundamental problem. Namely, since it can be assumed that sexual violence survey research will generate low prevalence rates, large samples are necessary in order to obtain a sufficient number of cases. For this reason, a sample size of N=20,000 was sought from each partner country for the current study. Given the modest financial and human resources available to the research project, conducting a survey of this size could only be achieved by choosing an online survey method. Indeed, this approach significantly improves efficiency when compared with the paper and pencil method (Maurer and Jendura, 2009).

3.1.1.2 Survey method and tools

In regard to the choice of survey tool, the research project was fortunate in being able to draw on previous work carried out by the European Network of Researchers on Violence known as CAHRV. In recent years, CAHRV have developed standards for data collection and conceptual frameworks for comparative data analysis. They have also adapted and tested a variety of research instruments for collecting data on gender-based violence. Respondents in the current study were asked about the forms of violence relevant to the university context (this being the focus of the research) – namely, sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence – using a behaviour-related list of items. The item lists used had previously been tested and revised for use in the European context in two country-wide representative surveys (in Germany in 2003 and in Austria in 2011). They drew upon various Anglo-American and European survey tools addressing experiences of violence (see Coleman, 1997; Heiskanen and Piispa, 1998; Lundgren *et al.*, 2002; Mirrlees-Black and Byron, 1996; Römkens, 1997). In order to adapt them for use in the university context, some minor linguistic changes were made and some sections paraphrased.

The questionnaire began with a description of the background and goals of the project. An assurance was also given concerning data anonymity. The questionnaire itself consisted of five sections in which the students were asked:

- Their year of study and which Faculty they were in (two questions)
- Their sense of safety at the university (two questions),
- Their experiences of violence in terms of sexual harassment, stalking or sexual violence (20 questions each)
- Their knowledge of and requests regarding support services (two questions) and, finally,
- General demographic data (seven questions).

At the end of the questionnaire students were informed about possible points of contact and support within and outside the university in case their responses had elicited emotional recollections.

The questions concerning the respondents' experiences of gender-based sexual violence constituted the main substance of the questionnaire. Three facets of such experiences were investigated: 1) sexual harassment, 2) stalking, and 3) sexual violence. Following an opening question regarding the frequency of experiences of each specific type of violence, respondents were asked about their experiences of violence by means of item lists in which separate acts of assault or violence were explicitly described; these experiences were also differentiated by time (lifetime prevalence/during their time at university). If a respondent indicated that she had experienced one or more of the named forms of violence during her time at university, she was then asked to give further details about the assault/s she considered to be the most serious. In addition to questions about the person who carried out the assault, the place and time it occurred and the resultant consequences (both in general and study-related terms), the respondent was asked to assess her subjective sense of fear at the time of the incident. She was also asked to provide information about whether she had spoken to someone about the experience and if so, to whom. If she had not disclosed, she was asked to indicate why this had been the case.

The questions were designed as fully closed single and multiple responses. In an open response section at the end of the questionnaire, students were able to provide feedback about the survey.

The questionnaire contained a carefully designed series of filter questions, meaning that the respondent was guided to only those questions or sub-questions which were relevant to them. The aim of this was to reduce the time needed to process the questionnaires and, secondly, to avoid the possibility of the respondent discontinuing the questionnaire at a point where the questions were not relevant to them. On account of the sensitivity of the topic, very little use was made of obligatory questions – these were only used when they were indispensable to the filtering process. The number of non-response items resulting from this (i.e. the refusal to answer certain questions) was deemed acceptable given the ethical considerations involved. In order to avoid respondents discontinuing the questionnaire completely, the response options "don't know" and "I don't wish to answer" were also used. This was to indicate to the respondent that they were not to feel pressured by the questionnaire and that such responses would be accepted and respected.

3.1.1.3 Revision and optimisation of the survey tool

Before female students in the five partner countries were surveyed using the questionnaire (during the winter semester 2010/11), the survey tool ran through a two-phase process of development and optimisation.

3.1.1.3.1 Phase one: Initial work at the Ruhr University Bochum

The suitability of an online questionnaire as a survey tool for acquiring data on experiences of violence was investigated in a comparative preliminary study conducted at the Ruhr University Bochum prior to the start of the research project itself. This revealed that the online questionnaire does not differ from the conventional paper and pencil method in terms of its reliability. Indeed, it presents fewer errors and attains only slightly lower response rates (Fischelmanns, 2007). During the pilot phase, the questionnaire (in the form described above) was administered during the summer semester 2009 at the Evangelische Fachhochschule Bochum (University of Applied Science) to identify whether the linguistic formulations used were

comprehensible and whether the filter questions worked as intended. Apart from minor linguistic alterations and re-codings, the questionnaire was judged by the female test respondents to be comprehensible and clear with regard to the filter options. After the pre-test, the tool was translated from German into English and presented to the project partners for discussion. All the partners approved the structure of the questionnaire, making only minor alterations (questions about the most serious situation) or additions to its content (questions about the influence of alcohol or drugs on the perpetrator and victim, dating behaviour, and the duration and intensity of stalking incidents). Care was taken to ensure that the questionnaire required the fewest possible adaptations in each particular country. Where requested, the partner countries were given the opportunity to additionally include certain country-specific questions that were significant for their own national analyses. However, very limited use was made of this option in order to restrict the size of the questionnaire. Finally, once approved by the partners, the questionnaire was translated into each country's language (in the case of Spain, into Spanish and Catalan).

3.1.1.3.2 Phase two: Survey at the partner universities (wave A)

In winter 2009/10, a survey of female students was undertaken at the five partner universities in order to test the questionnaires that had been translated into the different languages. An evaluation of the feedback given on the questionnaire indicated that, in this second trans-national test phase, the majority of the test respondents approved of the questionnaire in terms of its structure and content. It was also confirmed that the use of a self-completion online questionnaire had a beneficial influence on the respondents in terms of their willingness to answer the questions posed. The analysis of the free text comments on the questionnaire indicated that respondents associated the online method with a high degree of anonymity, a perception which had a positive impact on their willingness to disclose information.

The rates of non-completion, differentiated according to the page on which a respondent discontinued the questionnaire, showed that most respondents discontinued at the point of the behaviour-related item lists. In response to this, the number of items was again reduced and the filter questions changed in such a way that a respondent only had to answer further questions if they had actually experienced a violent assault.

The intended survey respondents at Ruhr University Bochum were contacted simultaneously by post and by email to inform them about the questionnaire. In the questionnaire itself, they were asked to indicate which of the two methods of contact had prompted their decision to complete the survey. Whilst contact by post proved to be more reliable, the obvious advantage of the email letter was that it contained a direct link which the person could click on to access the questionnaire. This meant that typing errors could be avoided and that the chances of the person responding immediately to the survey were increased. This in turn reduced the likelihood of the survey being forgotten about.

3.1.1.4 Data protection

Upon completion of the first test phase, the online questionnaire was shown to the data protection officer at the Ruhr University Bochum. The data protection officer confirmed that the questionnaire already met very high data protection standards in

terms of its basic design, due to the decision taken at the start of the project to make it a completely anonymous self-completion questionnaire. He did, however, highlight certain details that needed improving and this was done accordingly. For example, with regard to gathering demographic data, care was taken to ensure that individuals could not be identified on the basis of any rare combinations of personal factors (age, Faculty affiliation, nationality). In addition, a separate database was set up on a protected server for the purpose of contacting those respondents interested in participating in the focus group interviews. Personal information (telephone number, email-address) provided by respondents was stored in a separate database, without any data logging, to ensure there was no possibility of matching it to any of the answers respondents had given in the questionnaire. As soon as participants accessed the separate homepage, they were informed about the length of time their data would be stored and about their data protection rights.

A strict division was established between survey data and students' personal data for the national rollout. Only the project partner in each country had access to the protected survey server and the information collected on it, whilst the participating universities only received a link to the page where the online questionnaire could be completed. Conversely, the email addresses via which the female students were invited to participate in the survey remained solely in the possession of the participating universities. Data protection standards applied by the software manufacturer and operator Unipark/Globalpark, which was used for all surveys, are documented in the Appendix.

3.1.2 National rollout (wave B)

3.1.2.1 Selection of each country's universities

With regard to compiling the rollout sample, the partners agreed on a limited number of national universities designed to reflect the nature of Higher Education in each country. To achieve this, the partners agreed on a list of criteria intended to take account of the geographical distribution and catchment area (urban or rural), the size and prestige as well as the type of institution (classical university or specialised technical university, in scattered locations or campus-based). Using the list of criteria, each project partner devised a list of universities, with the management body of each university then being sent a standard letter explaining the research project and requirements (see **8. Appendix**).

As had been the case during the pre-test phase, the partner universities were met with a range of different responses. Apart from Germany, where the request to conduct a survey was met with interest and a willingness to cooperate by the majority of Higher Education institutions contacted, the other project partners were faced, in certain cases, with considerable difficulties in getting institutions to participate. Two main factors made it difficult to get HE institutions to commit their time. Firstly, the unstable economic and financial situation within the European Union in general and within national education systems specifically, meant that institutions were reluctant to take on additional work that was unpaid. Secondly, partners noted a generally reserved attitude on the part of HE institutions, albeit to varying degrees, when it came to the nature of the research topic. Concerns were expressed (in either subtle or explicit ways) that any deleterious results would cast a negative light on the institution

and may damage its reputation or hinder it in the competition of a good ranking position. In the UK for example, over 12 English universities were approached, formally and informally, between late 2009 and early 2010 in the hope that the team would be able to administer the rollout at these institutions. Presentations, teaching workshops, and formal communications were carried out to this end. The team authored and formally lodged "ethics applications" at five of the universities that were approached with two institutions eventually consenting to have their students surveyed. Universities were hesitant to be a part of the rollout for a variety of other reasons. These included issues of privacy, university anonymity, the lack of financial funds to compensate the participating universities, a time period overlap with the UK's National Student Experience survey and an institutional policy against allowing university researchers, other than home researchers, to survey students. In Spain, major difficulties were also encountered in the process of inviting universities to join the research project. Apart from the above cited reasons of the economic crisis and the lack of economic resources, most Spanish universities at the time were undergoing severe financial cuts and restriction of activities. In addition, the topic was considered to be one that could have a negative impact on future students' applications to the university and possibly damage its reputation. Consequently, almost 20 Spanish universities were contacted, mostly through Equal Opportunities Units, with only four universities (one medium size and three small institutions) acceding to participate.

Due to the above mentioned difficulties, data sets in the UK and Spain specifically were considerably smaller than had been anticipated.

Table 7: National rollout (wave B)

Country	Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	total
Number of participating universities	16	4	7	4	3	34
Number of respondents (adjusted sample)	12,663	3,064	4,759	323	707	21,516

The selection of national universities cannot be judged representative of each country due to the difficulties described. References made throughout the report to partner countries and their universities should therefore not be deemed to reflect the totality of female students in the country concerned.

3.1.2.2 Survey implementation

The rollout at the country-specific institutions took place between October 2010 and March 2011. Project partners agreed the following standard procedure: a questionnaire specially adapted to each participating institution would be produced by the partners. The content and structure of the tool was identical in each case, while the layout (university logo), the link to support services, and the list of Faculties from which the student studied was unique to each adapted survey. The questionnaire was then released for access by the project partners at an agreed time point and remained accessible for three weeks. The participating university sent its female students an email with the invitation to take part in the study and provided the link to the survey. At certain institutions additional advertising took place via leaflets, posters, and

references on homepages or social networks. In the second week, an email reminder was sent by the participating institution to all students.

However, for some institutions there were technical and organisational impediments which would have made it impossible to participate in the survey under the standard conditions noted above. In order to ensure that the size of the survey group did not deviate any further from the size planned, agreement was reached among the project partners that if there was no other way of implementing the survey, the universities could be included under altered conditions. The deviations from the standard method included certain universities not being unable to send out the invitation emails in a gender-differentiated way. This meant that both female and male students were contacted. The male students were then removed by the project partners in the course of data adjustment. The difference between the number of times the survey was accessed and the adjusted sample is therefore large. The unforeseen participation of male students also acted to raise the non-completion rate. For organisational reasons and reasons of data protection, some of the universities informed only certain Faculties about the survey or else refused to contact students by email. At these universities female students were invited to participate via leaflets, posters, and references on homepages or social networks. The participation rate at these universities is correspondingly low.

3.1.2.3 Processing and goodness of the data

Before the national data sets were placed into a combined data set, an initial phase of data adjustment took place in each of the participating countries. Due to the survey being directed exclusively at female students, those male students who had participated were excluded. Country-specific variables that were significant for the national analyses, but had no relevance in the country comparison, were also removed. It became evident throughout the adjustment process that certain respondents had "leafed through" the questionnaire but had not answered any questions. As such, only those survey participants who had filled in at least the general item list on sexual harassment were left in the data set. In a second phase of data adjustment, and in preparation for matching data sets, the names of variables were compared and standardised and an additional country variable constructed so that it was possible to undertake a country comparative analysis.

Due to the questionnaire containing almost no obligatory responses, there were a large number of refusals to answer certain questions (item non-response). In the analysis these cases were accounted for as missing values, thus leading to varying reference sample sizes. This should be taken into consideration when interpreting data.

The most significant motivational factor for taking part in a survey is considered to be a personal interest in the topic (Theobald, 2003). When recruiting participants via leaflets and posters – who constitute a self-recruited group of participants (Couper and Coutts, 2004) – it can be surmised that students with a personal experience of violence will be increasingly motivated to take part in the research: this may consequently result in heightened prevalence rates.

Diverse methods were used to recruit participants to the study and it is therefore not possible to establish how many women were informed about the survey, and thus,

make statements about response rate. Again, survey participants cannot be viewed as representative of the general student population which is why inferential procedures are not used or generalising statements made throughout the report.

3.2 Analysis of frequencies

3.2.1 Prevalence of violence

This section of the report analyses the outputs generated from the survey tool. Key frequencies are explained via the use of descriptive graphs.

3.2.1.1 Harassment

3.2.1.1.1 Lifetime prevalence

The graph below shows the number of respondents who had experienced at least one incident of sexual harassment during their lifetime. This was a multiple response question.

Harassment - Experienced at least one incident in life

	Yes, at least one incident	
UK	84,4% (n=597)	15,6% (n=110)
Spain	70,6% (n=228)	29,4% (n=95)
Poland	83,40% (n=3,969)	16,6% (n=790)
Italy	69% (n=2,114)	31,0% (n=950)
Germany	80,60% (n=10,207)	19,4% (n=2,456)
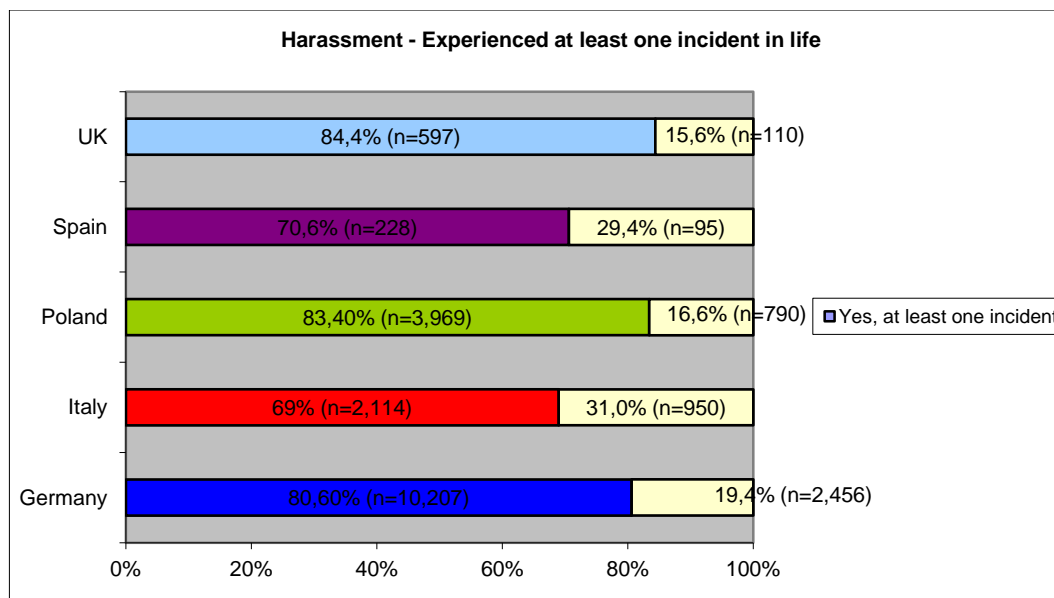
Graph 1: Harassment – experienced at least one incident during their life

The findings indicate that the majority of students who answered this question (mean value = 77.6 percent) had experienced at least one incident of harassment during their life. Looking at the entire sample the rate is smaller but still high: Half of the female students surveyed had experienced sexual harassment at some point in their lives (51.1 percent)

3.2.1.1.2 Prevalence during their time at university

The graph below shows the number of respondents who had experienced at least one

incident of sexual harassment during their time at university.

Harassment - Experienced at least one incident in studies

Country	Yes, at least one incident	No
UK	68,6% (n=407)	31,4% (n=186)
Spain	54,2% (n=122)	45,8% (n=103)
Poland	65,80% (n=2,592)	34,2% (n=1,349)
Italy	47% (n=965)	53,5% (n=1,109)
Germany	68,0% (n=6,930)	32,0% (n=3,259)
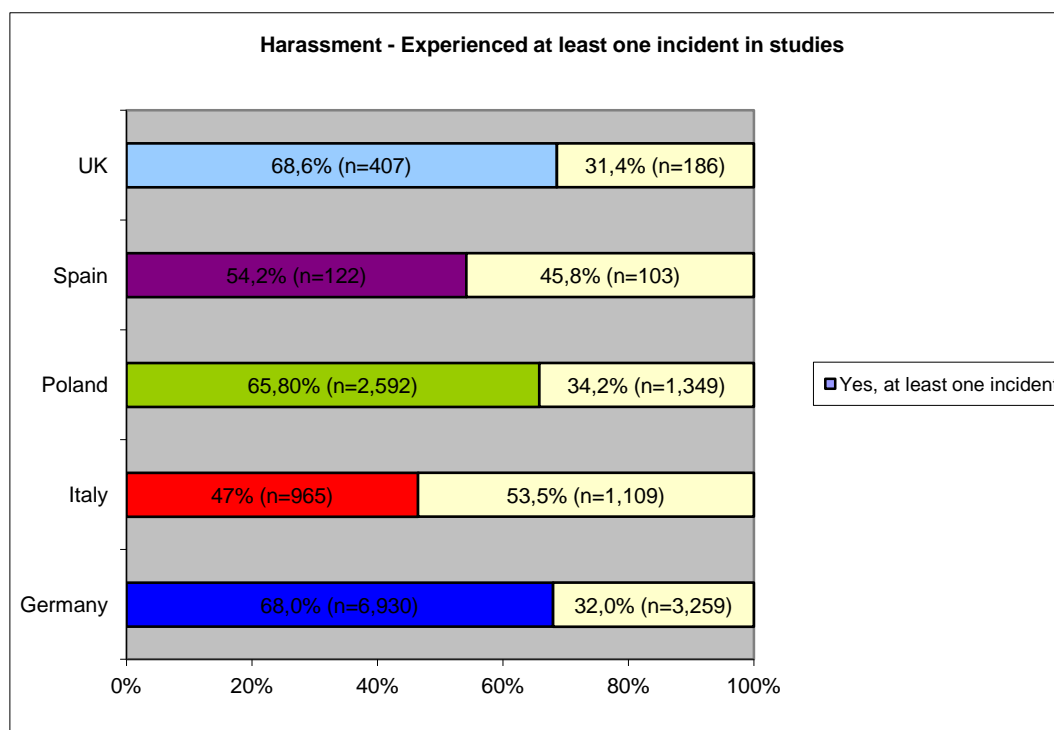
Graph 2: Harassment – experienced at least one incident at university

More than half of the students surveyed (mean value = 60.7 percent) had experienced at least one incident of harassment during their time at university.

3.2.1.1.3 Prevalence during studies – sense of threat

In general, students did not perceive sexual harassment incidents to be significantly threatening (mean value = 53.5 percent). The exceptions being Polish students (59.9 percent), followed by Italian participants (48.6 percent), who identified feeling more threatened than the other country respondents.

3.2.1.1.4 Most severe incident

Survey participants were asked to subjectively identify an incident of sexual harassment that they had experienced and which they considered to be the "most severe". The graph below details those incidents that were identified as the most severe.
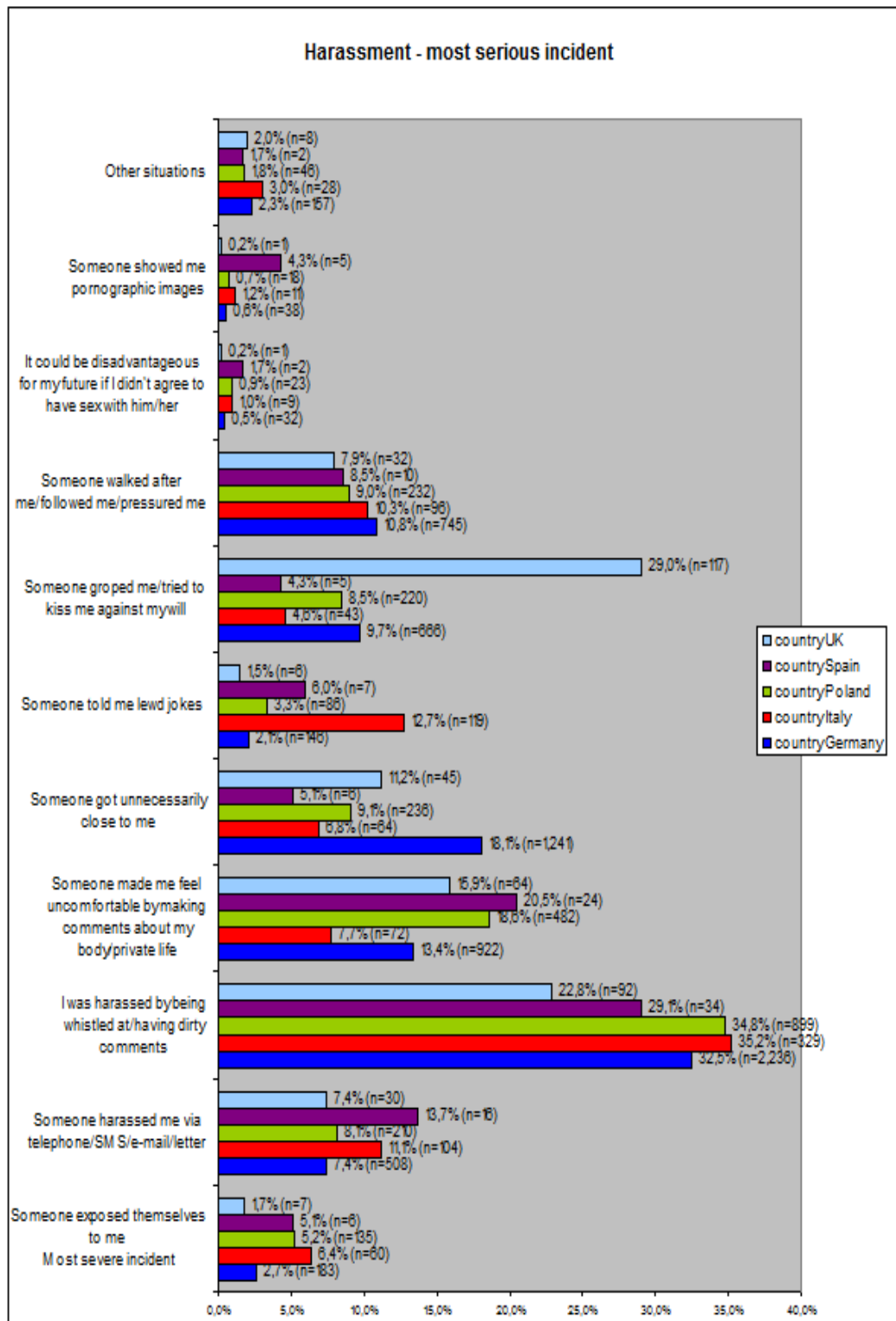
Graph 3: Harassment – most severe incident

The sexual harassment incidents that students found most severe were to be "harassed by being whistled at or having dirty comments" directed towards them (one third of respondents had experienced this). Almost one third of respondents had experienced either "someone getting unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me to closely or pressured me into a corner in a way I perceived as threatening" (14.6

percent total) or "someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about my body or my private life, by making sexual innuendos, or by making sexual advances in a threatening way" (14.3 percent total). The graph indicates that 12.7 percent of Italian students had been harassed by "lewd jokes and being spoken to in a way that made me feel pressured sexually" (3.3 percent total) whereas 29 percent of UK students had been harassed by "someone groping me or tried to kiss me against my will" (9.6 percent total).

For Italian students, it is possible that awareness around harassment behaviours may have been influenced by the introduction of new stalking legislation («*stalking*» «Atti Persecutori» - introduced into the Italian criminal code in Article 612 bis when the law decree No. 11 dated February 23 2009 became effective, and then converted into law: No. 38 dated April 23 2009). This legislation aims to protect victims before the behavior of the perpetrator develops into more serious/obtrusive episodes of stalking.

The graphs below detail, for each country, the most severe incidents of sexual harassment in accordance to threat perception.

Graph 4: Harassment (most severe incident) German students' sense of threat

Italian students sense of threat - Harassment

Category	Not threatened	Threatened
I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	37,5% (n=9)	62,5% (n=15)
Someone showed me pornographic images	54,5% (n=6)	45,5% (n=5)
Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous	12,5% (n=1)	87,5% (n=7)
Someone walked after me, followed me	5,4% (n=5)	94,6% (n=87)
Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will	42,9% (n=18)	57,1% (n=24)
Someone told me lewd jokes	64,1% (n=75)	35,9% (n=42)
Someone got unnecessarily close to me	33,3% (n=21)	66,7% (n=42)
Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments	62,5% (n=45)	37,5% (n=27)
I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments	70% (n=226)	30% (n=97)
Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter	31,1% (n=34)	68,9% (n=71)
Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me	54,4% (n=31)	45,6% (n=26)

Graph 5: Harassment (most severe incident) Italian students' sense of threat

Polish students sense of threat - Harassment

Category		
I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	22,2% (n=10)	77,8% (n=35)
Someone showed me pornographic images	61,6% (n=11)	38,9% (n=7)
Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous	4,3% (n=1)	95,7% (n=22)
Someone walked after me, followed me	1,3% (n=3)	98,7% (n=229)
Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will	30,4% (n=66)	69,6% (n=151)
Someone told me lewd jokes	56,5% (n=48)	43,5% (n=37)
Someone got unnecessarily close to me	34,1% (n=79)	65,9% (n=153)
Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments	47,7% (n=225)	52,3% (n=247)
I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments	58% (n=514)	42% (n=375)
Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter	18,3% (n=38)	81,7% (n=170)
Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me	22,2% (n=30)	77,8% (n=105)

Threatened

Graph 6: Harassment (most severe incident) Polish students' sense of threat

63

Spanish students sense of threat - Harassment

- I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment: 50,0% (n=1) / 50,0% (n=1)
- Someone showed me pornographic images: 60,0% (n=3) / 40,0% (n=2)
- Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous: 100,0% (n=2)
- Someone walked after me, followed me: 40,0% (n=4) / 60,0% (n=6)
- Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will: 100,0% (n=5)
- Someone told me lewd jokes: 66,7% (n=4) / 33,3% (n=2)
- Someone got unnecessarily close to me: 83,3% (n=5) / 16,7% (n=1)
- Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments: 60,9% (n=14) / 39,1% (n=9)
- I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments: 82% (n=27) / 18% (n=6)
- Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter: 31,3% (n=5) / 68,8% (n=11)
- Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me: 100,0% (n=6)

Legend: ■ Threatened

Graph 7: Harassment (most severe incident) Polish students' sense of threat

UK students sense of threat – harassment

- I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment: 14,3% (n=1) / 85,7% (n.6)
- Someone showed me pornographic images: 100,0% (n=1)
- Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous: 100,0% (n=1)
- Someone walked after me, followed me: 40,6% (n=13) / 59,4% (n=19)
- Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will: 50,4% (n=58) / 49,6% (n=57)
- Someone told me lewd jokes: 100,0% (n=4)
- Someone got unnecessarily close to me: 56,8% (n=25) / 43,2% (n=19)
- Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments: 59,7% (n=37) / 40,3% (n=25)
- I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments: 88% (n=81) / 12% (n=11)
- Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter: 31,0% (n=9) / 69,0% (n=20)
- Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me: 42,9% (n=3) / 57,1% (n=4)

Legend: □ Threatened

Graph 8: Harassment (most severe incident) UK students' sense of threat

The graphs indicate that Polish students felt most threatened by "being whistled at or having dirty comments" directed at them (42 percent of Polish students reported feeling threatened by this behaviour, compared to the mean study value of 23.8 percent). Overall, the incidents perceived as the most threatening were being followed, being blackmailed, and when "someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous for my future or my professional development if I didn't agree to have sex with him/her." In relation to this latter category, the small number of respondents across countries must be noted.

3.2.1.2 Stalking

3.2.1.2.1 Lifetime prevalence

The graph below shows the number of respondents who had experienced at least one incident of stalking in their lifetime. This was a multiple response question.

Stalking - Experienced at least one incident in life

	Yes, at least one incident	
UK	44,8% (n=294)	55,2% (n=362)
Spain	35,6% (n=100)	64,4% (n=181)
Poland	41,30% (n=1,670)	58,7% (n=2,377)
Italy	28% (n=773)	71,8% (n=1,973)
Germany	42,80% (n=4,927)	57,2% (n=6,587)
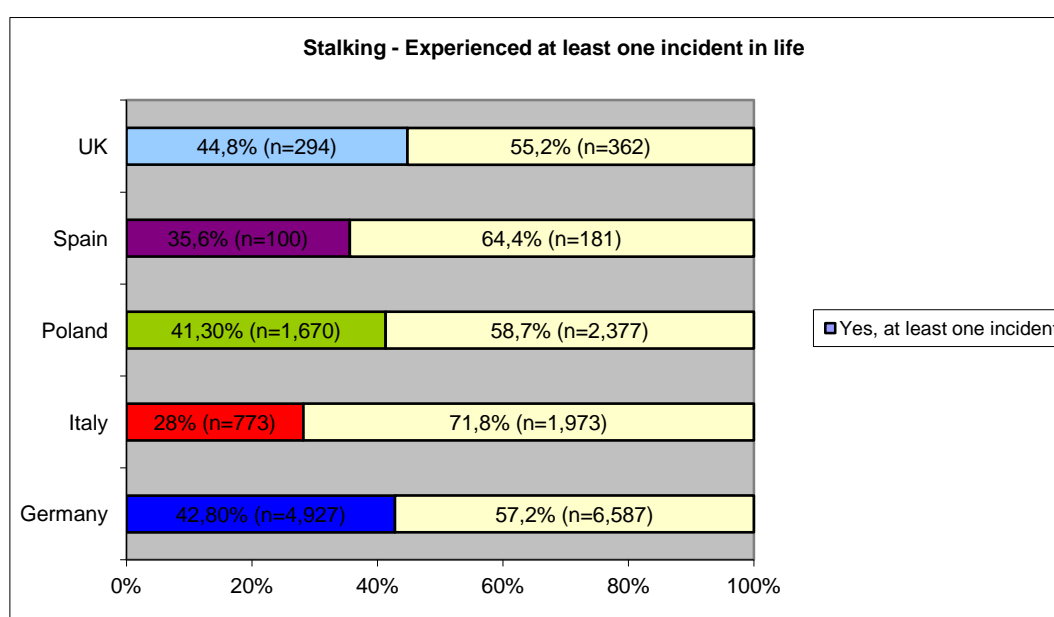
Graph 9: Stalking – experienced at least one incident during their life

The findings indicate that 38.5 percent (mean value) of students who answered this question had experienced at least one incident of stalking during their life. Looking at the entire sample the rate is almost identical: more than a third of all female students surveyed had been affected by acts typical of stalking (36 percent)

3.2.1.2.2 Prevalence during their time at university

The graph below shows the number of respondents who had experienced at least one incident of stalking during their time at university.

Stalking - Experienced at least one incident in studies

Country	Yes, at least one incident	
UK	58,2% (n=173)	41,8% (n=124)
Spain	52,9% (n=54)	47,1% (n=48)
Poland	48,7% (n=841)	51,3% (n=886)
Italy	41,8% (n=340)	58,2% (n=473)
Germany	50,8% (n=2,627)	49,2% (n=2,540)
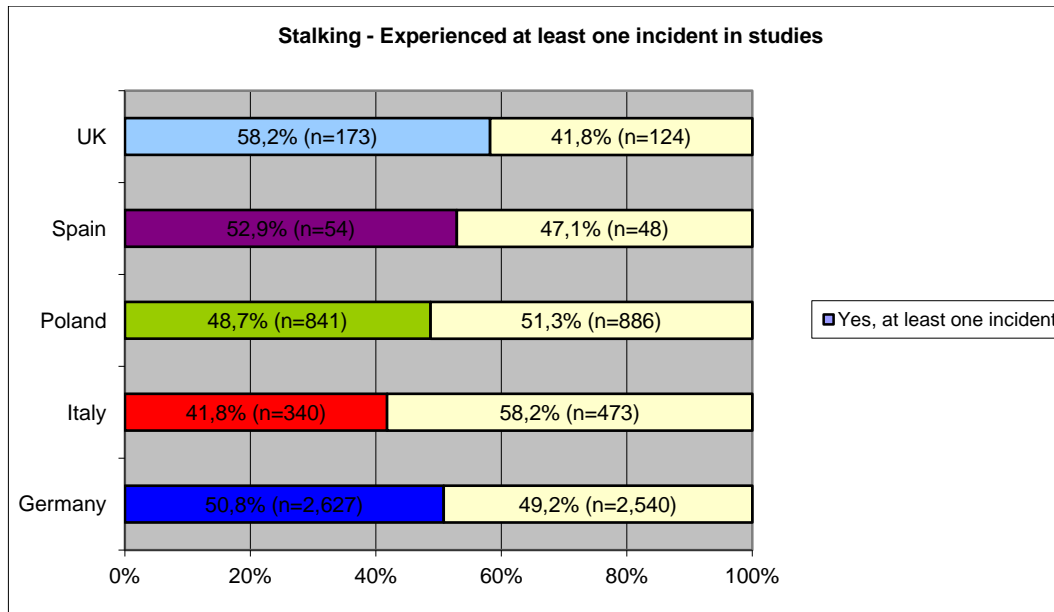
Graph 10: Stalking – experienced at least one incident at university

The graph indicates that half of the students surveyed (mean value = 50.5 percent) had experienced at least one incident of stalking during their time at university.

3.2.1.2.3 Prevalence during studies – sense of threat

In general, stalking behaviours were perceived to be more threatening than experiences of sexual harassment. More than half of the Spanish, Polish, and Italian students surveyed felt threatened by this behaviour.

3.2.1.2.4 Most severe incident

Survey participants were asked to subjectively identify an incident of stalking that they had experienced and which they considered to be the "most severe". The graph below details those incidents that were identified as the most severe.
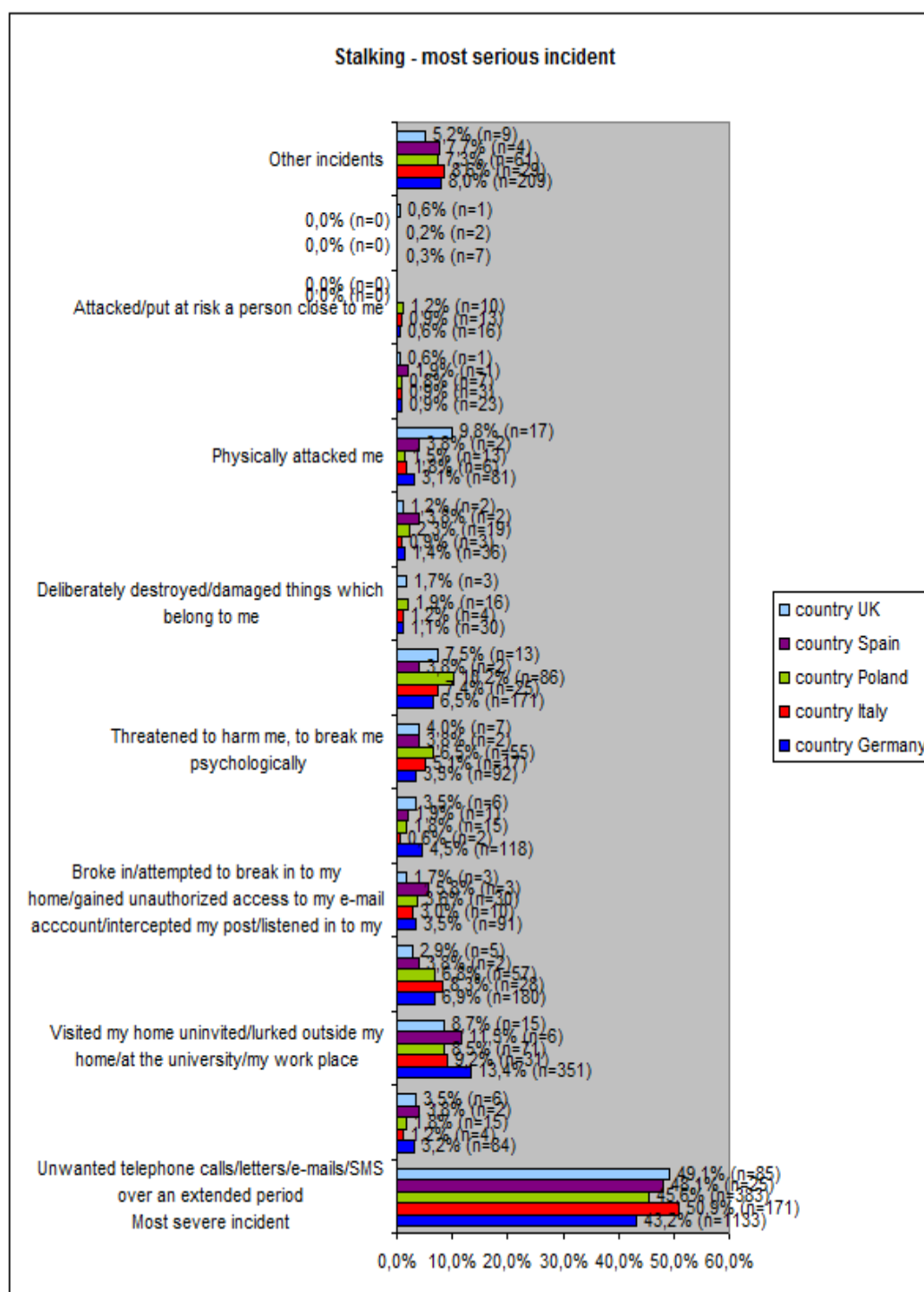
Graph 11: Stalking – most sever incident

As the above graph indicates, the stalking incidents that students identified as the most severe were receiving "unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, and SMS over an extended period" (44.7 percent total). As was the case with incidents of sexual harassment, these behaviours were experienced most frequently by first year students (38.2 percent) and least frequently by PhD students (1.8 percent).

The graphs below detail, for each country, the most severe incident of stalking in accordance to threat perception.

German students sense of threat - Stalking

Category	Yellow	Blue/Gray
Other incidents	37,1% (n=76)	62,9% (n=129)
Failed to abide by a police restraining order/court safety order	28,6% (n=2)	71,4% (n=5)
Attacked/put at risk a person close to me	25,0% (n=4)	75,0% (n=12)
Threatened to harm someone close to me	30,4% (n=7)	69,6% (n=16)
Physically attacked me	1,2% (n=1)	99,8% (n=80)
Threatened to injure me physically/kill me	2,8% (n=1)	97,2% (n=35)
Deliberately destroyed/damaged things which belong to me	44,8% (n=13)	55,2% (n=16)
Threatened self-harm or suicide	58,5% (n=93)	41,5% (n=66)
Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically	12,1% (n=11)	87,9% (n=80)
Harassed my family/friends/fellow students/neighbours	57,5% (n=65)	42,5% (n=48)
Broke in/attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account	44,0% (n=40)	56,0% (n=51)
Spied up on me	59% (n=105)	41% (n=74)
Visited my home/uninvited/lurked outside my home/at the university/at my work place	41,4% (n=143)	58,6% (n=202)
Sent me things I didn't want	82,9% (n=68)	17,1% (n=14)
Unwanted telephone calls/letters/e-mails/SMS/messages	72,5% (n=808)	27,5% (n=306)

Legend: ■ Threatened

Axis: 0% — 50% — 100%

Graph 12: Stalking (most severe incident) German students' sense of threat

Italian students sense of threat - Stalking

Category	Not threatened	Threatened
Other incidents	32,0% (n=8)	68,0% (n=17)
Attacked/put at risk a person close to me	33,3% (n=1)	66,7% (n=2)
Threatened to harm someone close to me		100,0% (n=3)
Physically attacked me		100,0% (n=6)
Threatened to injure me physically/kill me	33,3% (n=1)	66,7% (n=2)
Deliberately destroyed/damaged things which belong to me	25,0% (n=1)	75,0% (n=3)
Threatened self-harm/suicide	37,5% (n=9)	62,2% (n=15)
Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically	11,8% (n=2)	88,2% (n=15)
Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	50,0% (n=1)	50,0% (n=1)
Broke in/attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account	20,0% (n=2)	80,0% (n=8)
Spied up on me	46,20% (n=12)	53,80% (n=14)
Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home/at the university/at my work place	29,0% (n=9)	71,0% (n=22)
Sent me things I didn't want	50,0% (n=2)	50,0% (n=2)
Unwanted telephone calls/letters/e-mails/SMS/messages	55,4% (n=92)	44,6% (n=74)

Graph 13: Stalking (most severe incident) Italian students' sense of threat

Graph 14: Stalking (most severe incident) Polish students' sense of threat

Spanish students sense of threat - Stalking

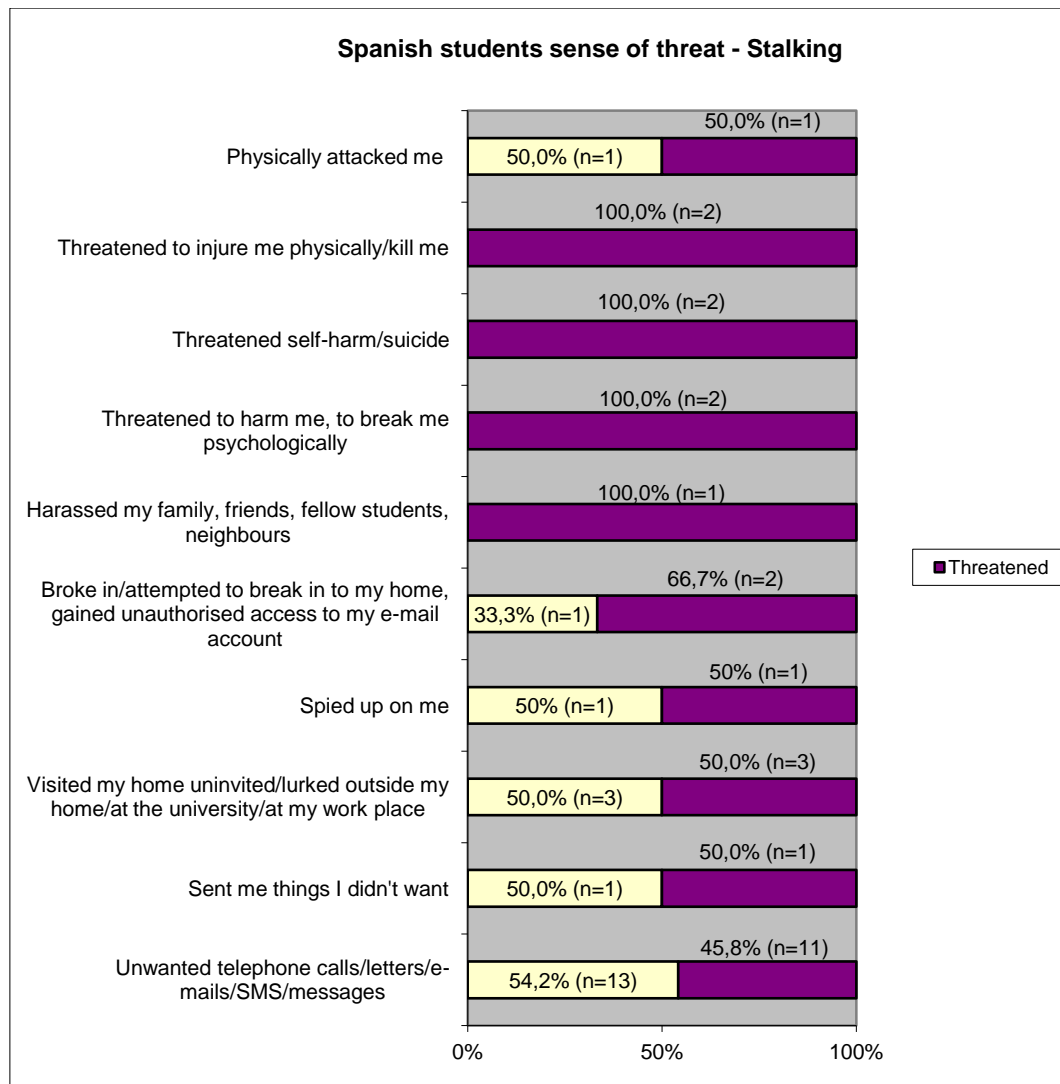| Category	Threatened (grey)	Threatened (purple)
Physically attacked me	50,0% (n=1)	50,0% (n=1)
Threatened to injure me physically/kill me	100,0% (n=2)	
Threatened self-harm/suicide	100,0% (n=2)	
Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically	100,0% (n=2)	
Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	100,0% (n=1)	
Broke in/attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account	66,7% (n=2)	33,3% (n=1)
Spied up on me	50% (n=1)	50% (n=1)
Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home/at the university/at my work place	50,0% (n=3)	50,0% (n=3)
Sent me things I didn't want	50,0% (n=1)	50,0% (n=1)
Unwanted telephone calls/letters/e-mails/SMS/messages	45,8% (n=11)	54,2% (n=13)

Graph 15: Stalking (most severe incident) Spanish students' sense of threat

Graph 16: Stalking (most severe incident) UK students' sense of threat

Whilst participants were clearly aware of the impact of psychological violence, it was evident from the findings that the type of violence which students felt most threatened by was a physical attack involving bodily harm.

3.2.1.3 Sexual violence

3.2.1.3.1 Lifetime prevalence

The graph below shows the number of respondents who had experienced at least one incident of sexual violence in their lifetime. This was a multiple response question.

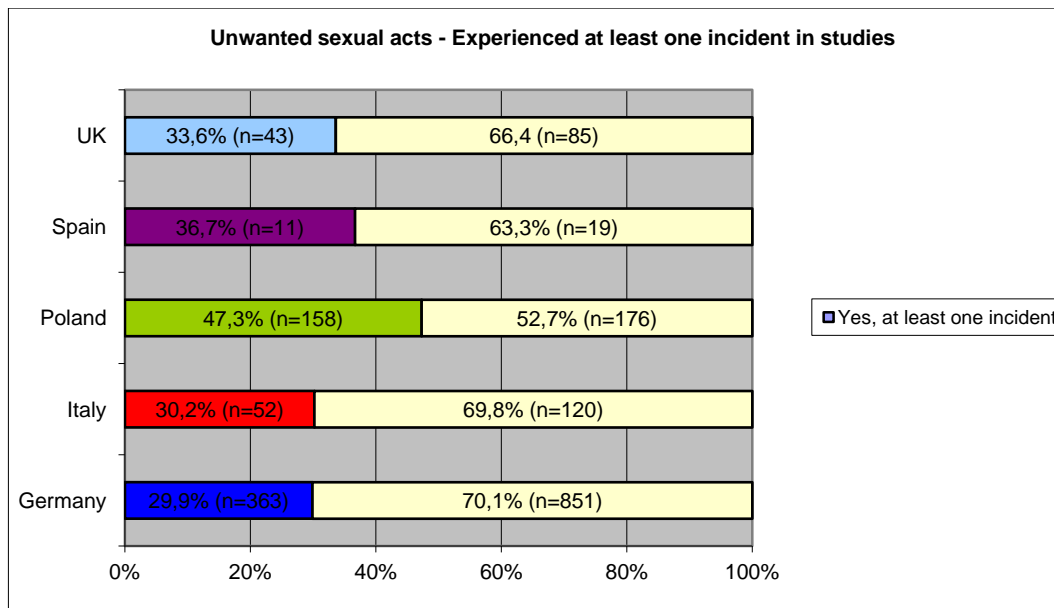**Unwanted sexual acts - Experienced at least one incident in life**

Country	Yes, at least one incident	
UK	73,1% (n=128)	26,9% (n=47)
Spain	65,2% (n=30)	34,8% (n=16)
Poland	71,2% (n=337)	28,8% (n=136)
Italy	58,3% (n=172)	41,7% (n=123)
Germany	59,2% (n=1,219)	40,8% (n=839)
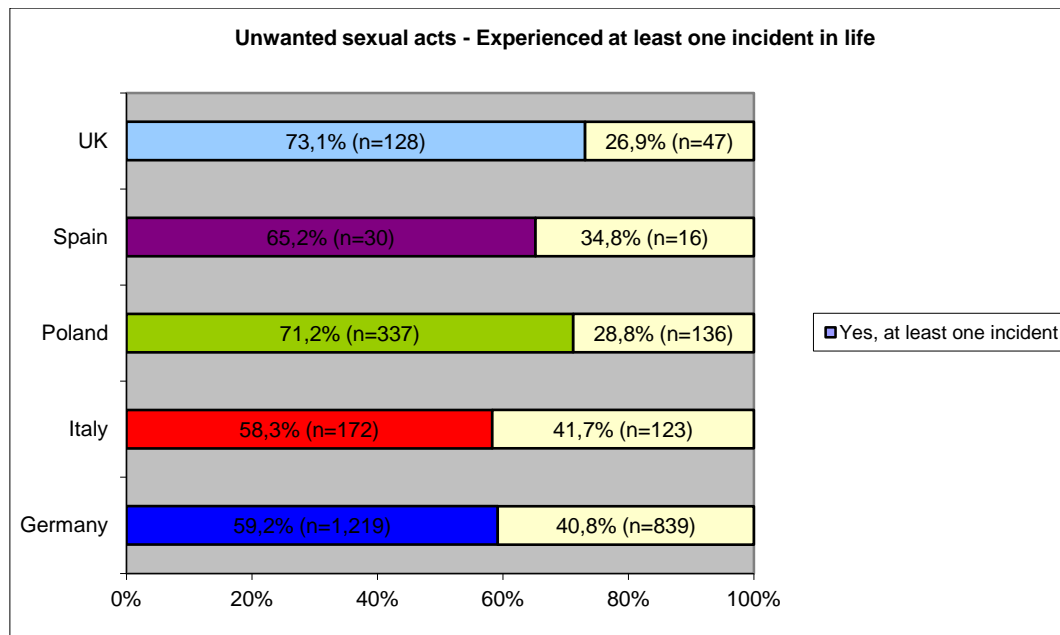
Graph 17: Sexual violence – experienced at least one incident during their life

The findings indicate that over half of the students who answered this question (mean value = 65.4 percent) had experienced at least one incident of sexual violence during their life. The number of respondents answering this question was: UK = 175, Spain = 46, Poland = 473, Italy = 295, Germany = 2,058. Whilst the calculated mean value was high, the number of respondents answering the question, in comparison with the entire sample, was low: Nearly one in ten students of the entire sample had been a victim of criminal sexual assault (8.7 percent).

3.2.1.3.2 Prevalence during their time at university

The graph below shows the number of respondents who had experienced at least one incident of sexual violence during their time at university.

Graph 18: Unwanted sexual acts – experienced at least one incident at university

The findings indicate that 35.5 percent (mean value) of students had experienced at least one incident of sexual violence during their time at university, with this value being lower than that experienced during the life of the respondent. However, it should be noted that a large proportion of survey participants did not answer (missing data) those questions which asked about sexual violence during the university years (mean value of missing cases = 91.3 percent of the total sample, n = 21,516). As discussed in the literature review (see **2. A review of the extant research**), women are often reluctant to divulge unwanted sexual experiences, even when anonymity is provided.

3.2.1.3.3 Prevalence during studies – sense of threat

In relation to experiences of sexual violence, it is important to highlight that perceived sense of threat was very high for this specific form of gender-based victimisation (mean value = 80.1 percent).

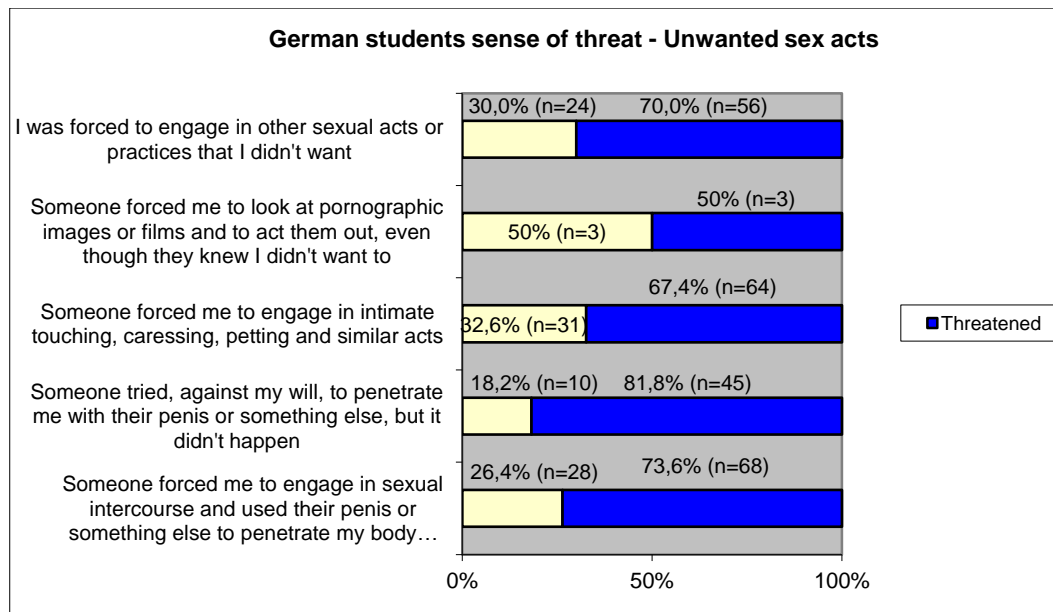### *3.2.1.3.4 Most severe incident*

Survey participants were asked to subjectively identify an incident of sexual violence that they had experienced and which they considered to be the "most severe". The graph below details those incidents that were identified as the most severe.
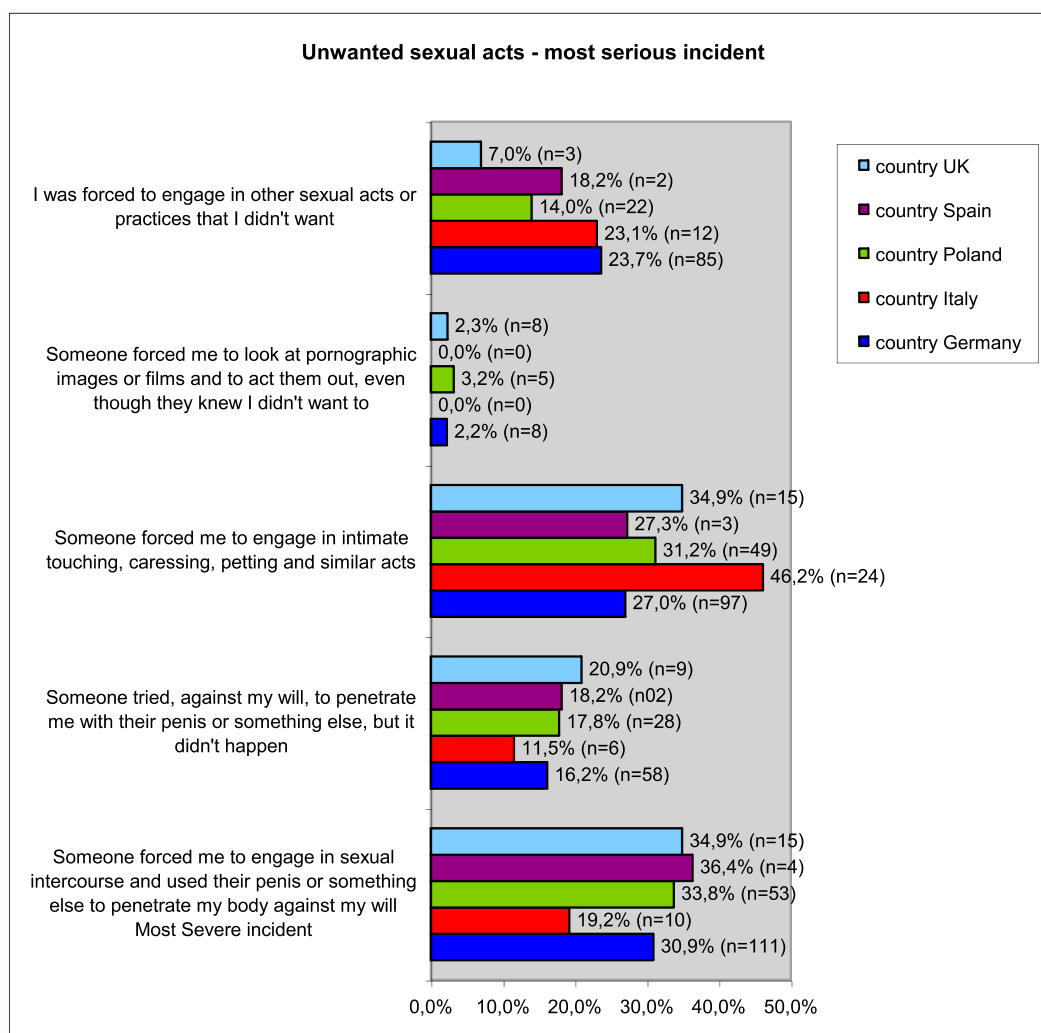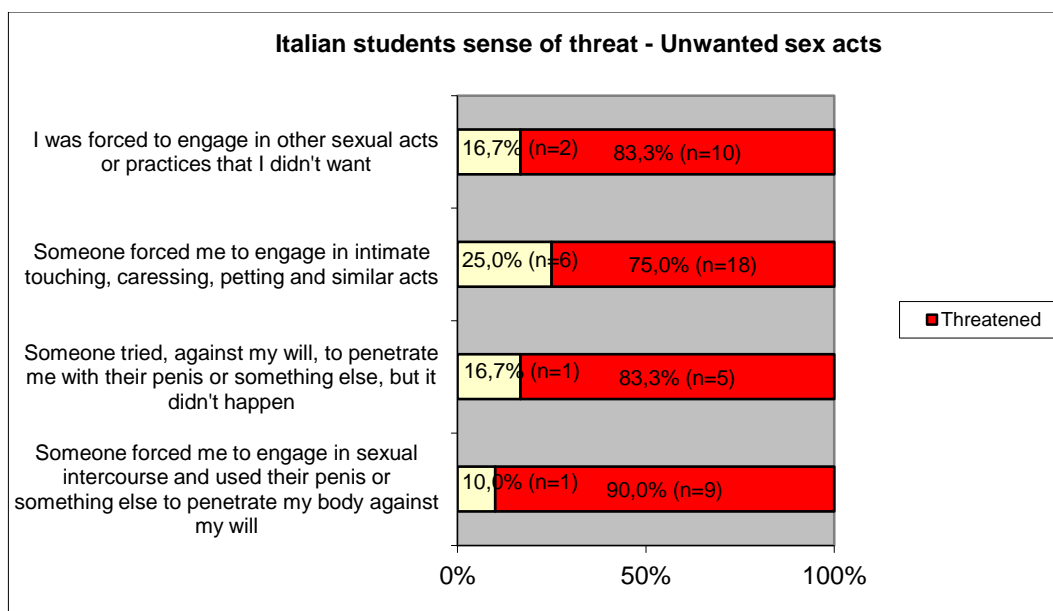
Graph 19: Sexual violence – most severe incident

The survey item used to identify rape experiences was: "someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will". Italian students had experienced fewest rapes (19.2 percent, see graphs below.) when compared to their European colleagues (mean value = 31 percent). Whilst additional contextualising information is important, here we present the information from a statistical perspective. Indeed, we are aware that we cannot assert that this figure is "low" from either a scientific perspective (with multiple estimates existing in the research literature, for a critique of prevalence estimates see **2. A review of the extant research**), or from a socio-political perspective (we do not wish to transmit the message that, because the number of Italian students victimised is less than in partner countries, it is not necessary to devise prevention and response measures). A further sexually victimising behaviour experienced by multiple female students involved being "forced to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting, and similar acts" (30.2 percent).
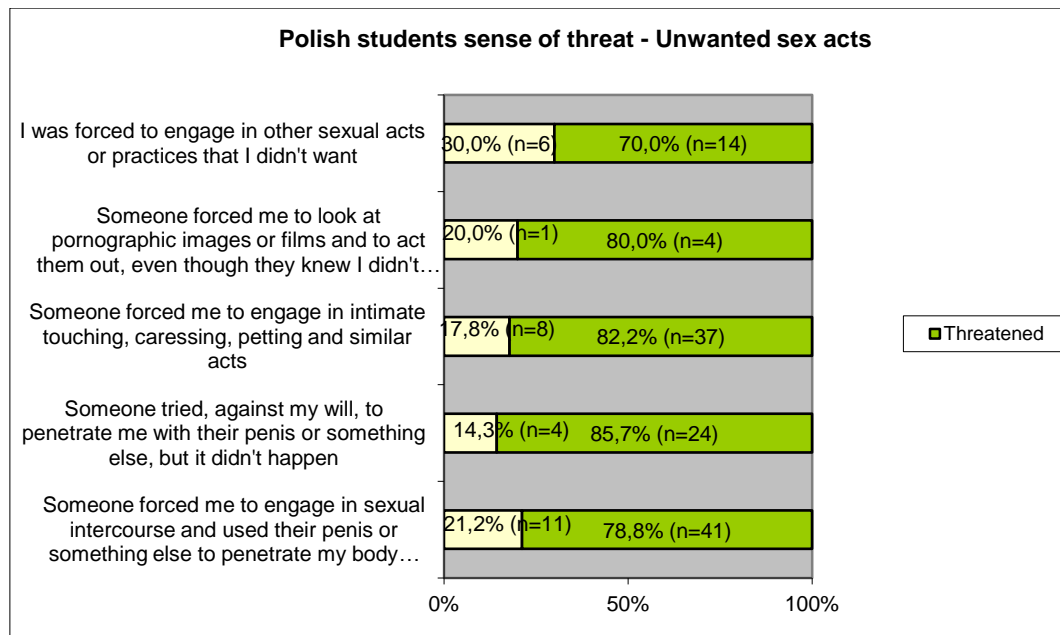

The graphs below detail, for each country, the most severe incidents of sexual violence in accordance to threat perception.
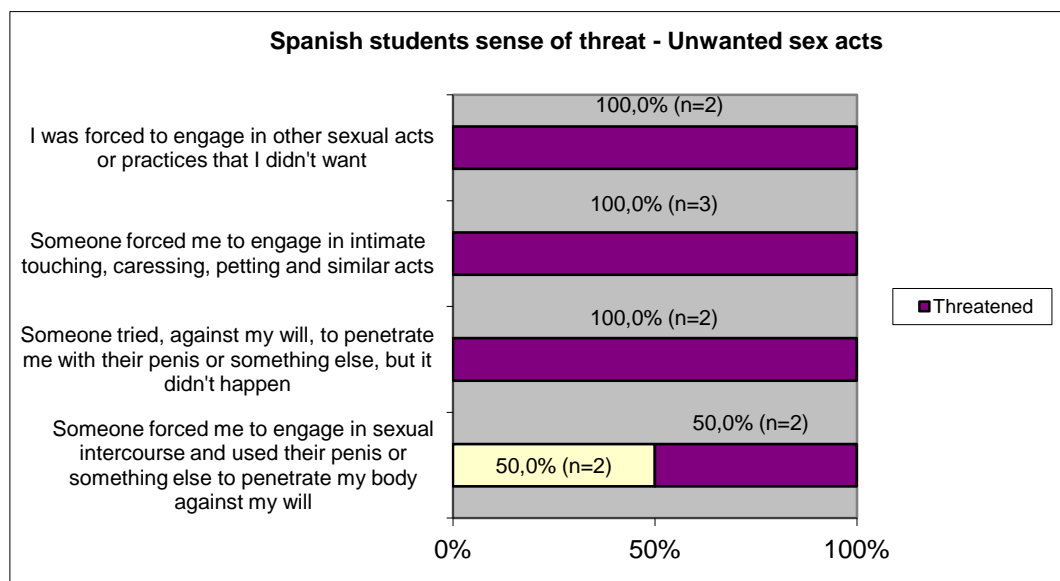
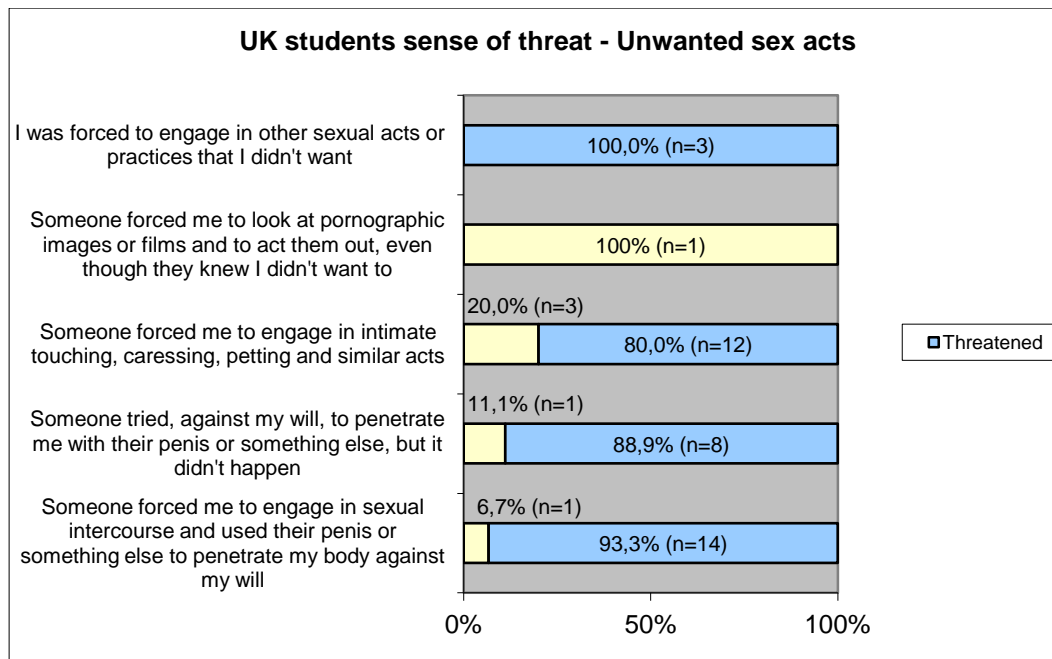**Graph 20: Unwanted sexual acts (most severe incident) German students' sense of threat**

Graph 21: Unwanted sexual acts (most severe incident) Italian students' sense of threat

Polish students sense of threat - Unwanted sex acts

I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want — 30,0% (n=6) | 70,0% (n=14)

Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't… — 20,0% (n=1) | 80,0% (n=4)

Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts — 17,8% (n=8) | 82,2% (n=37)

Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen — 14,3% (n=4) | 85,7% (n=24)

Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body… — 21,2% (n=11) | 78,8% (n=41)

Threatened

Graph 22: Unwanted sexual acts (most severe incident) Polish students' sense of threat

Spanish students sense of threat - Unwanted sex acts

I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want — 100,0% (n=2)

Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts — 100,0% (n=3)

Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen — 100,0% (n=2)

Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will — 50,0% (n=2) | 50,0% (n=2)

Threatened

Graph 23: Unwanted sexual acts (most severe incident) Spanish students' sense of threat

UK students sense of threat - Unwanted sex acts

I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want	100,0% (n=3)
Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't want to	100% (n=1)
Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts	20,0% (n=3) 80,0% (n=12)
Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen	11,1% (n=1) 88,9% (n=8)
Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will	6,7% (n=1) 93,3% (n=14)

☐ Threatened

0%   50%   100%

Graph 24: Unwanted sexual acts (most severe incident) UK students' sense of threat

3.2.2 Where violence happens

3.2.2.1 Harassment

3.2.2.1.1 Where does violence occur?

The study questionnaire contained a specific question aimed at eliciting information around the context in which students had experienced the gender-based sexual violence situation. This question consisted of several response items and in the case of harassment (as indicated by the graph below) responses were dichotomised into incidents occurring on "university sites" and "outside the university". The response options "telephone" and "Internet" were also included due to this unique form of harassment. Indeed, harassment behaviours do not need to occur face-to-face but can be perpetrated via this medium.
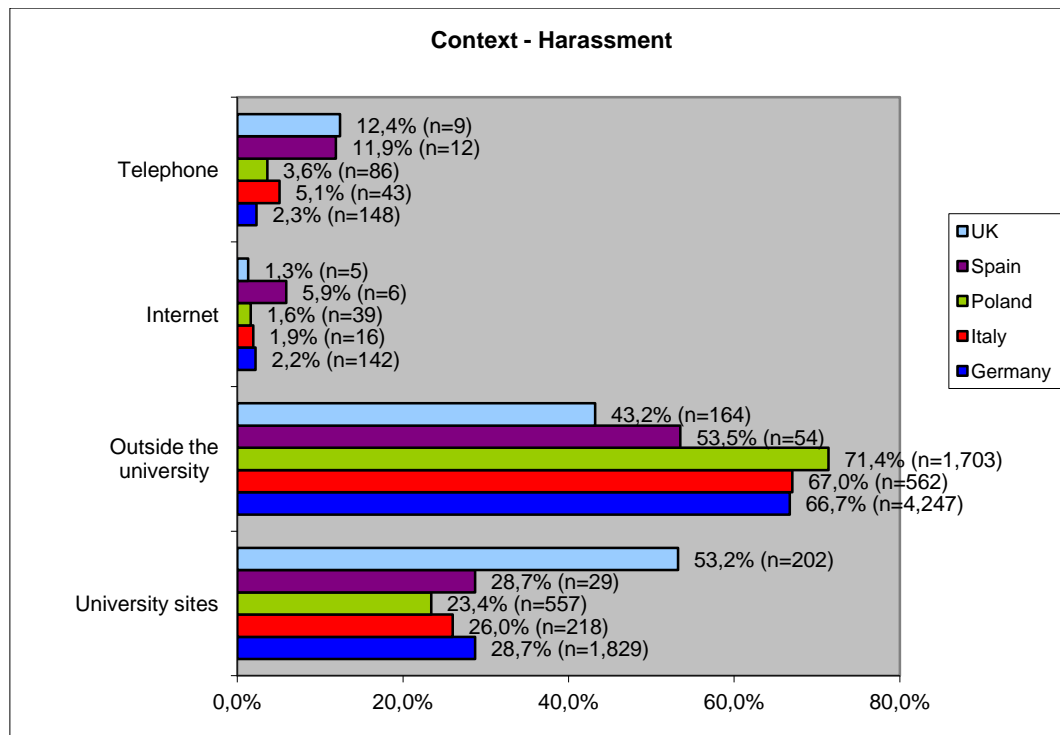
Graph 25: Harassment - context

The majority of harassment was experienced "outside the university" (mean value = 60.4 percent) with the exception of UK data which indicated that over half of students had experienced harassment within "university sites" (53.2 percent). Females indicated that 27.1 percent of outside incidents took place "in a public place (on the street, in a park, in a car park)" and 11.5 percent "at the disco, in a pub or in a café" (see also **8. Appendix**).

On the basis of data emerging from the questionnaire, we can argue that the proportion of sexual harassment related behaviours perpetrated via the Internet was small. It is therefore important for universities to continue to improve their policies and responses to "traditional" form of violence and those acts carried out in more direct/explicit ways. However, it is important for universities to recognise, and review, the possible role of the Internet as a vehicle for perpetrating sexual harassment behaviours (For further discussion on this topic, **see 6. Conclusions**)

3.2.2.1.2 Where does violence occur? (University sites)

With regard to sexual harassment behaviours perpetrated on university sites, the graph below details the frequencies and locations of such harassment.
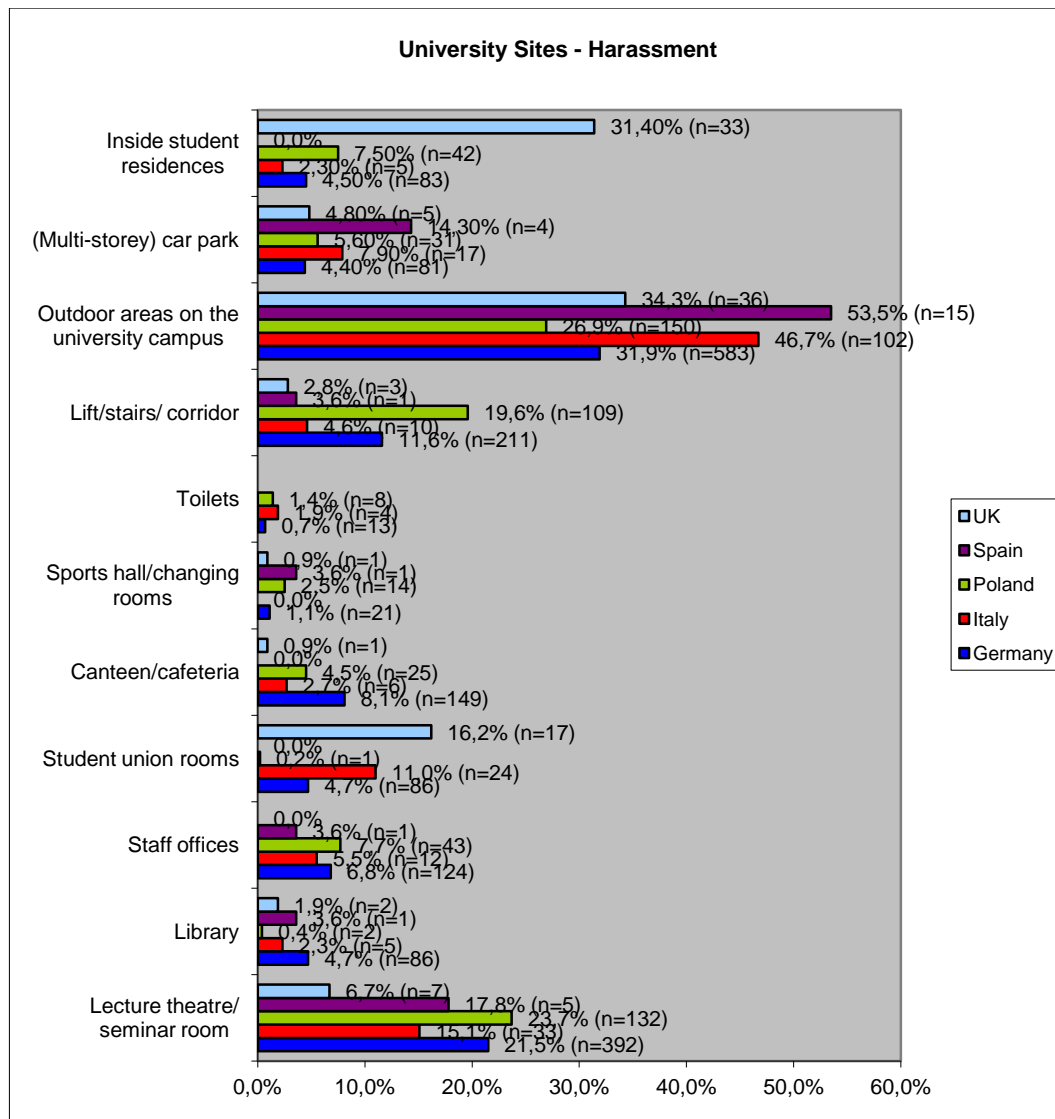
Graph 26: Harassment – university sites

With regard to UK students, 16.2 percent stated that they had experienced sexual harassment in "student union rooms" (mean value = 6.4 percent) and 31.4 percent stated that they had experienced sexual harassment "inside student residences" (mean value = 9.1 percent).

3.2.2.2 Stalking

3.2.2.2.1 Where does violence occur?

Again, for stalking, the items "telephone" and "Internet" were included in the analysis in recognition that stalking behaviours can be perpetrated via this medium.
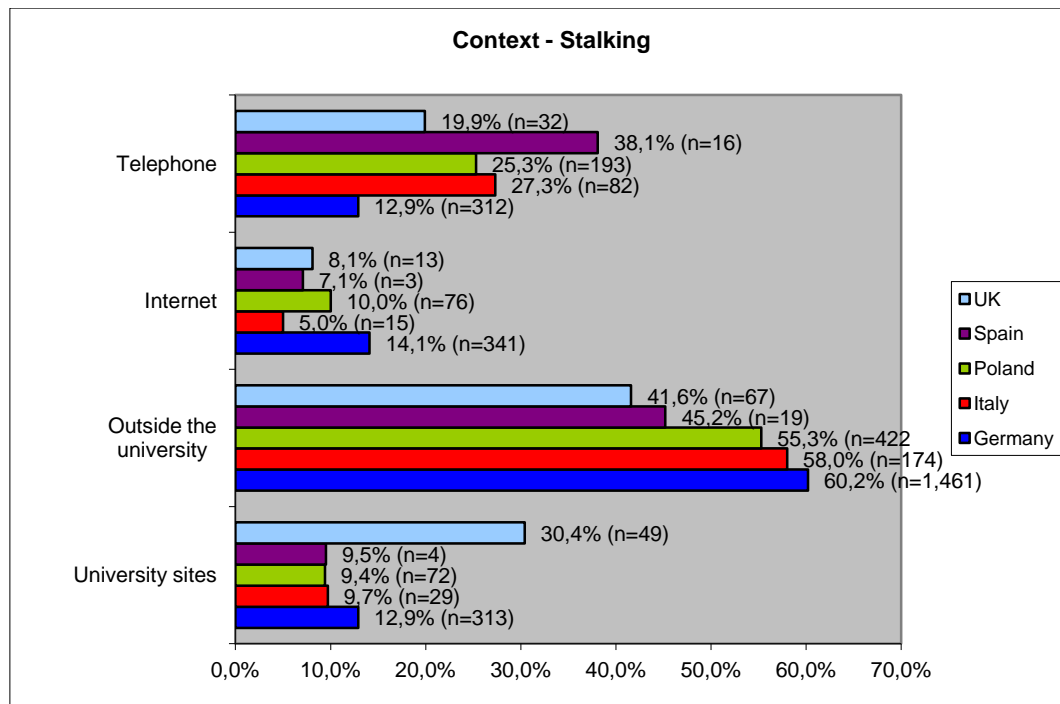
Graph 27: Stalking - context

Female students indicated that 23.2 percent of stalking incident occurred "in/in front of my own flat/house", 8.9 percent occurred "on the Internet" and 7.6 percent "at a public place (on the street, in a park, in a car park)." With regard to stalking on the Internet, the graph indicates that Italian students experienced stalking via this medium least frequently (five percent of the time compared to 8.9 percent of the entire sample), whilst they experienced stalking "at a public place" most often (12.9 percent of the time compared to 7.6 percent of the entire sample).

On the basis of data emerging from the questionnaire, we can argue that the proportion of stalking related behaviours perpetrated via the Internet was not of a negligible quantity. These data therefore raise questions about the role of such media in the perpetration of gender-based violence. Even if students are not excessively victimised via stalking perpetrated over the Internet, we still suggest that universities' policies and responses to stalking should begin to consider the role of the Internet in the perpetration of this form of violence.

3.2.2.2.2 Where does violence occur? (University sites)

With regard to staking behaviours perpetrated on university sites, the graph below details the frequencies and locations of such stalking.
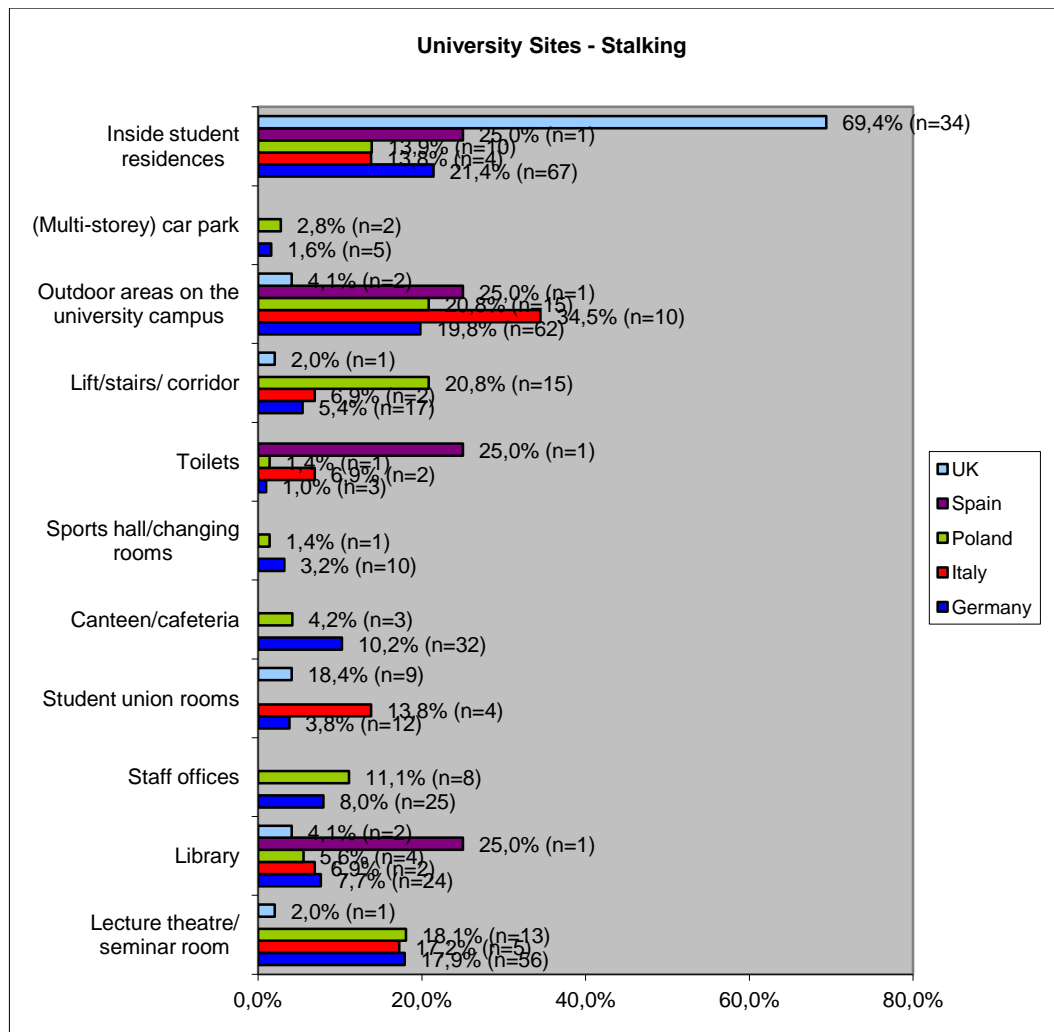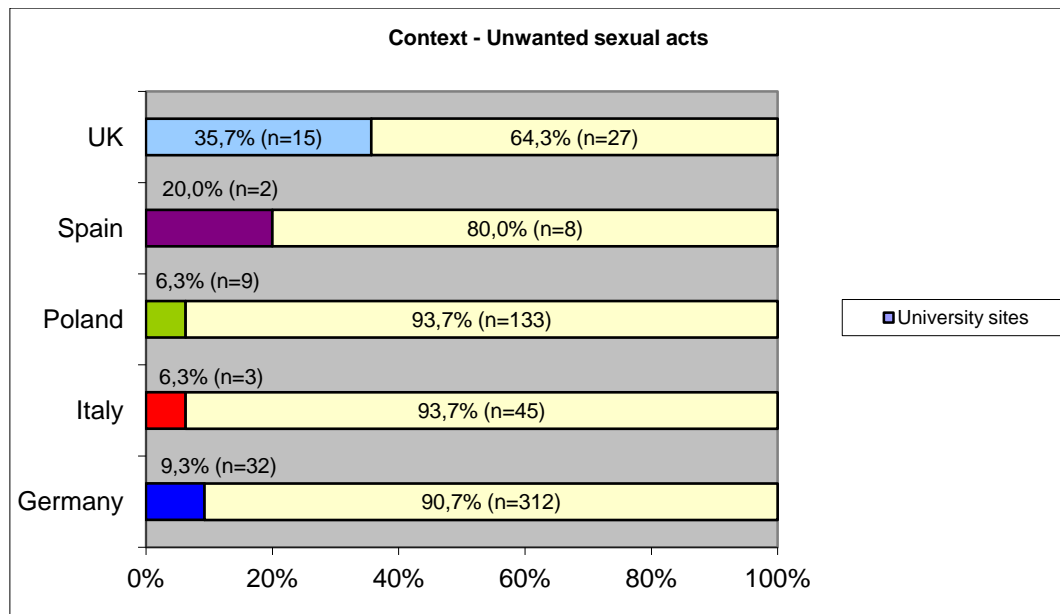
Graph 28: Stalking – university sites

Again, the graph indicates that 69.4 percent of UK stalking incidents occurred "inside student residences" (mean value = 28.7 percent). However, the unique living environment of students across each country is likely to impact on findings. For example, in the UK, students frequently live on campus whilst in Italy and Poland this is not the case.

3.2.2.3 Sexual violence

3.2.2.3.1 Where does violence occur?

The graph below highlights the context in which sexual violence was perpetrated. Context is dichotomised into university sites (the coloured bars attributed to each country) and outside the university.

Context - Unwanted sexual acts

Country	University sites	Outside
UK	35,7% (n=15)	64,3% (n=27)
Spain	20,0% (n=2)	80,0% (n=8)
Poland	6,3% (n=9)	93,7% (n=133)
Italy	6,3% (n=3)	93,7% (n=45)
Germany	9,3% (n=32)	90,7% (n=312)

Legend: University sites

Graph 29: Sexual violence - context

The majority of sexual violence was perpetrated "outside the university". The largest proportion of episodes of sexual violence (57.9 percent) occurred in a "flat/house (victim's flat/house or someone else's property)". With regard to Italian students specifically, when compared with the other countries, they most frequently experienced sexual violence "in a car" (16 percent, mean value = 4.8 percent) and "in a public building – shop, station, office" (six percent, mean value = 1.6 percent).

3.2.2.3.2 Where does violence occur? (University sites)

With regard to sexual violence related behaviours perpetrated on university sites, the graph below details the frequencies and locations of such violence.

University Sites - Unwanted sexual acts
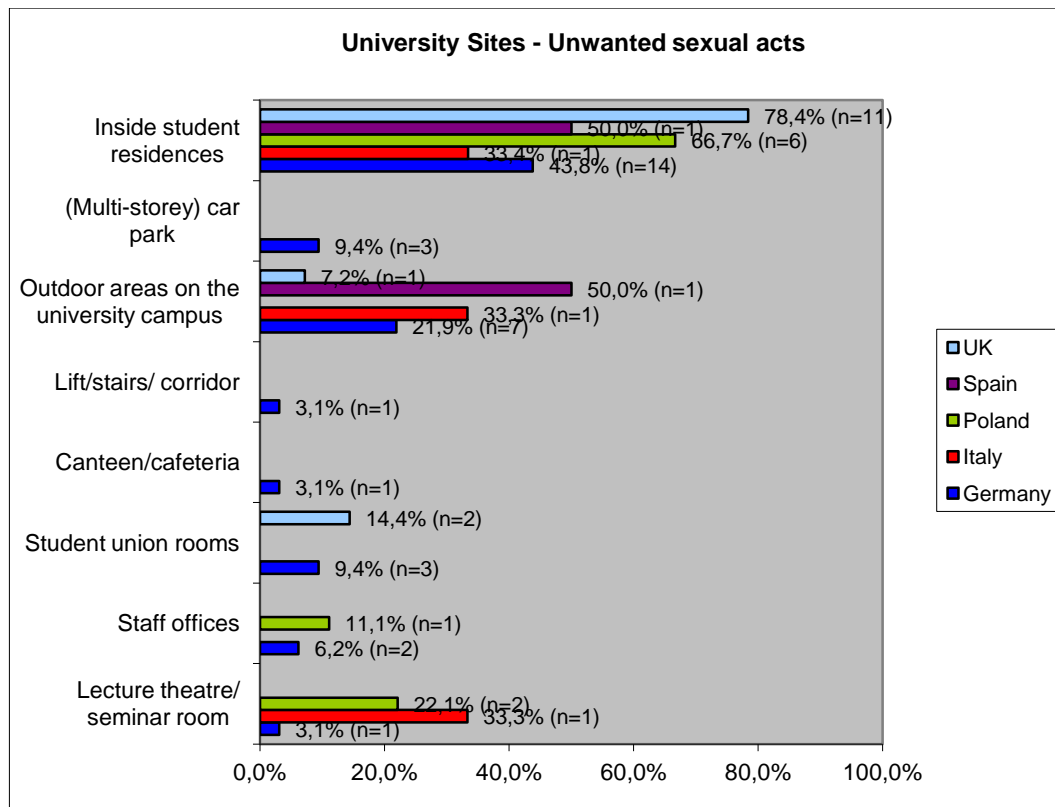
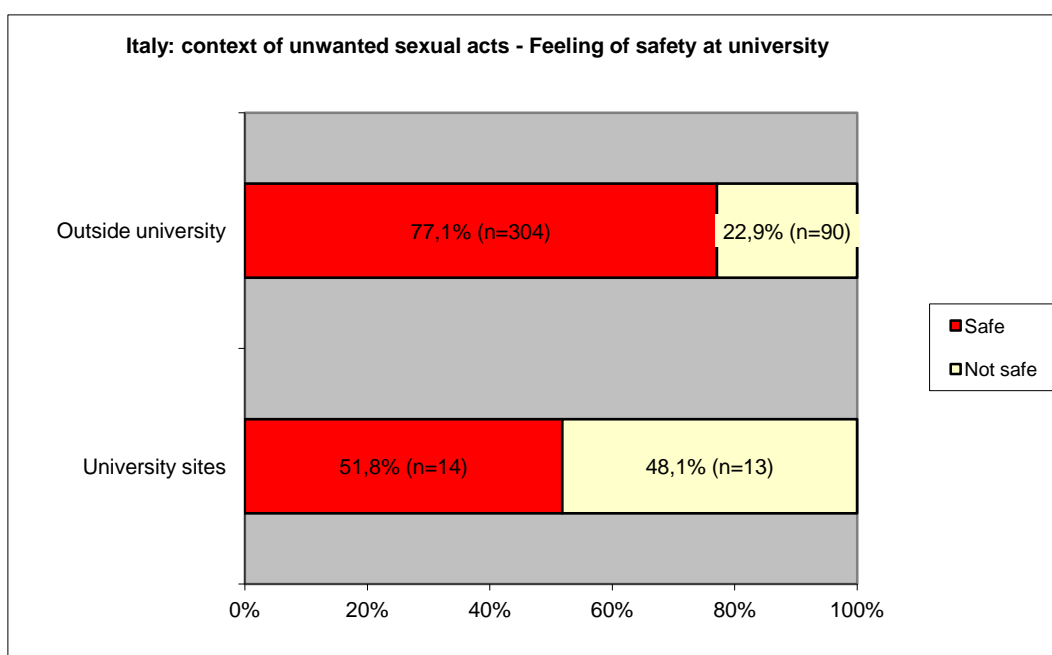Graph 30: Sexual violence – university sites

Again, UK students most frequently experienced sexual violence "inside student residences" (78.4 percent, in comparison to 54.5 percent of the entire sample), followed by Polish students (66.7 percent).

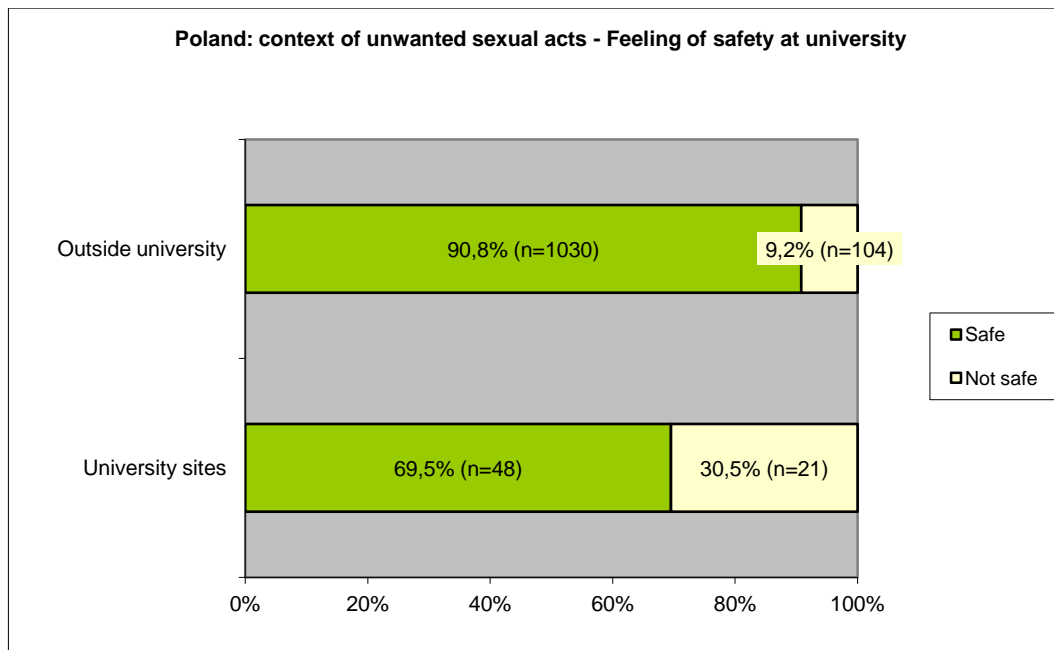### 3.2.2.3.4 Feelings of safety whilst at university

It is important to consider the relationship between the context in which violence occurred and participants' feelings of safety at university. As such, the following analysis presents a cross tabulation of students' responses to the survey questions referring to the context in which violence was experienced, and their feeling of safety at university (this last question was a multiple response option). The analysis focuses specifically on experiences of sexual violence.
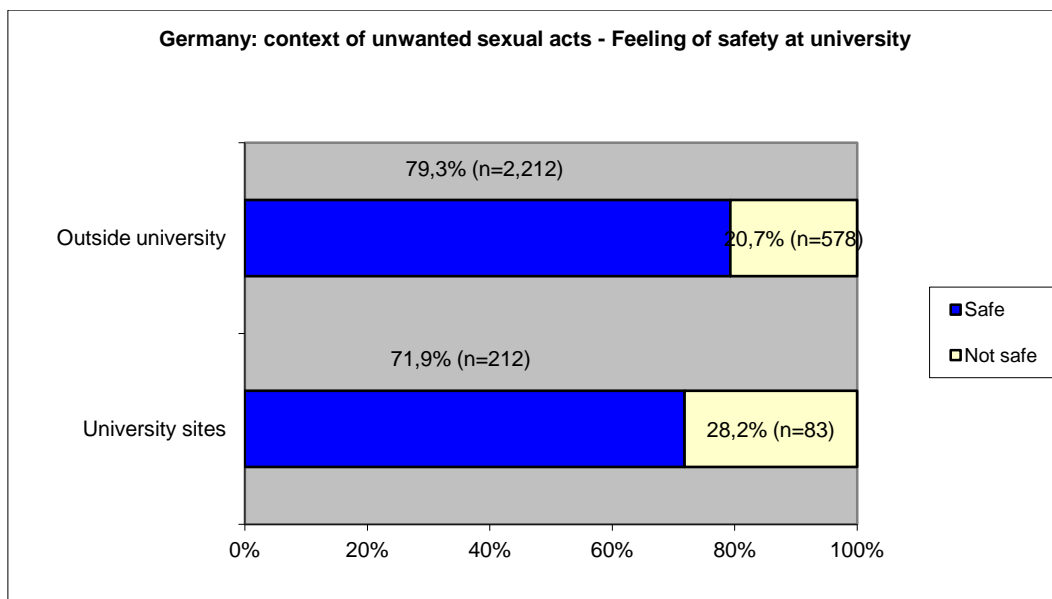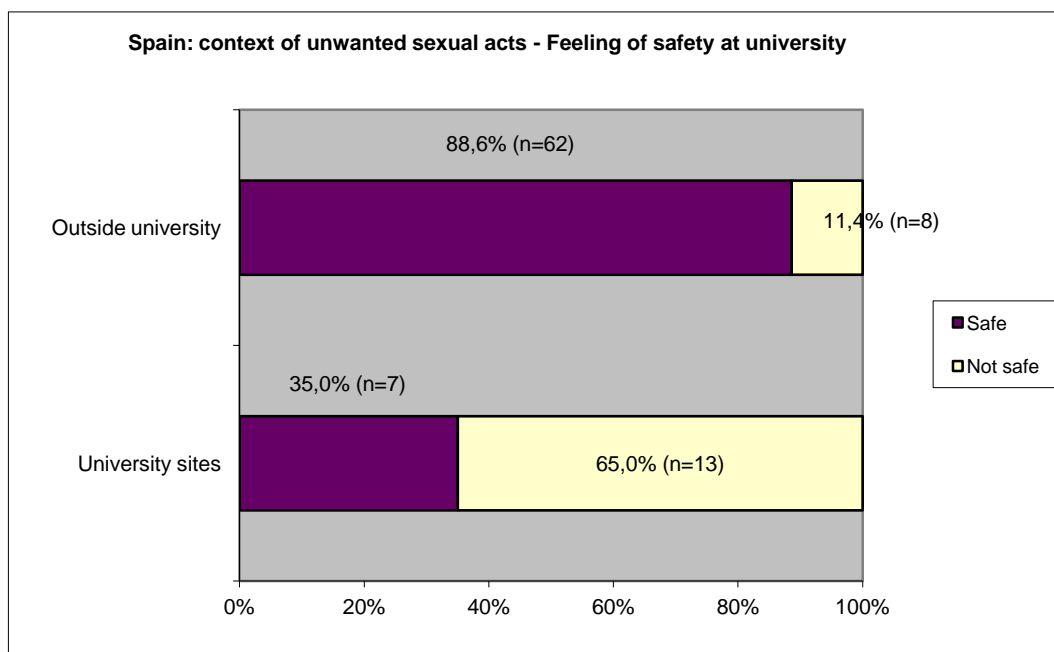
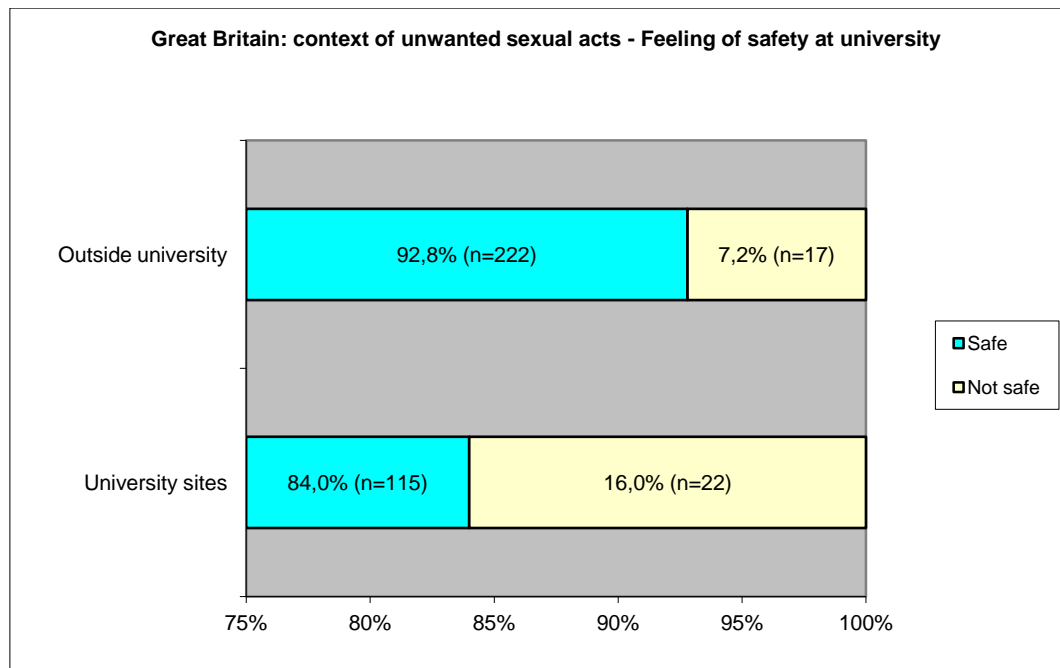**Graph 31: Germany – sexual violence – context and feelings of safety at university**

Graph 32: Italy – sexual violence – context and feelings of safety at university

Graph 33: Poland – sexual violence – context and feelings of safety at university

Graph 34: Spain – sexual violence – context and feelings of safety at university

Great Britain: context of unwanted sexual acts - Feeling of safety at university

Outside university	92,8% (n=222)	7,2% (n=17)
University sites	84,0% (n=115)	16,0% (n=22)

Legend: ☐ Safe ☐ Not safe

X-axis: 75% 80% 85% 90% 95% 100%

Graph 35: UK – sexual violence – context and feelings of safety at university

It could be assumed that if the sexual violence situation was experienced on university sites, the student would not feel safe whilst at university. However, study data indicated that despite violence occurring at university, the majority of students did feel safe in the university context (with the exception of Spain and Italy). It could be hypothesised that UK students living on campus have a greater perception of safety because they feel they can access university security staff, if a problematic situation arises. By contrast, this feeling of safety did not appear to exist for Italian students (where it should be noted that the Italian universities taking part in the study did not operate a campus system, therefore, students did not live in campus-based student residences).
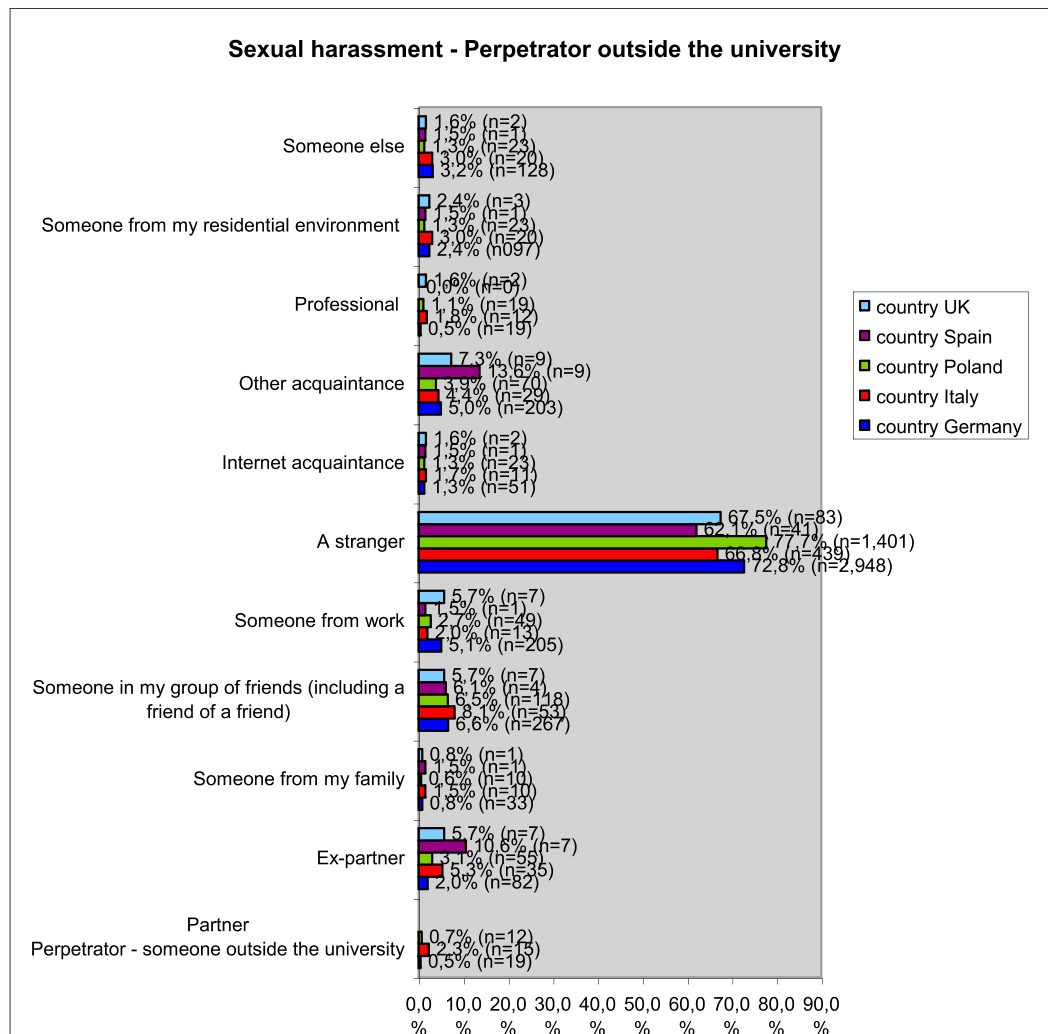
3.2.3 Who are the perpetrators?

3.2.3.1 Harassment

The perpetrators of sexual harassment were nearly always men (in 96.1 percent of cases) (lowest percentage in Spain: 82 percent; highest percentage in Germany: 97.5 percent).
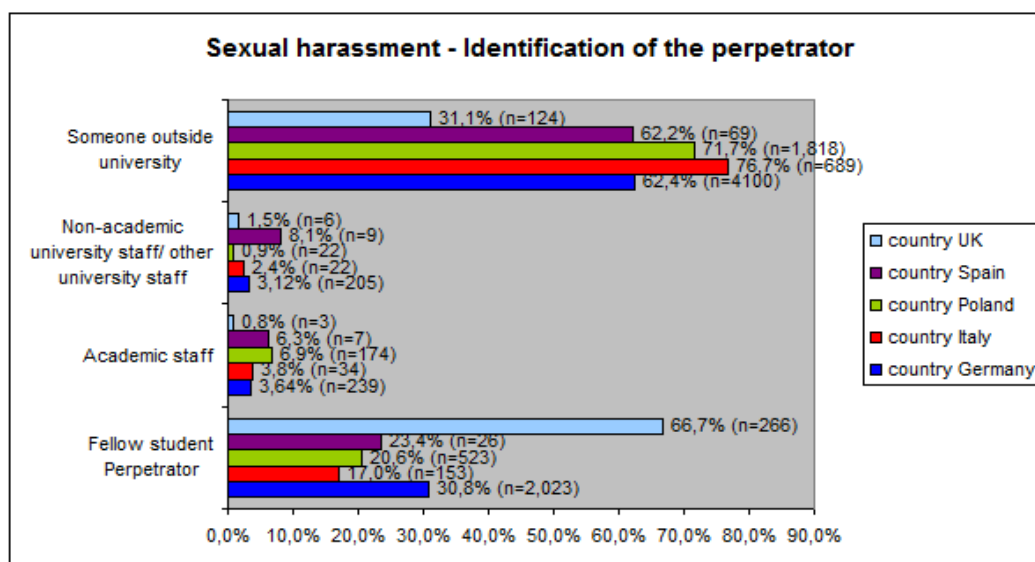
Graph 36: Harassment – identification of the perpetrator

The perpetrators of sexual harassment were "someone outside the university" in 60.8 percent of cases, a "fellow student" in 31.7 percent of cases and a member of university staff (academic or non-academic) in 7.5 percent of cases. UK students identified (in a percentage higher than all other countries) that the perpetrator was a "fellow student" in 66.7 percent of cases (mean value = 31.7 percent) whereas a member of "academic staff" was identified as the perpetrator in only 0.8 percent of cases (mean value = 4.2 percent). The proportion of perpetrators who were academic staff was highest in Poland and Spain (6.9 percent and 6.3 percent respectively, in comparison to the main value of 4.2 percent).

Sexual harassment - Perpetrator outside the university

Legend:
- country UK
- country Spain
- country Poland
- country Italy
- country Germany

Someone else
- 1,6% (n=2)
- 1,5% (n=1)
- 1,3% (n=23)
- 3,0% (n=20)
- 3,2% (n=128)

Someone from my residential environment
- 2,4% (n=3)
- 1,5% (n=1)
- 1,3% (n=23)
- 3,0% (n=20)
- 2,4% (n=097)

Professional
- 1,6% (n=2)
- 0,0% (n=0)
- 1,1% (n=19)
- 1,8% (n=12)
- 0,5% (n=19)

Other acquaintance
- 7,3% (n=9)
- 13,6% (n=9)
- 3,9% (n=70)
- 4,4% (n=29)
- 5,0% (n=203)

Internet acquaintance
- 1,6% (n=2)
- 1,5% (n=1)
- 1,3% (n=23)
- 1,7% (n=11)
- 1,3% (n=51)

A stranger
- 67,5% (n=83)
- 62,1% (n=41)
- 77,7% (n=1,401)
- 66,8% (n=439)
- 72,8% (n=2,948)

Someone from work
- 5,7% (n=7)
- 1,5% (n=1)
- 2,7% (n=49)
- 2,0% (n=13)
- 5,1% (n=205)

Someone in my group of friends (including a friend of a friend)
- 5,7% (n=7)
- 6,1% (n=4)
- 6,5% (n=118)
- 8,1% (n=53)
- 6,6% (n=267)

Someone from my family
- 0,8% (n=1)
- 1,5% (n=1)
- 0,6% (n=10)
- 1,5% (n=10)
- 0,8% (n=33)

Ex-partner
- 5,7% (n=7)
- 10,6% (n=7)
- 3,1% (n=55)
- 5,3% (n=35)
- 2,0% (n=82)

Partner
Perpetrator - someone outside the university
- 0,7% (n=12)
- 2,3% (n=15)
- 0,5% (n=19)

Graph 37: Harassment – perpetrator outside the university

When the sexual harassment behaviour was committed by "someone outside university" the majority of students identified that it was a "stranger" (in 69.4 percent of cases), whilst "partner" and "ex-partner" were identified in only six percent of cases. Thus, in the majority of instances, harassment is not perpetrated by (ex) partners.

3.2.3.2 Stalking

Whilst the percentage of female stalkers was higher than the percentage of women who perpetrated harassment behaviours, the majority of stalking incidents were perpetrated by men (91.1 percent, the lowest percentage in Spain: 77.1 percent; highest percentage in Poland: 92.6 percent).
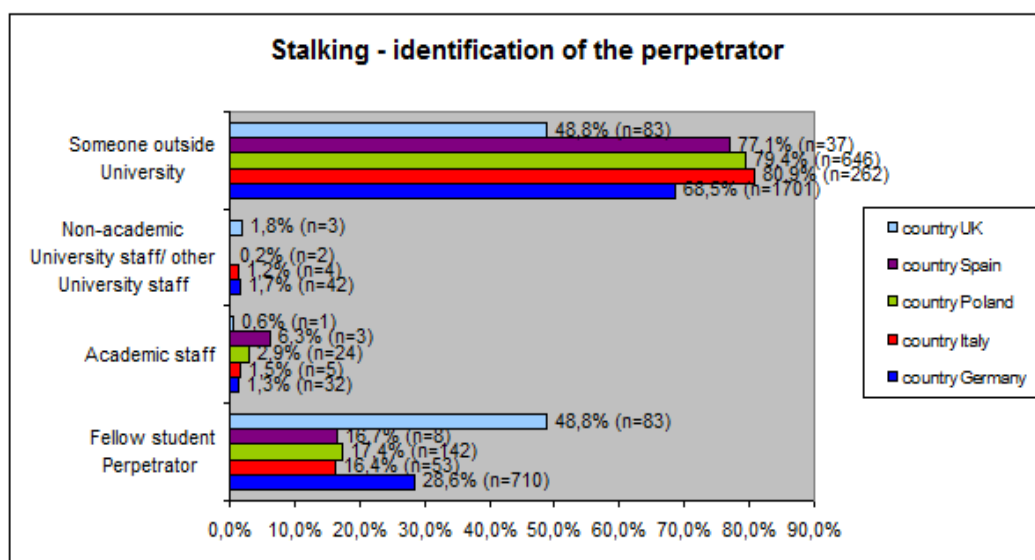
Graph 38: Stalking – identification of the perpetrator

The majority of stalkers constituted "someone from outside university" (71 percent) whilst "fellow student" constituted 25.6 percent of stalkers and university staff constituted 3.5 percent. In Italy and Poland, the percentage of perpetrators from "outside university" was 80.9 percent and 79.4 percent respectively.
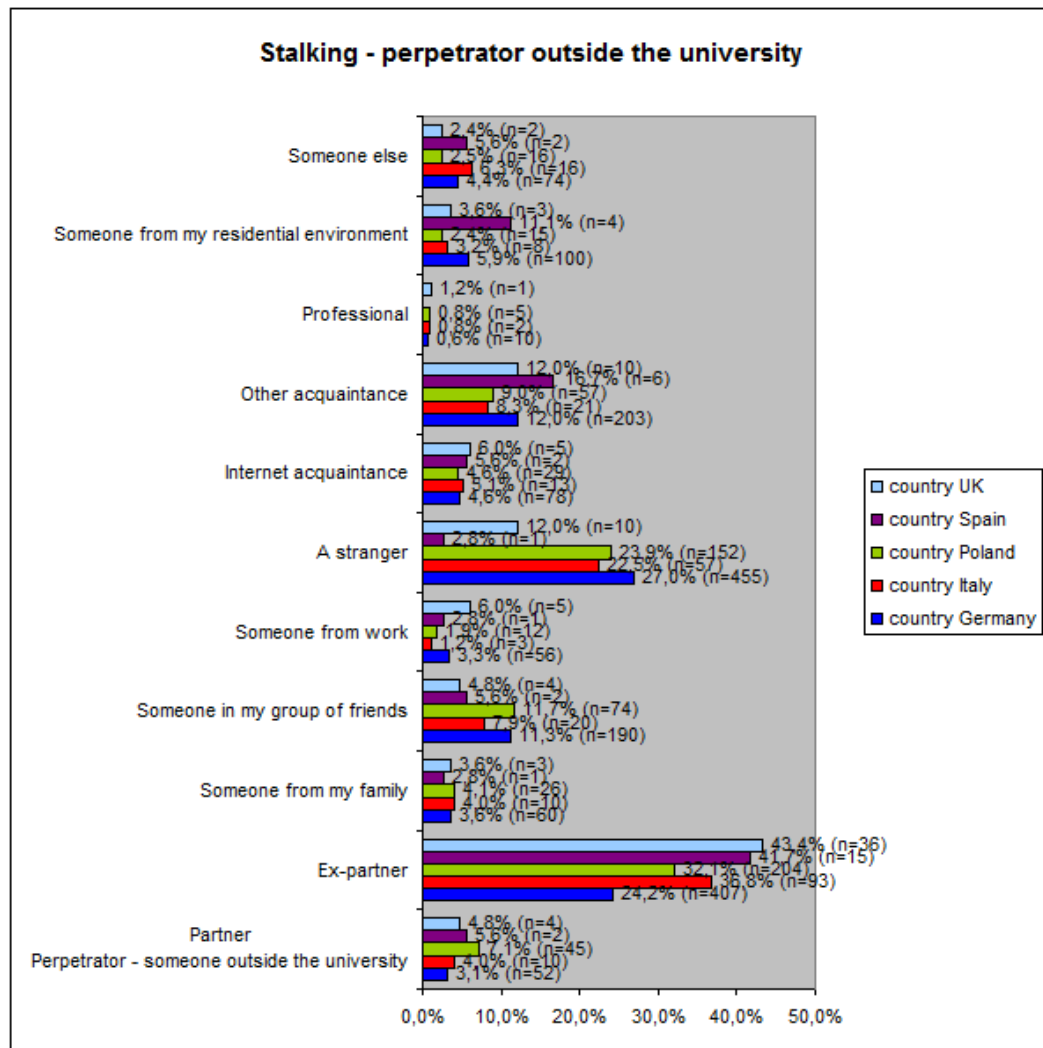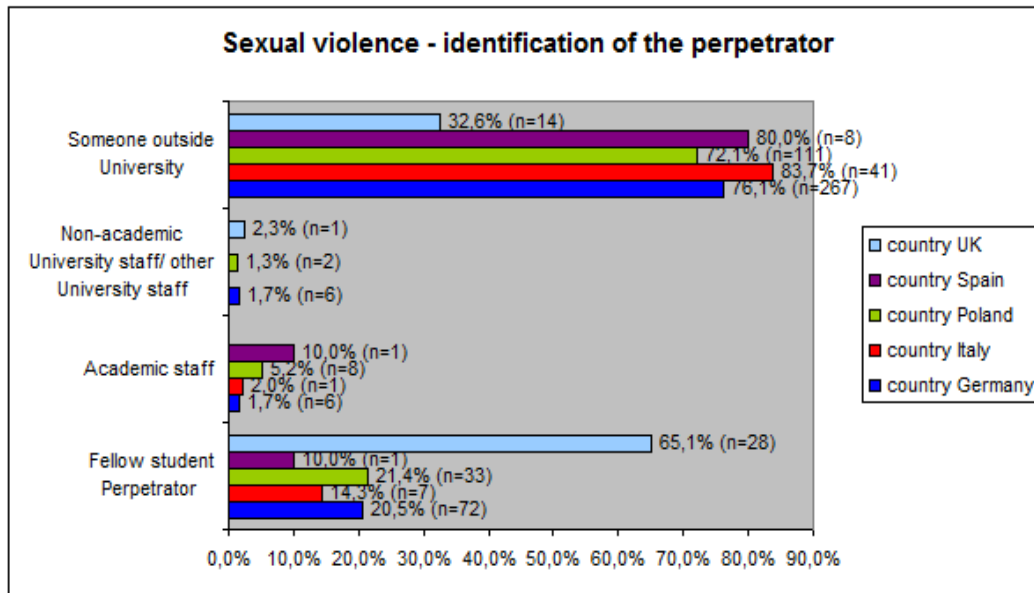
Graph 39: Stalking – perpetrator outside the university

Study data indicated that victims were acquainted with the stalker in a number of instances (more frequently than in the case for harassment). Indeed, in the case of stalking, the number of unknown perpetrators diminished significantly (17.6 percent). From the group of people with whom the victim had some form of relationship, "ex-partner" was the individual who most frequently perpetrated the stalking behaviour (mean value = 35.6 percent). "Someone in my group of friends" constituted 8.2 percent of stalkers and "someone from my family" constituted 3.6 percent. The percentage of ex-partner stalkers was highest in the UK and Spain (43.4 percent and 41.7 percent respectively). When considering why ex-partners perpetrate stalking behaviours, academic literature indicates that they may find the break-down of a relationship difficult to accept and perpetrate such actions in an attempt to reinitiate the relationship or to win back affection (see **2. A review of the extant research**).
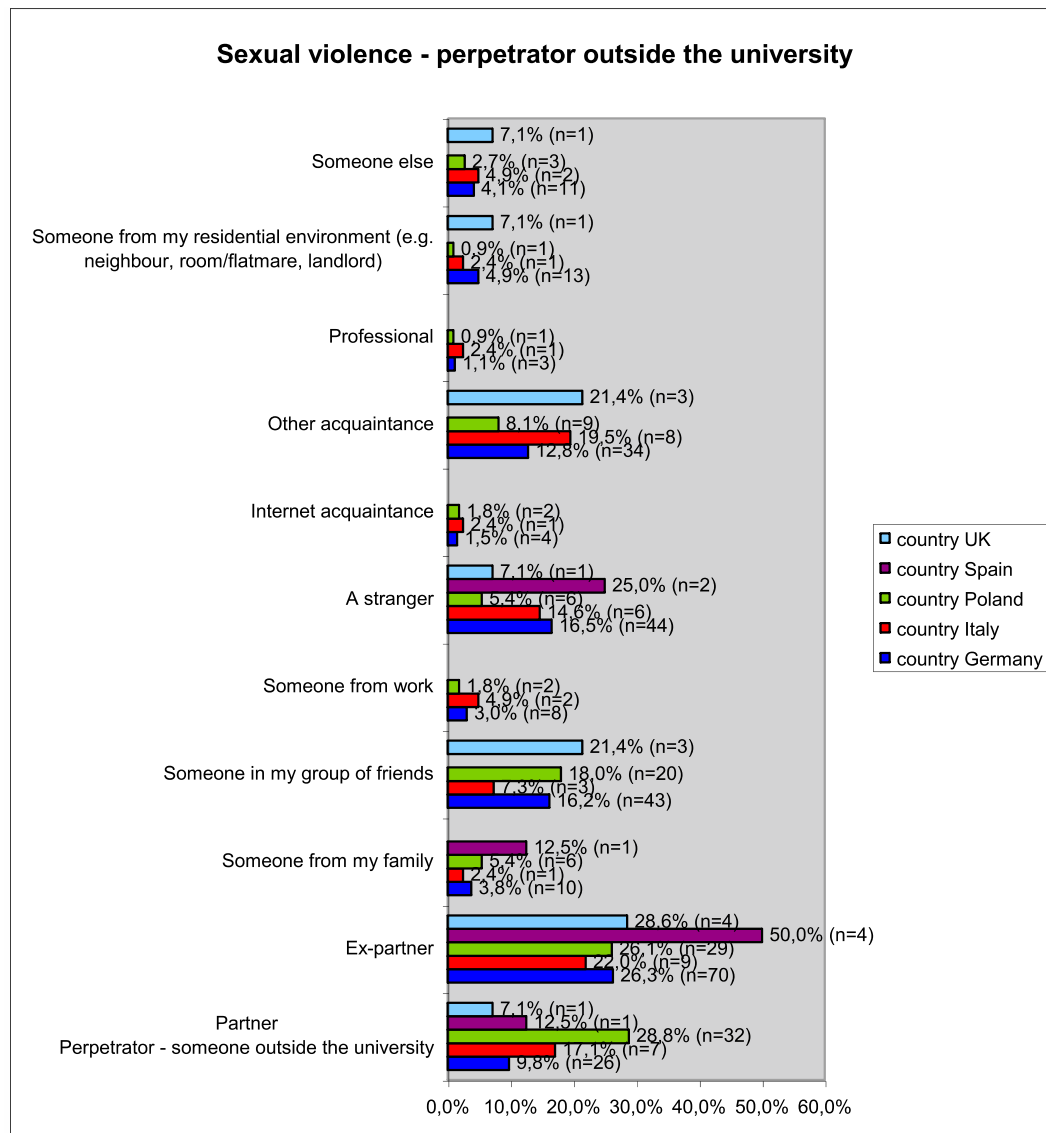
3.2.3.3 Sexual violence

Similar to the sexual harassment findings, sexual violence was typically committed by men against women. Study data indicated that 96.6 percent of perpetrators were men. It should be noted however that in Spain specifically, this percentage falls to 80 percent.

Sexual violence - identification of the perpetrator

Category	Country	Value
Someone outside University	UK	32,6% (n=14)
	Spain	80,0% (n=8)
	Poland	72,1% (n=111)
	Italy	83,7% (n=41)
	Germany	76,1% (n=267)
Non-academic University staff/ other University staff	UK	2,3% (n=1)
	Poland	1,3% (n=2)
	Germany	1,7% (n=6)
Academic staff	Spain	10,0% (n=1)
	Poland	5,2% (n=8)
	Italy	2,0% (n=1)
	Germany	1,7% (n=6)
Fellow student Perpetrator	UK	65,1% (n=28)
	Spain	10,0% (n=1)
	Poland	21,4% (n=33)
	Italy	14,3% (n=7)
	Germany	20,5% (n=72)

Graph 40: Sexual violence – identification of the perpetrator

In the majority of instances, sexual violence was perpetrated by someone the victim had a personal relationships with, and who typically resided outside the university. Indeed, in 68.9 percent of cases the perpetrator was "someone outside university." A "fellow student" represented 26.3 percent of cases and a member of university staff (academic and non-academic) accounted for 1.8 percent. However, UK data specifically identified that only 32.6 percent of perpetrators constituted "someone outside university" and no UK respondent identified a member of "academic staff" as the perpetrator of sexual violence.

Graph 41: Sexual violence – perpetrator outside the university

For perpetrators of sexual violence from "outside the university", 30.6 percent constituted "ex-partners", 15.1 percent were "partners", 12.6 percent were "someone in my group of friends" and 13.7 percent were "strangers". However, in Poland, in 28.8 percent of cases (mean value = 15.1 percent) the perpetrator was a partner whilst in Spain half of the perpetrators were ex-partners. Study findings indicated that sexual violence was committed by partners and ex-partners in 45.7 percent of cases. The findings consequently underline that the perpetrators of sexual violence are typically people who are already known to female students.

3.2.3.3.1 Date/Drugs

A section of the questionnaire was dedicated to exploring the involvement of alcohol or recreational drugs in gender-based sexual violence dating episodes. The following survey questions were used: "Was the person you've experienced the situation with someone you had a date with?", "Do you have reason to believe that the person you experienced the incident with was under the influence of alcohol or a recreational drug?", and "At the time of this incident, were you under the influence of alcohol and/or a recreational drug?"
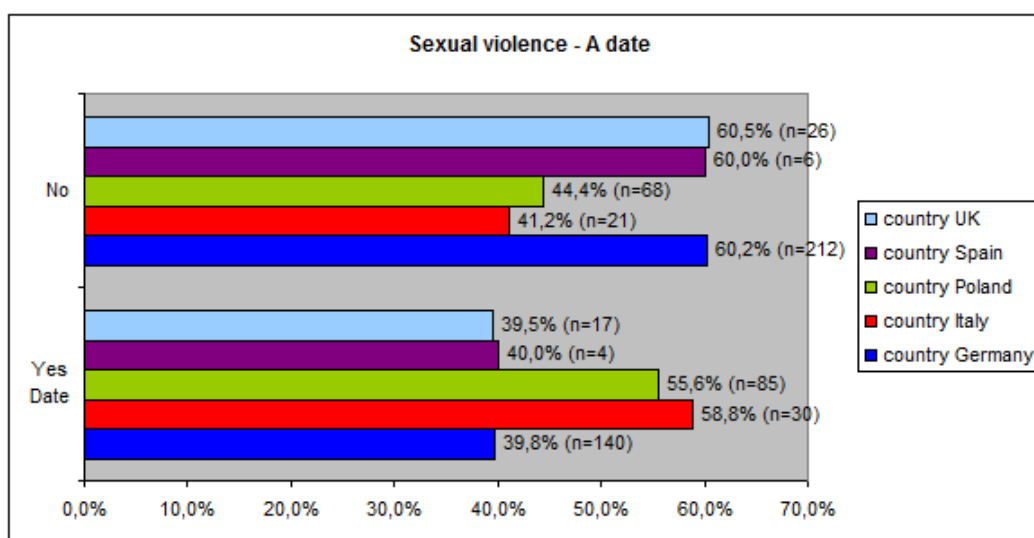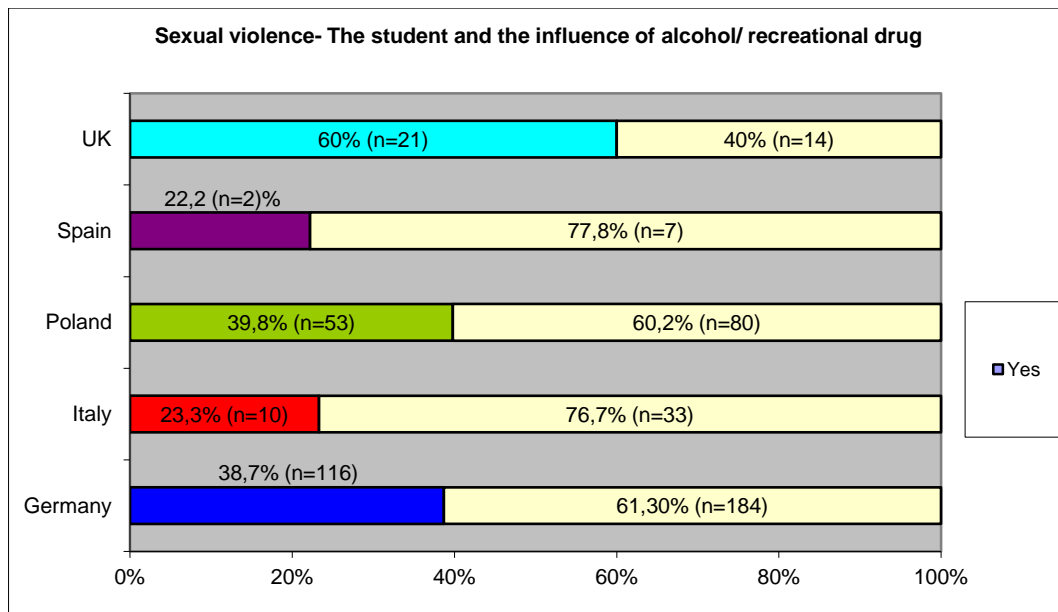
Graph 42: Sexual violence – a date

Responses to the question "Was the person you experienced the situation with someone you had a date with?" varied across countries. The mean values were 53.3 percent for the answer "no" and 46.7 percent for the answer "yes". However, Italian and Polish students had a date with the person who perpetrated the violence more often than the other countries.
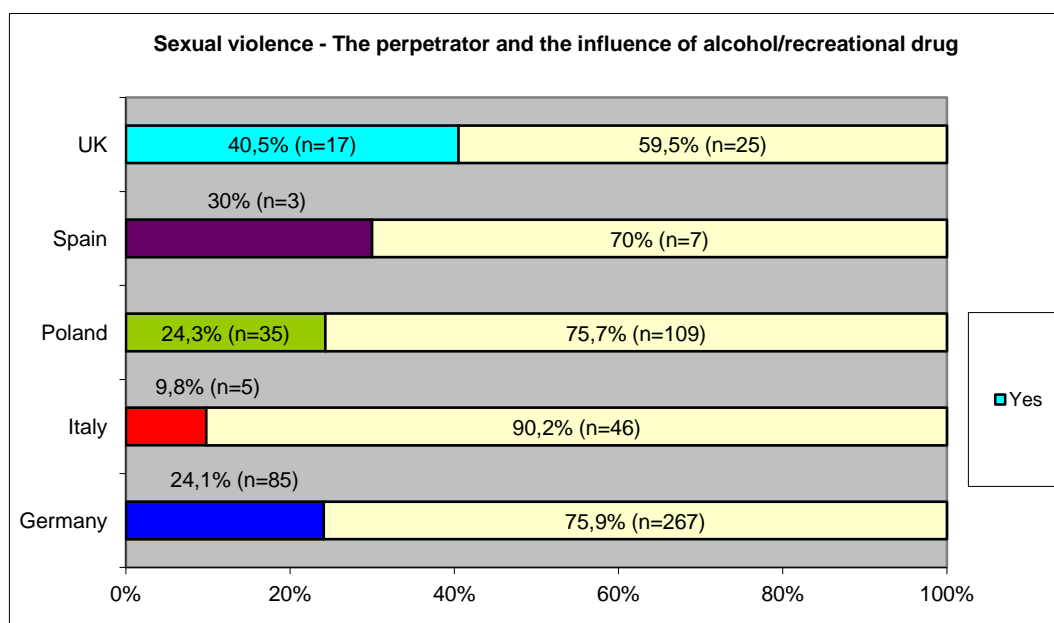
Graph 43: Sexual violence – the perpetrator and the influence of alcohol/recreational drug

The above graph indicates that UK students most frequently believed that the perpetrator was under the influence of alcohol and/or a recreational drug at the time of the incident (40.5 percent of respondents), whilst Italian student were the least likely (9.8 percent of respondents).

Sexual violence- The student and the influence of alcohol/ recreational drug

Country	Yes	No
UK	60% (n=21)	40% (n=14)
Spain	22,2 (n=2)%	77,8% (n=7)
Poland	39,8% (n=53)	60,2% (n=80)
Italy	23,3% (n=10)	76,7% (n=33)
Germany	38,7% (n=116)	61,30% (n=184)

Graph 44: Sexual violence – the student and the influence of alcohol/recreational drug

The small number of responses to this question means that findings must be interpreted with caution. Nevertheless, the findings indicate that a greater percentage of UK students were under the influence of alcohol and/or a recreational drug at the time of the incident (60 percent), followed by Polish (39.8 percent) and German (38.7 percent) students. Italian and Spanish students were least likely to be under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time the incident occurred (23.3 percent and 22.2 percent respectively).

## 3.2.4 Assessment of violence

3.2.4.1 Harassment

The graph below shows responses to the following sexual harassment related question: "If you were to assess the situation in retrospect: would you say that what happened to you was …:"
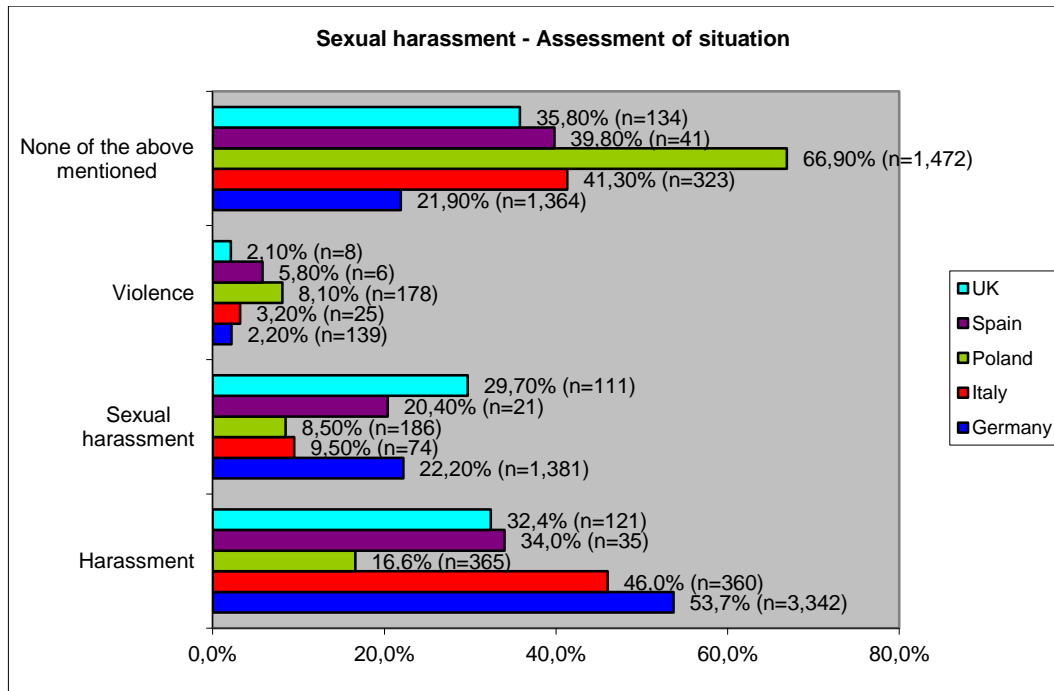
Graph 45: Harassment – assessment of situation

Of those students who identified having encountered a sexual harassment related situation, 36.5 percent felt that they had experienced "harassment", 18 percent felt that they had experienced "sexual harassment" whilst 41.1 percent stated that they had not experienced harassment, sexual harassment or violence. Polish data indicated that only 16.6 percent of students classified the event as "harassment" (mean value = 36.5 percent), 8.5 percent as "sexual harassment" (mean value = 18 percent) and 8.1 percent as "violence" (mean value = 4.3 percent). In addition, Italian students perceived the event to be "sexual harassment" in only 9.5 percent of cases.

The graph below presents data for perceptions of perpetrator responsibility for the sexual harassment event.
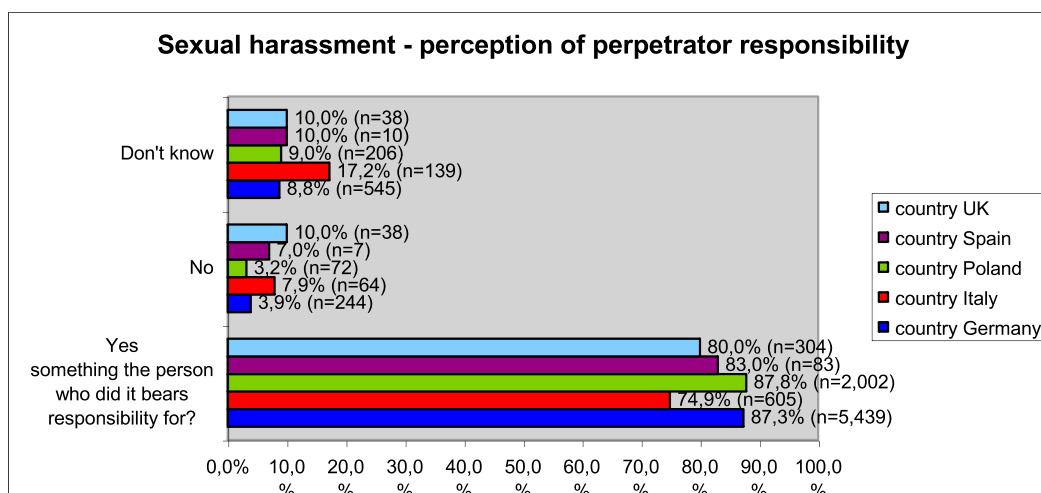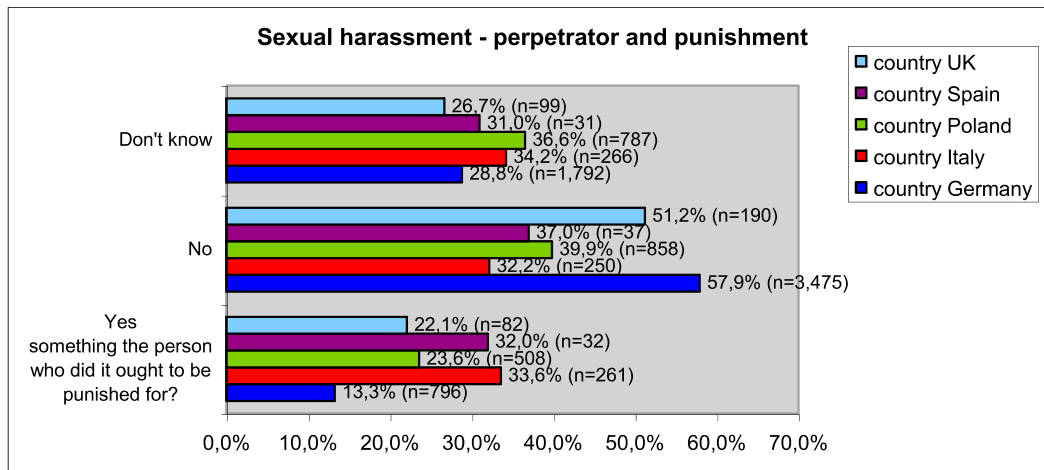

Graph 46: Harassment – perception of perpetrator responsibility

In total, 82.7 percent of respondents felt that the perpetrator should be considered responsible for what happened. However, the percentage of UK (10 percent), Italian

(7.9 percent), and Spanish (seven percent) student that stated the perpetrator should not be held responsible, should be highlighted (mean value = 6.4 percent). Eleven percent of students who responded to the related question did not have a firm opinion about responsibility. Specifically, 17.2 percent of Italian students did not know if the perpetrator should be held responsible.

The graph below presents data for responses regarding whether the perpetrator should be punished.

Graph 47: Harassment – perpetrator and punishment

The findings indicated that students were somewhat reserved in their perceptions around whether the perpetrators of sexual harassment should be punished. Indeed, 43.6 percent of respondents felt that the perpetrator should not be punished, whilst 31.5 percent were unsure whether a punishment should be imposed. Italian students endorsed a less punitive perspective (32.2 percent) when compared to the sample mean (43.6 percent), while Polish students remained the most uncertain (36.6 percent).

The graph below presents data for responses regarding whether the student felt responsible for the sexual harassment.
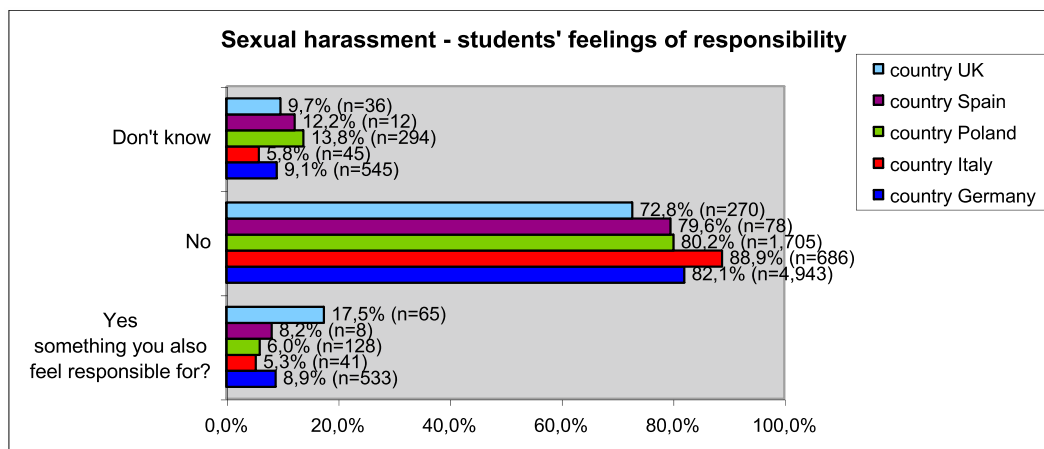

Graph 48: Harassment – students' feelings of responsibility

In total, 80.7 percent of students who had experienced sexual harassment did not feel responsible for what had happened (Italian students did not feel responsible in 88.9 percent of cases). However, the findings indicated that certain students did feel responsible with 17.5 percent of UK students stating that this was the case.

3.2.4.2 Stalking

The graph below shows responses to the following stalking related question: "If you were to assess the situation in retrospect: would you say that what happened to you was ...:"
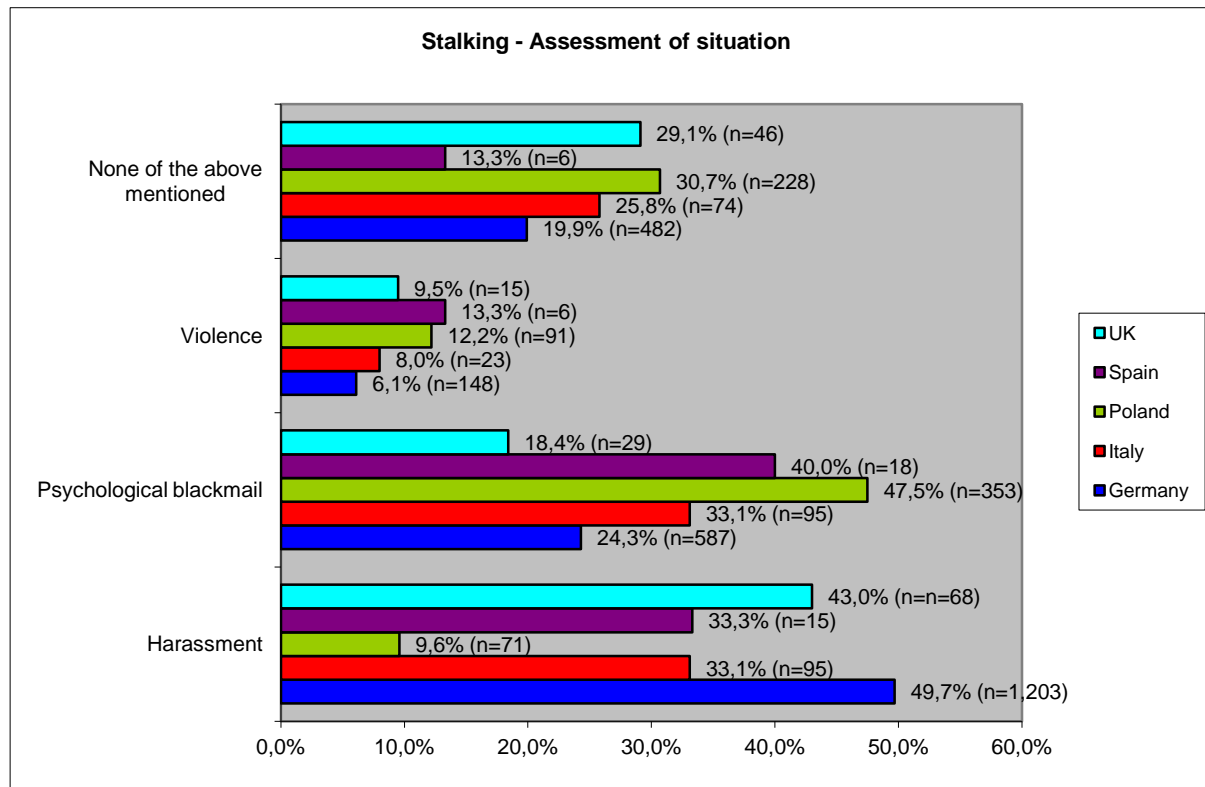
Graph 49: Stalking – assessment of situation

The graph indicates that 33.7 percent of students considered their stalking experience to constitute "harassment" whilst 32.7 percent classified it as "psychological blackmail". Polish students assigned greater importance to the psychological aspect of the event (47.5 percent, mean value = 32.7 percent) when compared to students from the other countries.

The graph below presents data for perceptions of perpetrator responsibility for the stalking event.
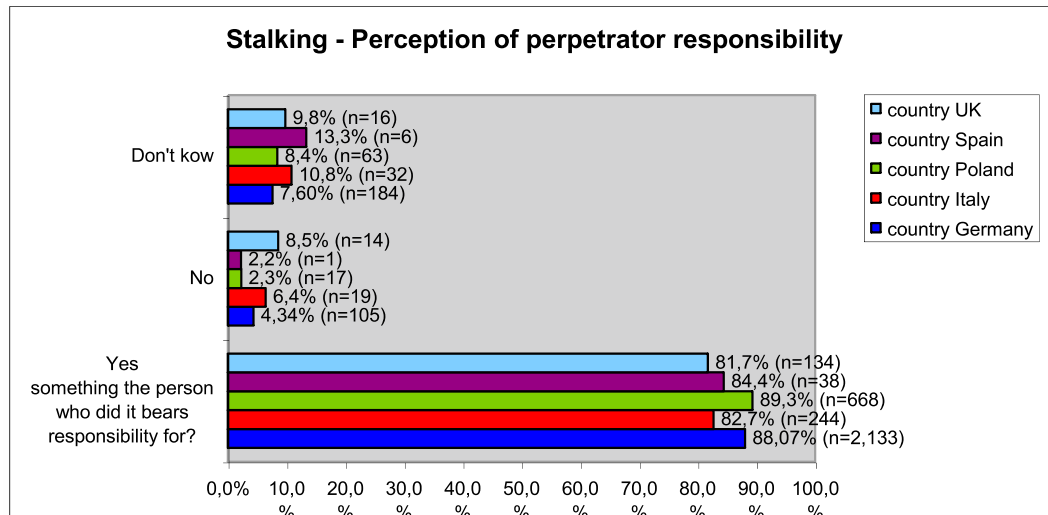
Graph 50: Stalking – perception of perpetrator responsibility

In total, 85.2 percent of respondents considered the perpetrator to be responsible for what happened.

The graph below presents data for responses regarding whether the perpetrator should be punished.
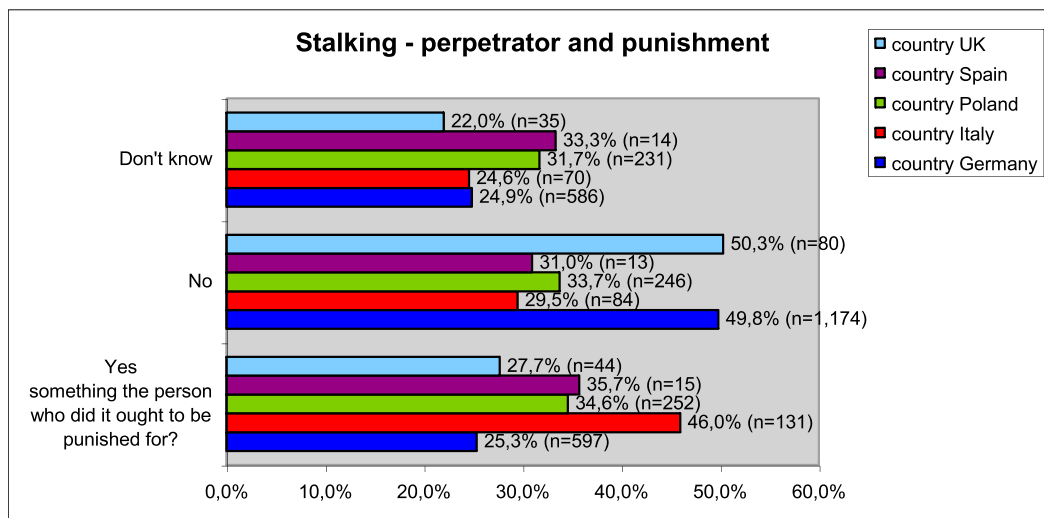
Graph 51: Stalking – perpetrator and punishment

Perhaps due to the perceived threatening nature of the stalking behaviour, the percentage of students who thought the person should be punished increased for this type of incident (33.9 percent). However, the proportion of students who remained uncertain, as well as those who did not feel that a punishment should be imposed, must be noted (66.2 percent).

The graph below presents data for responses regarding whether the student felt responsible for the stalking.
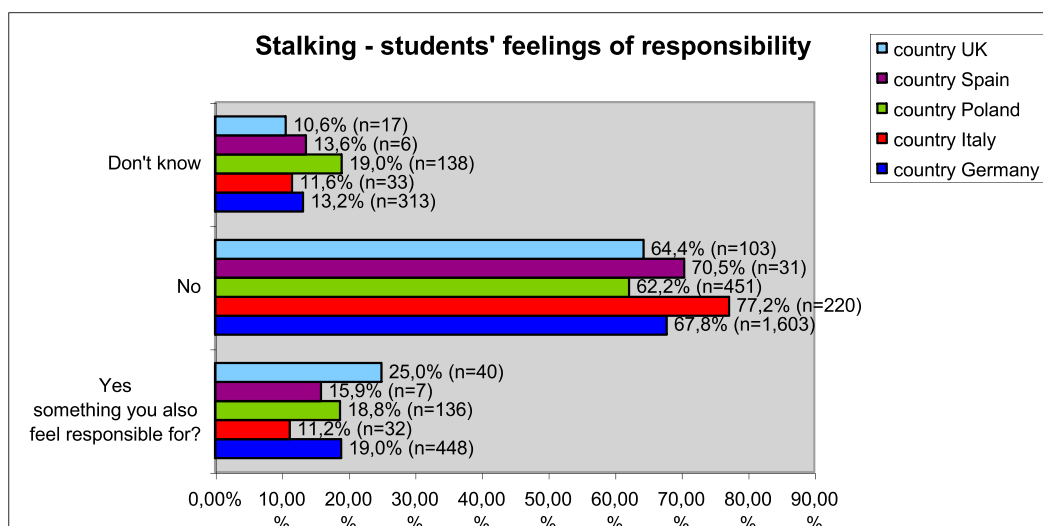
Graph 52: Stalking – students' feelings of responsibility

In comparison to harassment (perhaps due to the relationship between the perpetrator and victim), the percentage of stalking victims who did not feel responsible for what happened decreased to 68.4 percent (compared to 80.7 percent for harassment).

3.2.4.3 Sexual violence

The graph below shows responses to the following sexual violence related question: "If you were to assess the situation in retrospect: would you say that what happened to you was …:"
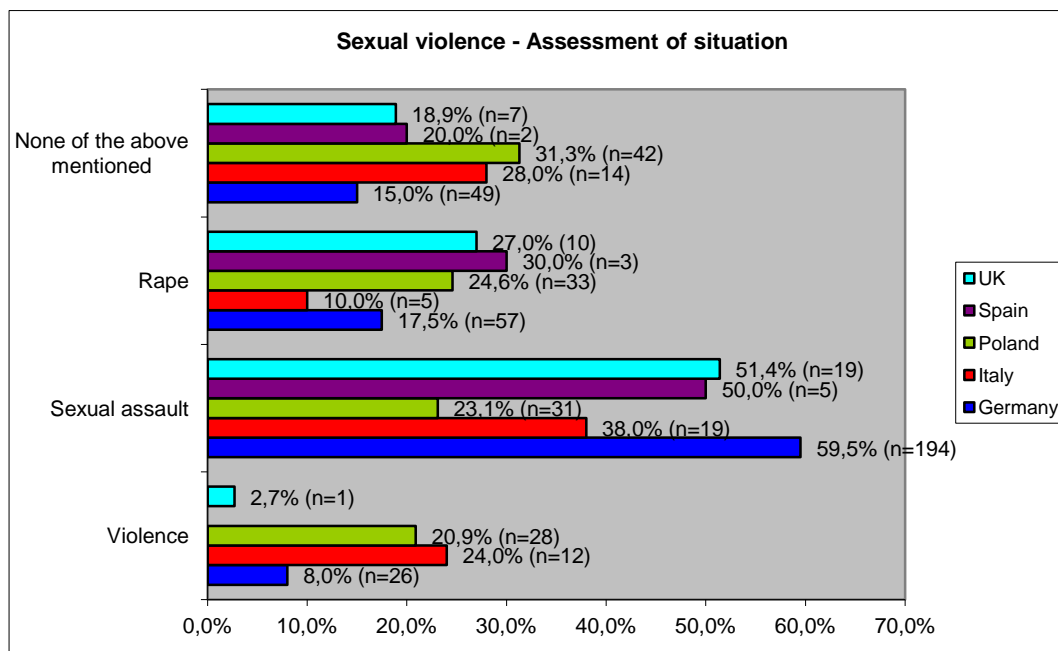
Graph 53: Sexual violence – assessment of situation

The graph indicates that students felt they had experienced "sexual assault" in 44.4 percent of cases, "rape" in 21.8 percent of cases and "violence" in 11.1 percent of cases. A greater proportion of German students classified the incident as "sexual assault" (59.5 percent, mean value = 44.4 percent) whilst Spanish students classified it as "rape" (30 percent, mean value = 21.8 percent).

The graph below presents data for perceptions of perpetrator responsibility for the sexual violence event.

Sexual violence - perception of perpetrator responsibility

Legend:
- country UK
- country Spain
- country Poland
- country Italy
- country Germany

Don't kow
- 7,3% (n=3)
- 10,0% (n=1)
- 10,8% (n=14)
- 2,2% (n=1)
- 8,5% (n=29)

No
- 4,9% (n=2)
- 6,9% (n=9)
- 5,0% (n=17)

Yes
something the person who did it bears responsibility for?
- 87,8% (n=36)
- 90,0% (n=9)
- 82,3% (n=107)
- 97,8% (n=45)
- 86,6% (n=297)
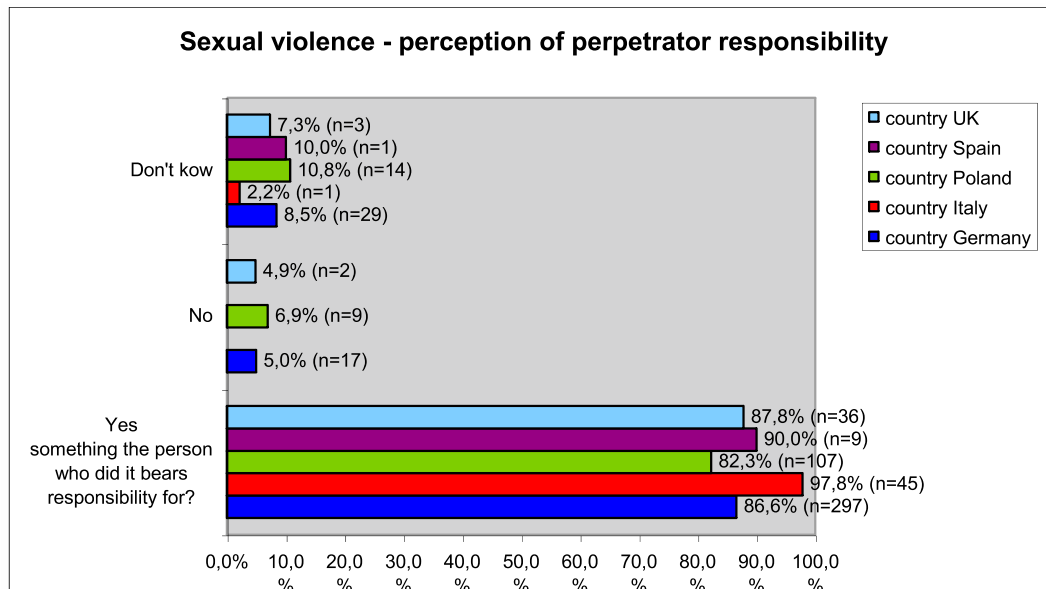
Graph 54: Sexual violence – perception of perpetrator responsibility

The graph indicates that 88.9 percent (mean value) of students felt that the perpetrator was responsible for the sexual violence incident. This proportion was higher than those who felt the perpetrator was responsible for harassment (mean value = 82.7 percent) and stalking (mean value = 85.2 percent).

In addition, in comparison to harassment and stalking incidents, the proportion of students who did not consider the perpetrator responsible for the sexual violence, or were unsure, was very low (3.4 percent and 7.8 percent respectively). Data from the questionnaire indicates that for all three forms of gender-based violence (sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence) students typically felt that the perpetrator should be held responsible for what they did.

The graph below shows data for responses regarding whether the perpetrator should be punished.

Sexual violence - perpetrator and punishment

Legend:
- country UK
- country Spain
- country Poland
- country Italy
- country Germany

Don't know
- 37,5% (n=15)
- 30,0% (n=3)
- 30,5% (n=39)
- 20,9% (n=9)
- 33,7% (n=114)

No
- 25,0% (n=10)
- 20,0% (n=2)
- 30,5% (n=39)
- 11,6% (n=5)
- 26,3% (n=89)

Yes
something the person who did it ought to be punished for?
- 37,5% (n=15)
- 50,0% (n=5)
- 39,1% (n=50)
- 67,4% (n=29)
- 39,9% (n=135)

Graph 55: Sexual violence – perpetrator and punishment

The graph below presents data for responses regarding whether the student felt responsible for the sexual violence.

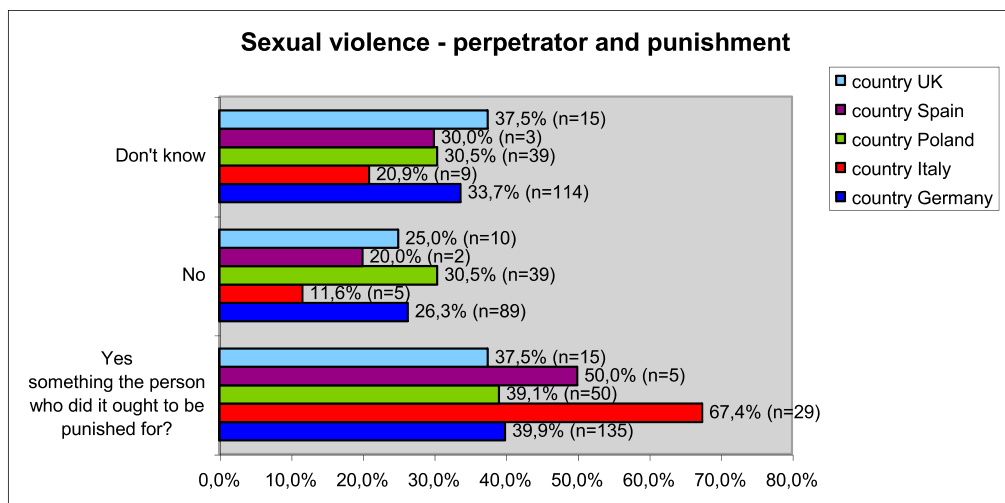**Sexual violence - students' feelings of responsibility**

Don't know
- 27,5% (n=11)
- 10,00% (n=1)
- 27,6% (n=37)
- 14,3% (n=7)
- 20,6% (n=71)

No
- 15,0% (n=6)
- 60,0% (n=6)
- 36,6% (n=49)
- 55,1% (n=27)
- 34,6% (n=119)

Yes something you also feel responsible for?
- 57,5% (n=23)
- 30,0% (n=3)
- 35,8% (n=48)
- 30,6% (n=15)
- 44,8% (n=154)

Legend:
- country UK
- country Spain
- country Poland
- country Italy
- country Germany

X-axis: 0,0% 10,0% 20,0% 30,0% 40,0% 50,0% 60,0% 70,0%
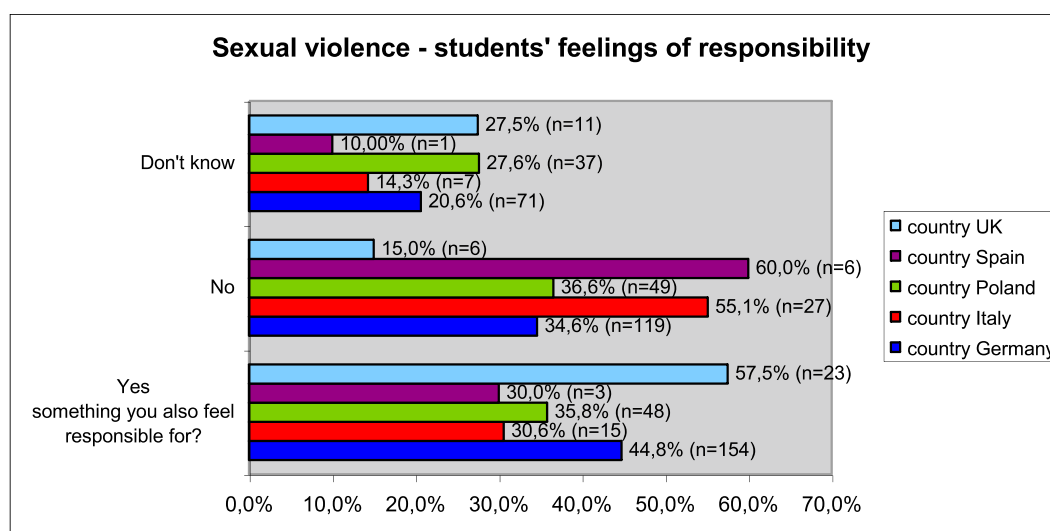
Graph 56: Sexual violence – students' feelings of responsibility

As noted, the study findings indicated that the majority of students who had experienced sexual harassment and stalking did not feel responsible for what had happened to them. However, this does not inevitably apply in the case of sexual violence. Indeed, 20 percent of victims were unsure whether they should be held responsible and 39.7 percent felt responsible for what happened. These findings confirm assertions made in the research literature around Rape Trauma Syndrome. It is well established that Rape Trauma Syndrome is characterised by two phases, the first being acute and immediate, experienced soon after the event. During this phase the physical and psychosomatic symptoms prevail, accompanied by a strong sense of fear, shock, and general anxiety. Guilt is also likely to be a predominant emotion experienced (Catanesi and Troccoli, 1998). Following this phase a victim is likely to experience the "repercussion phase or re-organisation phase." During this time the victim has to come to understand what has happened to them and deal with the emotional and psychological consequences. This background is likely to explain the current findings, where perceptions of self-responsibility were elevated in cases of sexual violence.

3.2.5 Impacts and coping strategies

The impact of gender-based sexual violence on victims will be analysed based on the respondents' answers in reference to different types of incidents. The distribution of the results is presented in two ways: in a general category, referring to students who have experienced a particular type of incident, and in a subcategory, referring to those who experienced at least one incident and felt threatened.

A series of factor analyses was conducted to examine the possible underlying factors involved in the women's various reactions to sexual harassment, stalking and sexual violence incidents: the data was examined in order to find out if the particular impacts

can be grouped into a smaller number of factors. The analyses were conducted in separate country data sets and included only those respondents who felt threatened by the incidents.[4] 3.2.5.1 Harassment
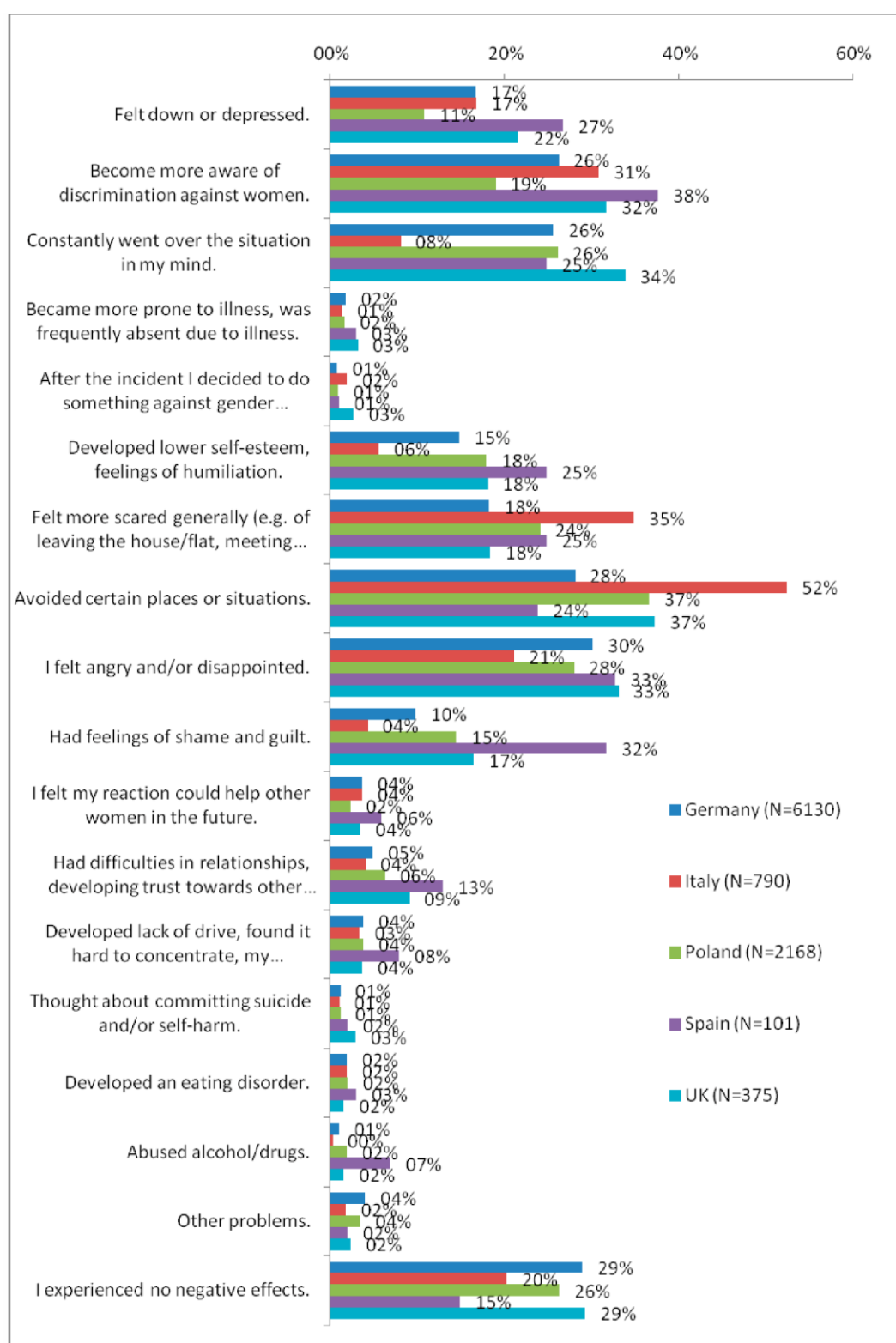
Graph 57: Impacts of harassment – general (multiple answers possible)

[4] The analysis was done using the principal component extraction method with the eigenvalue > 1 criterion of extraction and varimax rotation of factors.
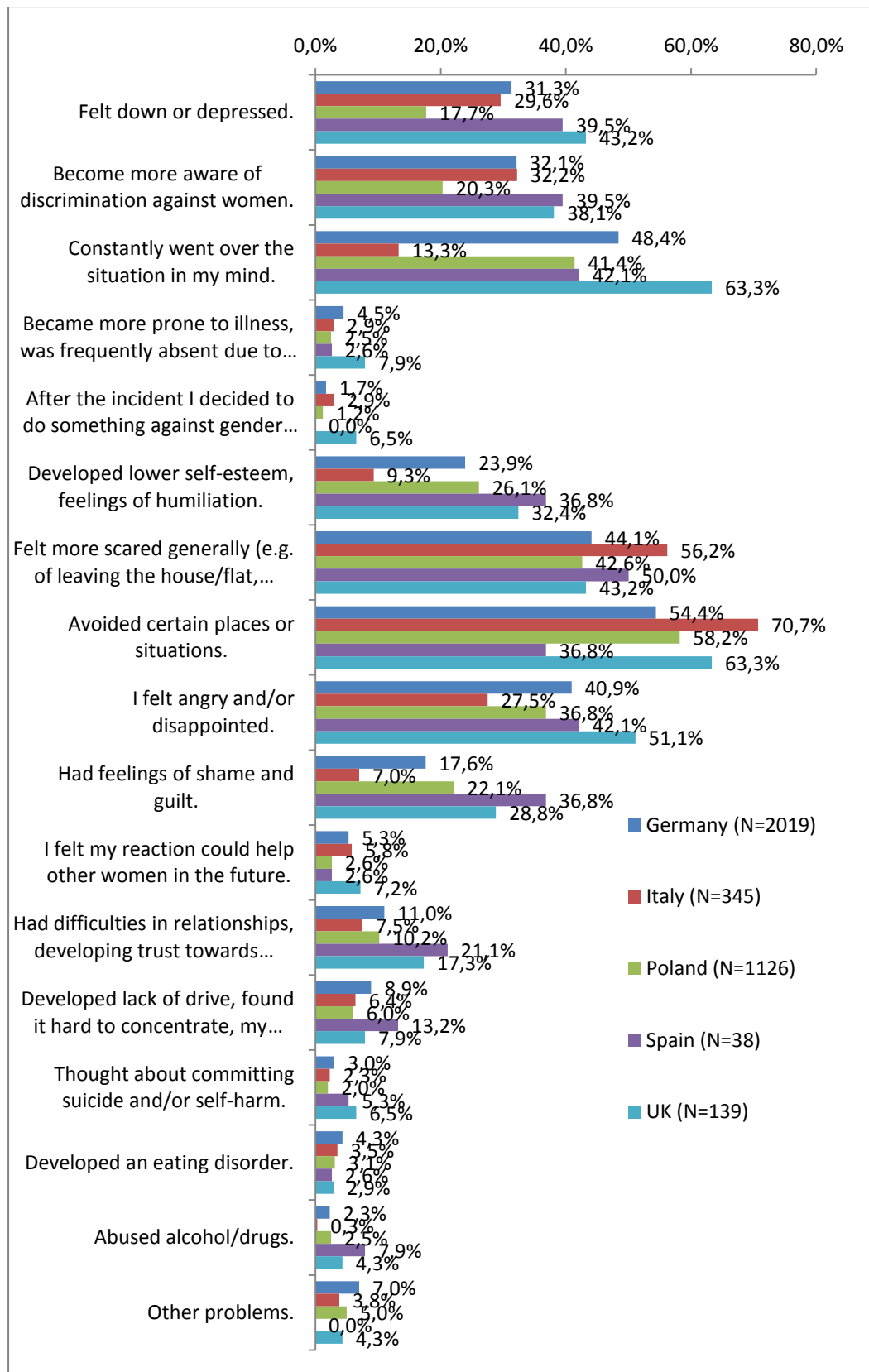
Graph 58: Impacts of harassment – general (multiple answers possible; reference sample: experienced at least one negative effect and felt threatened)

Between roughly one in seven of the students in Spain and one in three of the students in the UK didn't feel any negative effects of the harassment they experienced which

they judged to be most severe. The proportions of those who experienced at least one negative effect and felt threatened were as follows: 51.9 percent in Poland, 43.7 percent in Italy, 37.6 percent in Spain, 37.5 percent in the UK and 32.9 percent in Germany. Experiences of harassment were most serious for Polish students.
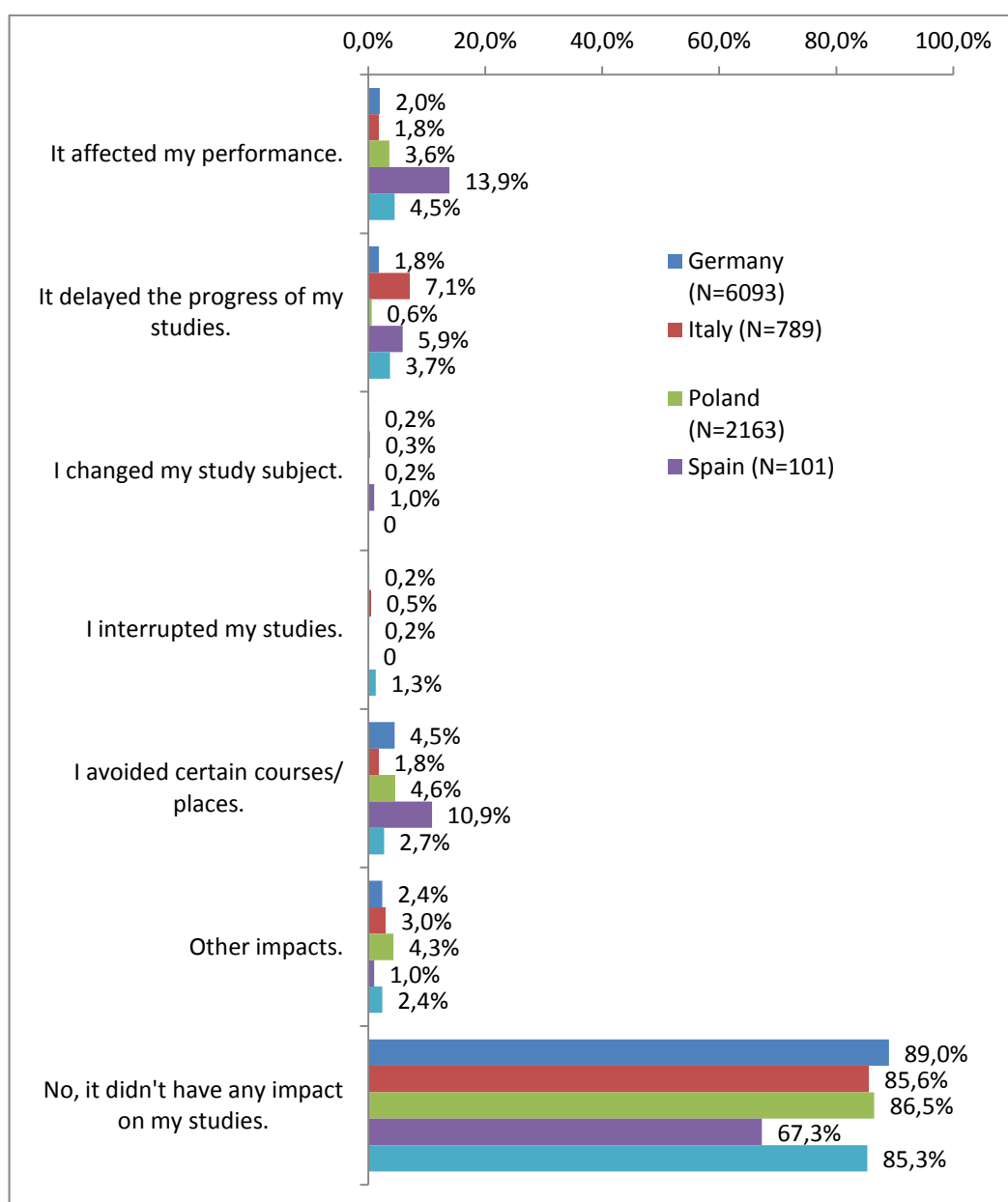
Graph 59: Impacts of harassment – on women's studies
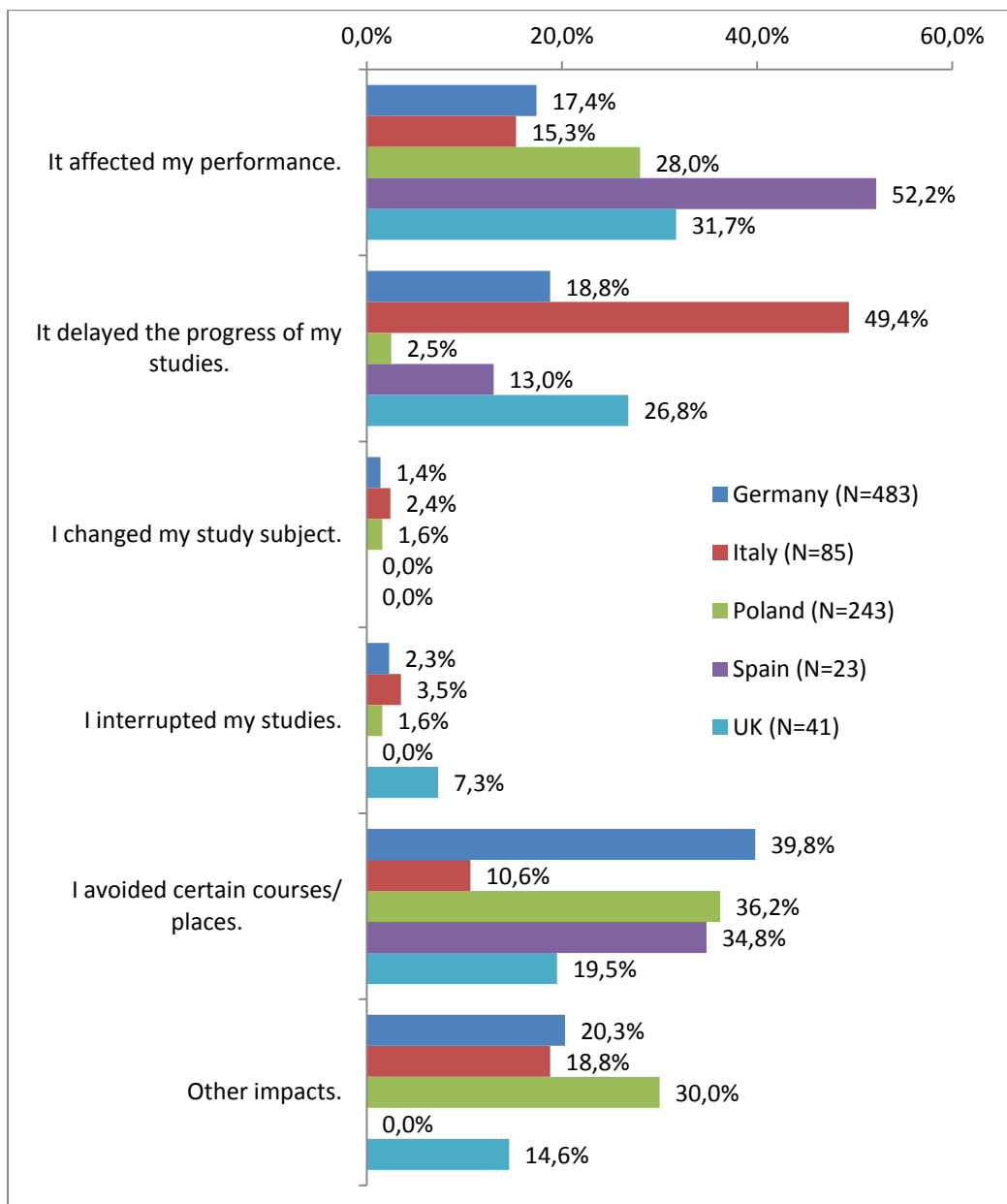
Graph 60: Impacts of harassment – on women's studies (reference sample: experienced negative effect and felt threatened)

Most of the students in all the countries studied stated that incidents of harassment did not have any effects on their studies. The Spanish respondents differed from the others: fewer of them stated that the event had no influence on their studies; nonetheless, 67.3 percent still said the incident had no negative impact. The possible serious impacts on the women's studies were not mentioned very often. The most frequent consequences named by students who experienced a negative effect and felt threatened were: impact on the student's performance (Spain, UK), avoiding certain courses/places (Germany, Poland), delaying the progress of the respondent's studies (Italy).

A comparison of the effects experienced as a result of the most severe incident among respondents who stated that they felt threatened as a result of the incident allows a

closer characterization of these effects. The incidents of harassment mentioned most were identical in Poland and Italy and were similar in Germany. The most frequently chosen reactions were reactive/passive behaviours, such as avoiding certain places or situations and leaving the house or meeting other people, as symptoms of general fear (the Appendix includes detailed data, Tables 68-72).

A comparison can also be based on the most often stated effects in connection with incidents when the kind of impact was chosen most frequently (excluding the answer "I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment"). The comparison makes it possible to analyse the intensity of the impacts experienced.[5] Overall, three incidents were important in the specified context: being followed by someone, harassment via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter, and physical exposure. Two incidents most frequently caused the women to avoid certain places: being followed (Germany 60%, UK 84.2%) and physical exposure (Italy 79.2% and Poland 70.2%). Very few Italian students chose the answer "constantly went over the situation in my mind" (15 percent at most, in other countries between 55 percent in Poland and 78.9 percent in the UK) and reacted in this way first of all in the case of groping or kissing against their will.

In the factor analysis for Germany (N=2357) and Poland (N=1313) four-factor solutions were obtained, both explaining 45 percent of total variance. For Italy (N=396) six-factors were obtained, explaining 56 percent of total variance, and for the UK (N=157) five-factors were obtained, explaining 58 percent of total variance (Table 73 in Appendix).
The four factors that emerge in the data can be described as:

- General symptoms of depression
- Self-blaming
- Feeling of fear
- Proactive reaction.

For the other analyses, the factors were constructed using the variables that load the factors in all the samples, that is, those items which are covered in all the countries and those items which are covered only in specific countries are not listed here:

General symptoms of depression

- Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.
- Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.
- Developed an eating disorder.
- Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.

Self-blaming

- Had feelings of shame and guilt.
- Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.
- I felt angry and/or disappointed.
- Felt down or depressed.

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[5]The small sample size in Spain made it unfeasible to include the results obtained in this country in the analysis.

Feeling of fear

- Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).
- Avoided certain places or situations.

Proactive reaction

- Became more aware of discrimination against women.
- I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.
- After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).

Although the solutions obtained for the countries are not identical, there are some similarities or patterns that can be identified in the data. In Germany and Poland, the solutions result in four factors that are loaded by the same sets of variables, with one exception: in the Polish sample the item "Constantly went over the situation in my mind" has a higher loading for the third factor but in the German sample has a higher loading for the second factor. However, the item has a relatively high loading for both factors in both samples. Secondly, when the analysis was adjusted to extract four factors in the Italian sample, the resulting solution offered comparable (although not identical) factors similar to the German and Polish sample. In other words, there are some key variables in all three samples that "create" the four factors. The solution obtained in the British sample, even after limiting the number of factors to four, is the least similar to the remaining samples.

New complex variables were created which stand for the four new factors.

Table 8: Cross tabulation factor * country (the percentages of respondents who chose one item and those who chose at least one – for details see **Table 73 in the Appendix**)

Factor		Country				
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK
General symptoms of depression	One item	9.2	9.3	9.4	12.8	14.0
	At least one	15.3	12.9	13.0	21.3	20.4
Self-blaming	One item	27.5	26.8	26.8	27.7	29.3
	At least one	54.7	41.4	51.6	61.7	53.0
Feeling of fear	One item	35.5	38.6	38.9	31.9	40.8
	At least one	59.9	74.7	62.8	53.2	67.5
Proactive reaction	One item	29.7	29.3	18.7	42.6	28.7
	At least one	33.1	34.3	20.6	44.7	37.6

Except for the "feeling of fear" factor, Spanish students would most often choose at least one variable in the remaining factors, which means that their reaction to harassment was the strongest. Spanish students also would more often show proactive reactions. Italian students would more often reveal passive reactions of avoidance, identified as a "feeling of fear". Proactive reactions were less often in evidence among Polish students.

3.2.5.2 Stalking
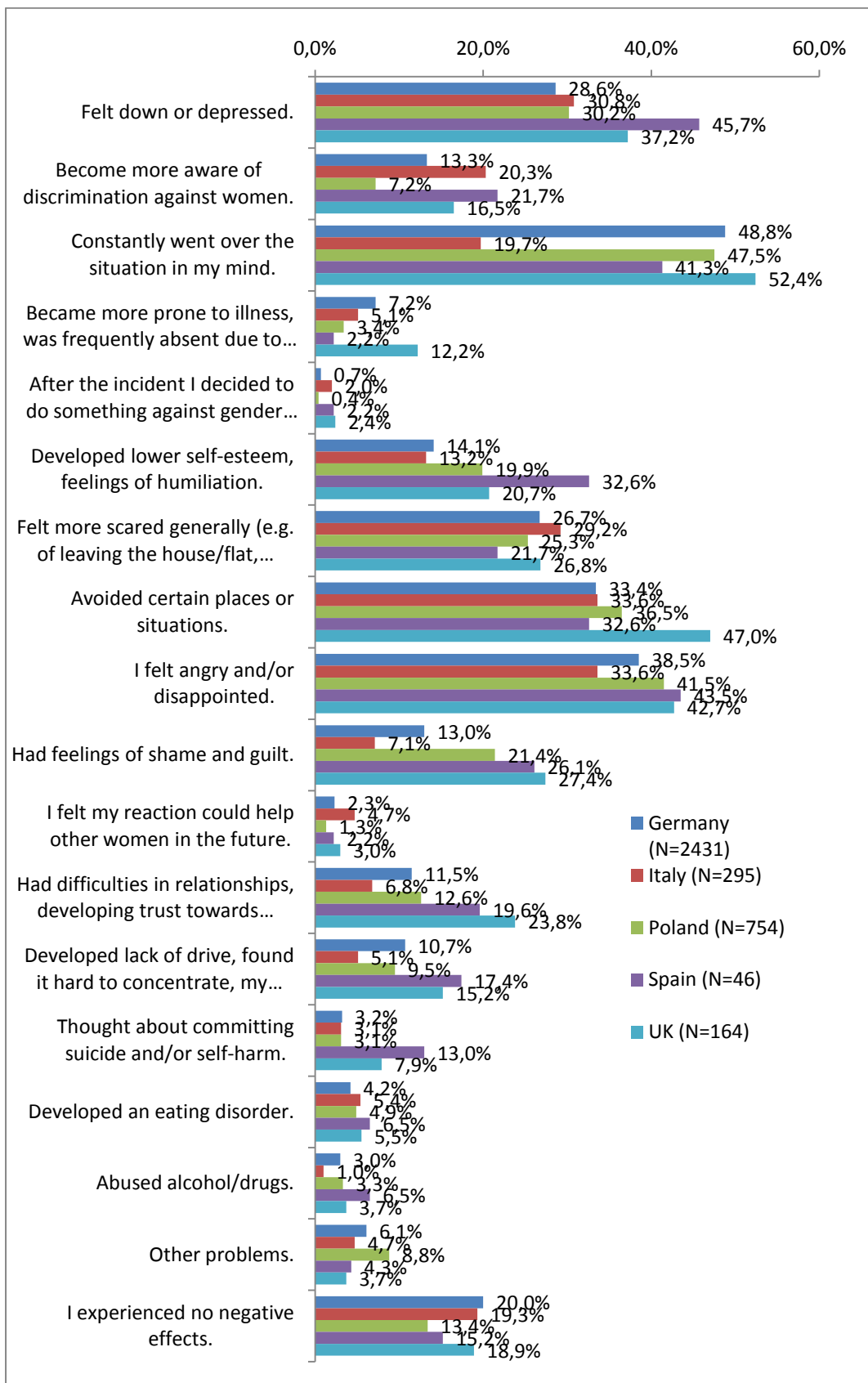
Graph 61: Impacts of stalking – general
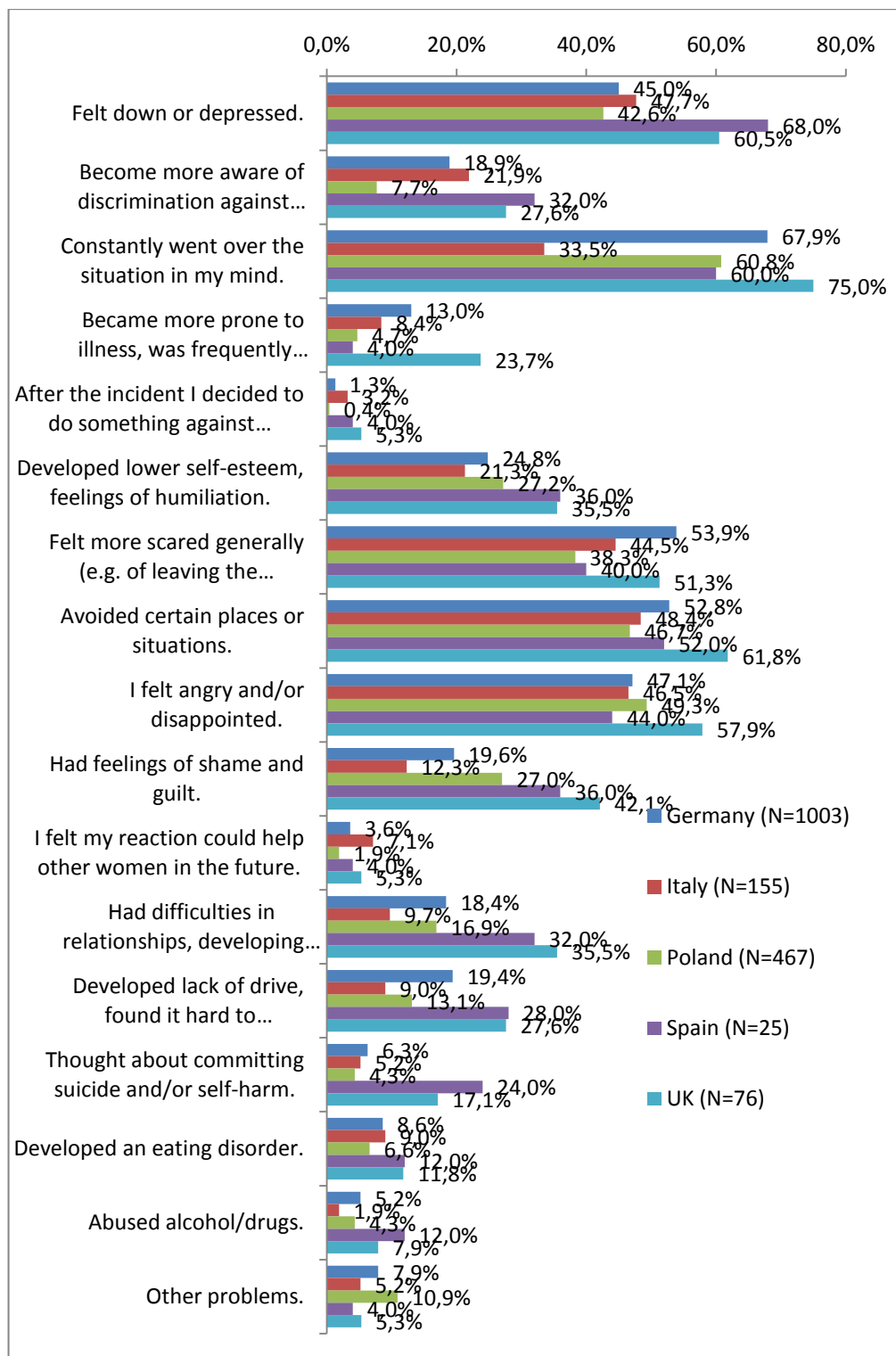
Graph 62: Impacts of stalking – general (reference sample: experienced at least one negative effect and felt threatened)

Stalking seems more painful for students then acts of harassment. Between

one in seven of the students in Poland and one in five in the UK experienced no negative effects. The proportions of those who experienced at least one negative effect and felt threatened were as follows: 41.2 percent (Germany), 46.3 percent (UK), 52.5

percent (Italy) and 61.9 percent (Poland), meaning that experiences of stalking had a greater impact on Polish students.

The stalking impacts mentioned most frequently included: 'constantly thinking over the situation' in Germany, Poland and UK, 'avoiding certain places' in Italy and 'feeling down or depressed' in Spain. Although the students named the same most severe incident (unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages) they differed with regard to the impacts this had had:[6]

- Germany – feeling more scared in general (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people) – 41 percent
- Italy – avoiding certain places or situations – 43.1 percent
- Poland – constantly thinking over the situation – 50 percent.

In most countries, more than half the respondents stated that they had not experienced any impact on their studies. British and Spanish students more frequently experienced a negative effect, usually in the area of performance (nevertheless one should bear in mind the small case number in Spain). The same impacts were identified most frequently by students from Germany and Poland. Only Italian students stated most frequently that experiencing stalking had delayed the progress of their studies (similar to harassment).

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[6] The small sample size in both Spain and Great Britain made it unfeasible to include the results obtained in these countries in the analysis. The Appendix includes detailed data (Tables 78-82).
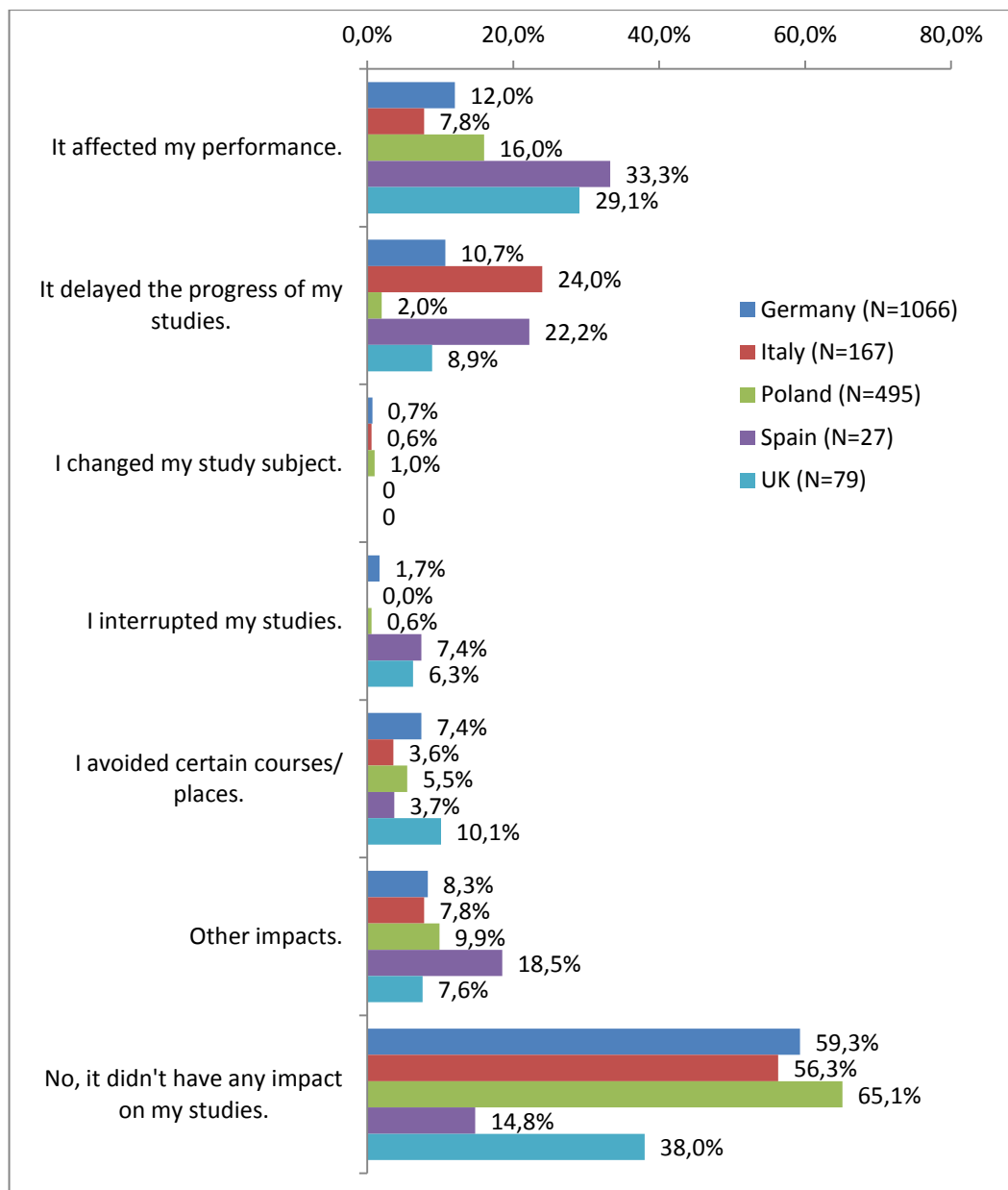
Graph 63: Impacts of stalking – on women's studies
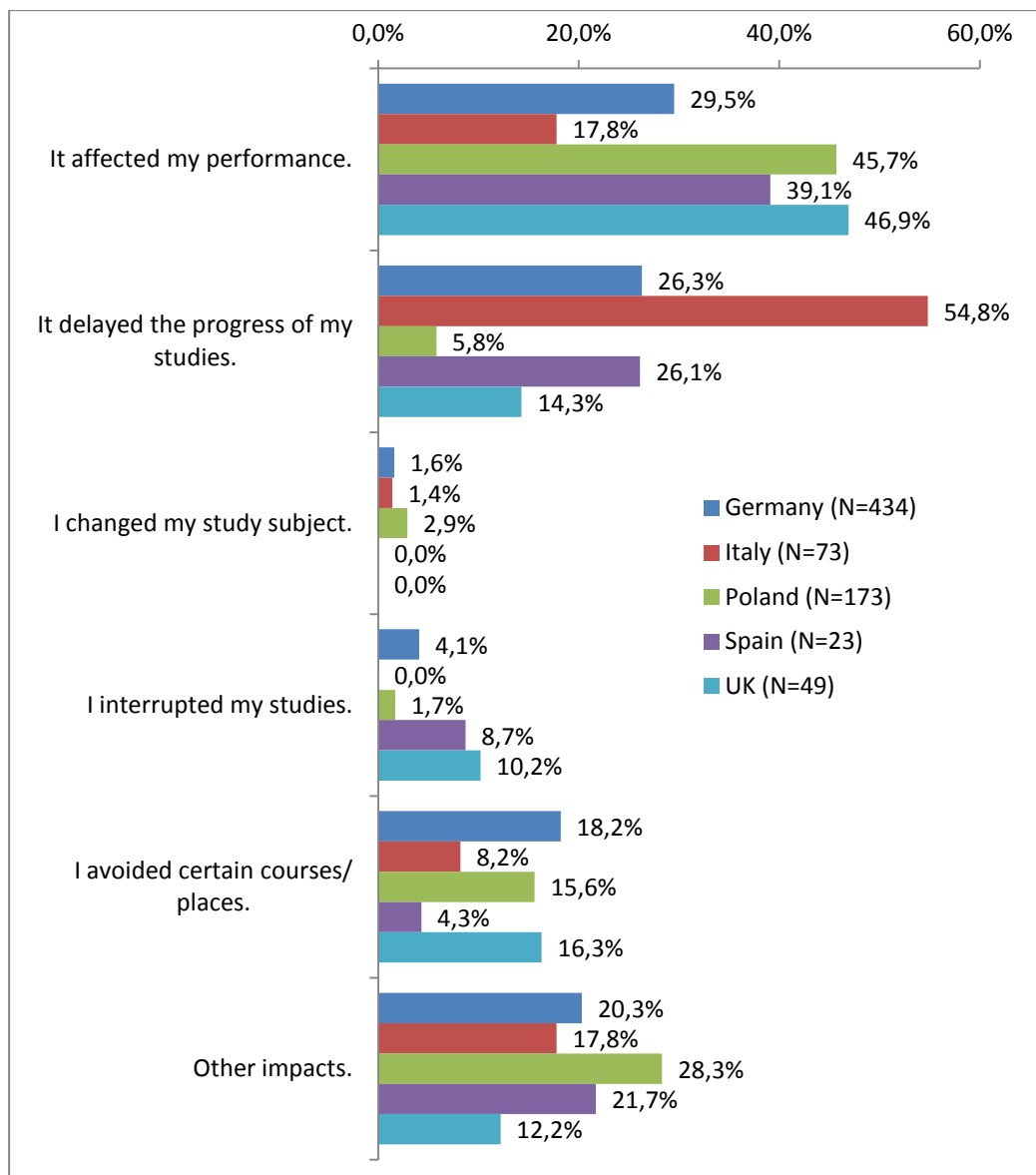
Graph 64: Impacts of stalking – on women's studies (reference sample: experienced negative effect and felt threatened)

As with the case of harassment, the factor analysis was conducted to examine the data in order to find the possible underlying factors for the effects of stalking. For the Germany sample (N=1074) a four-factor solution was obtained. For Poland (N=496) and Italy (N=169) six-factor solutions were obtained.[7] To elaborate a common pattern, the analysis in the Italian and Polish samples was limited to four factors. The factors "feeling of fear" and "proactive reaction" consist of the same variables as in the case of harassment. In the factor "general symptoms of depression", thinking about committing suicide is added, while difficulties in relationships are not found in the Italian sample. The factor "self-blaming" additionally included "constantly going over the situation in the mind". The solutions explain 43 percent-49 percent of total variance (for details see **Table 83 in the Appendix**).

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[7] Spain and UK were excluded from the analysis due to low case numbers.

General symptoms of depression
- Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.
- Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.
- Developed an eating disorder.
- Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness (less correlated in Italian sample).
- Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people (except Italy).

Self-blaming
- Had feelings of shame and guilt.
- Constantly went over the situation in my mind.
- I felt angry and/or disappointed.
- Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.
- Felt down or depressed.

Feeling of fear
- Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).
- Avoided certain places or situations.

Proactive reaction
- Became more aware of discrimination against women.
- I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.
- After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).

New complex variables were created which stand for the four new factors.

Table 9: Cross tabulation factor * country (the percentage of cases in which the respondent chose at least one item – for details see **Tables 84-87 in the Appendix**)

Factor		Country		
		Germany	Italy	Poland
General symptoms of depression	One item	15.2	19.5	16.1
	At least one item	31.2	26.6	26.8
Self-blaming	One item	25.9	22.5	27.4
	At least one item	80.5	67.5	82.3
Feeling of fear	One item	33.6	37.9	33.7
	At least one item	66.7	61.5	56.9
Proactive reaction	One item	18.2	22.5	8.7
	At least one item	20.4	27.8	9.3

The results obtained in the factor analysis indicate that Polish students feel the effects of stalking mostly in relation to self-blaming. German students stand out with the highest indicator of fear and symptoms of depression. Polish students, as in the case of other incidents, are the least prone to react proactively.

3.2.5.3 Sexual violence
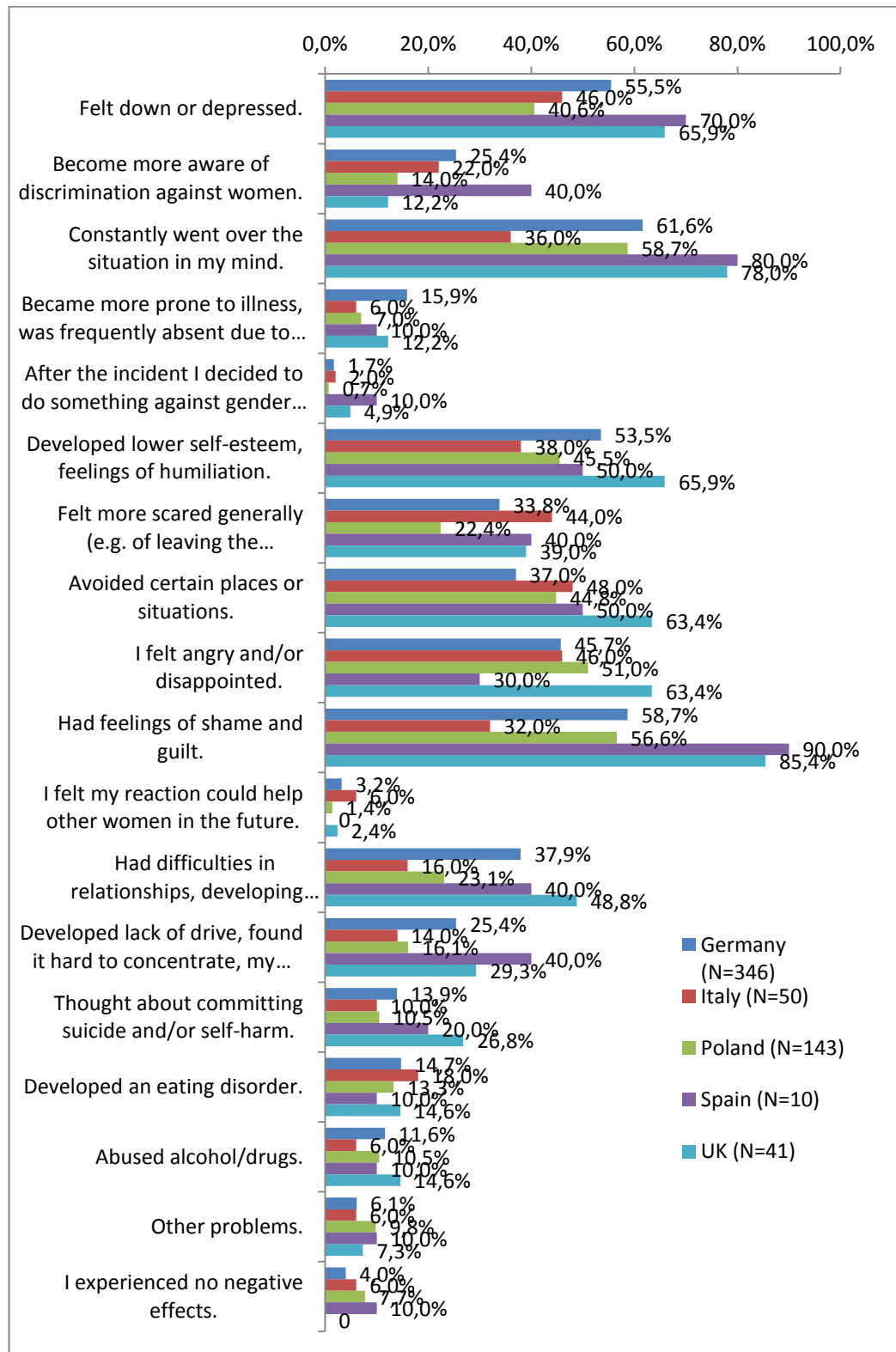
Graph 65: Impacts of sexual violence – general (multiple responses possible)
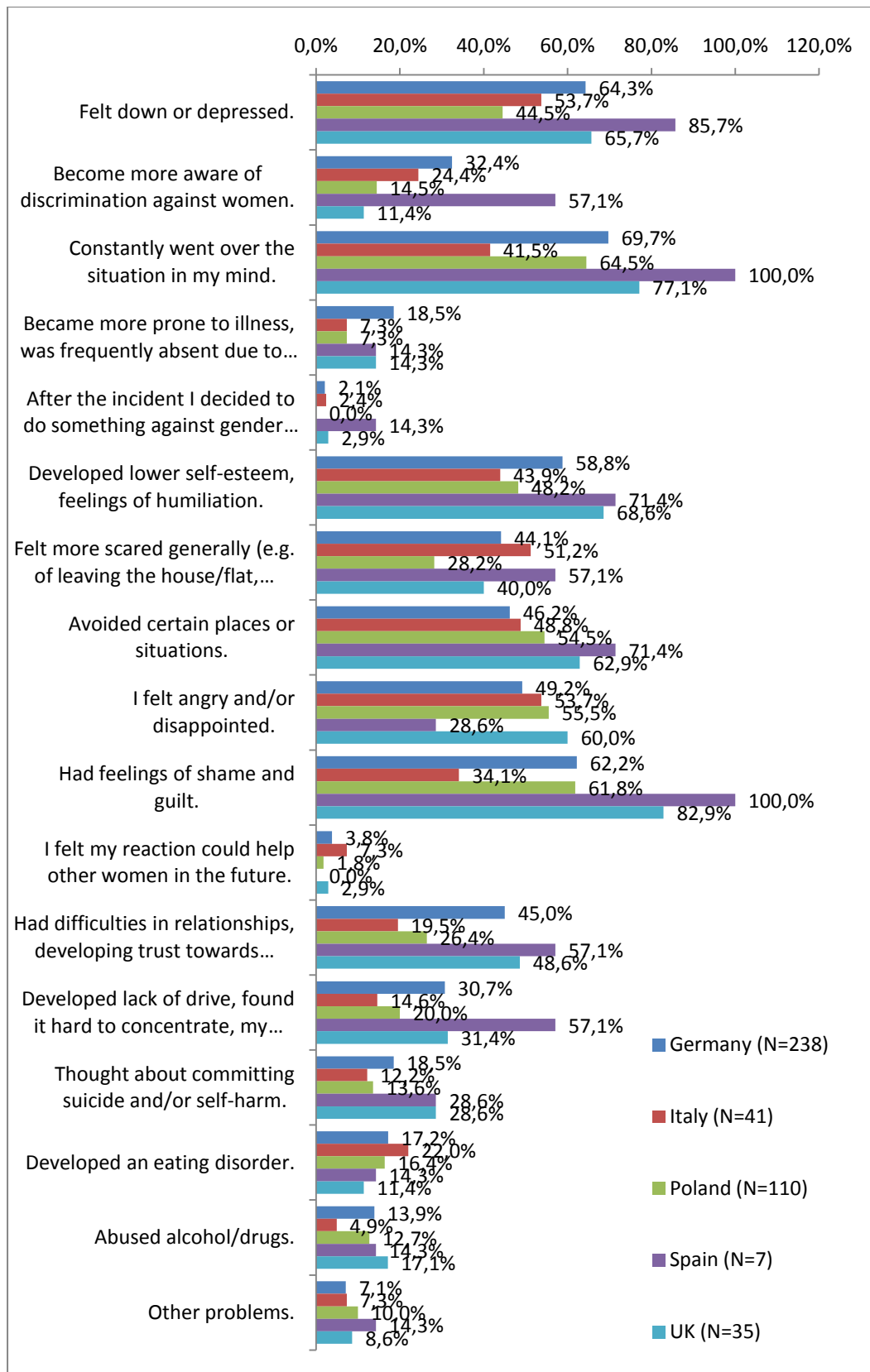
Graph 66: Impacts of sexual violence – general (reference sample: experienced at least one negative effect and felt threatened)

Sexual violence had visibly painful consequences for students; only few experienced no negative effects. The proportions of those who experienced at least one negative

effect and felt threatened were as follows: 68.8 percent in Germany, 85.3 percent in the UK, 82.0 percent in Italy and 76.9 percent in Poland. Differences between countries are slight but one should bear in mind that the Italian, Spanish and British samples were small.
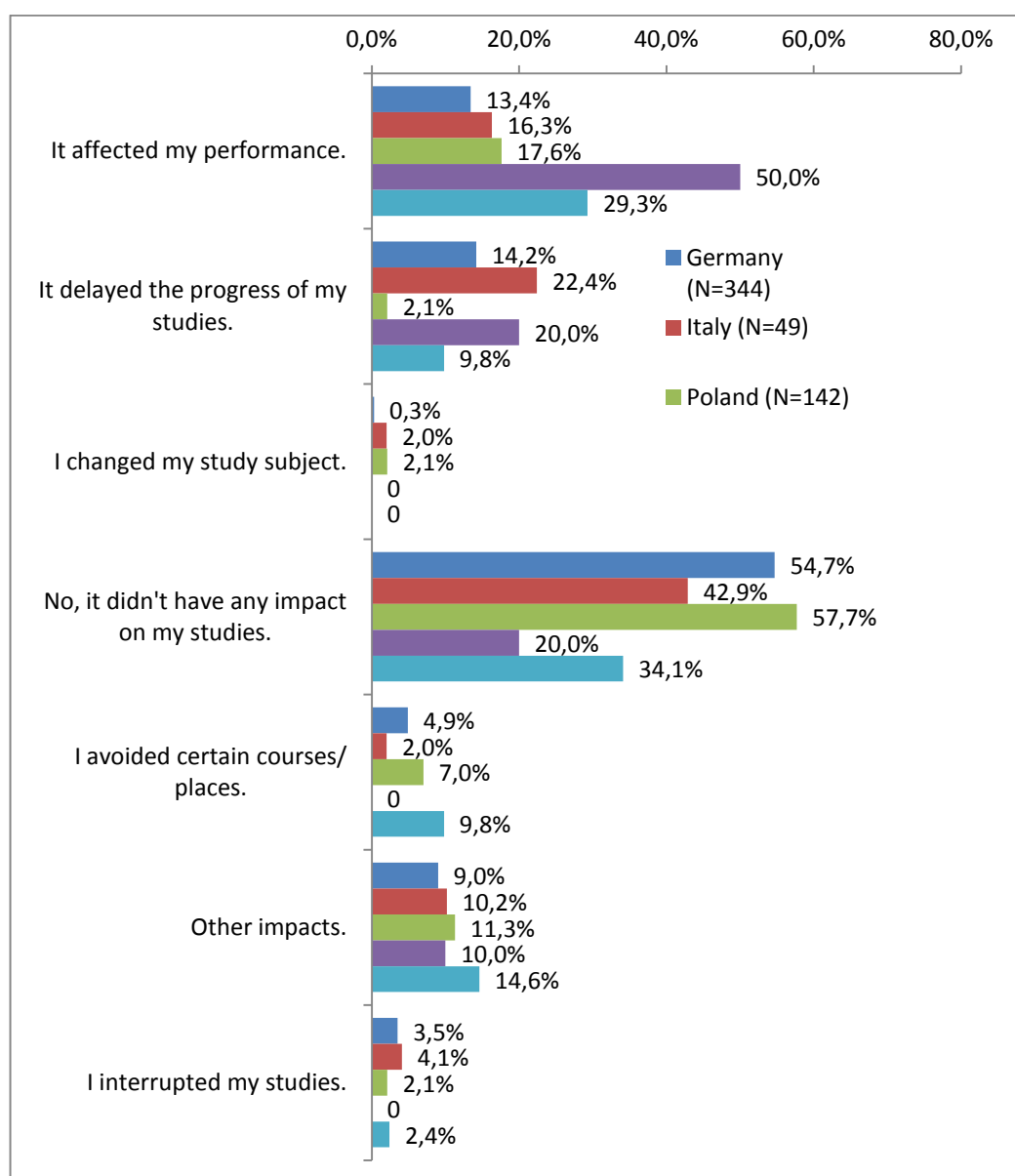
Graph 67: Impacts of sexual violence – on women's studies

Slightly more than half the respondents in Germany and Poland claimed not to have experienced any impact of sexual violence on their studies.
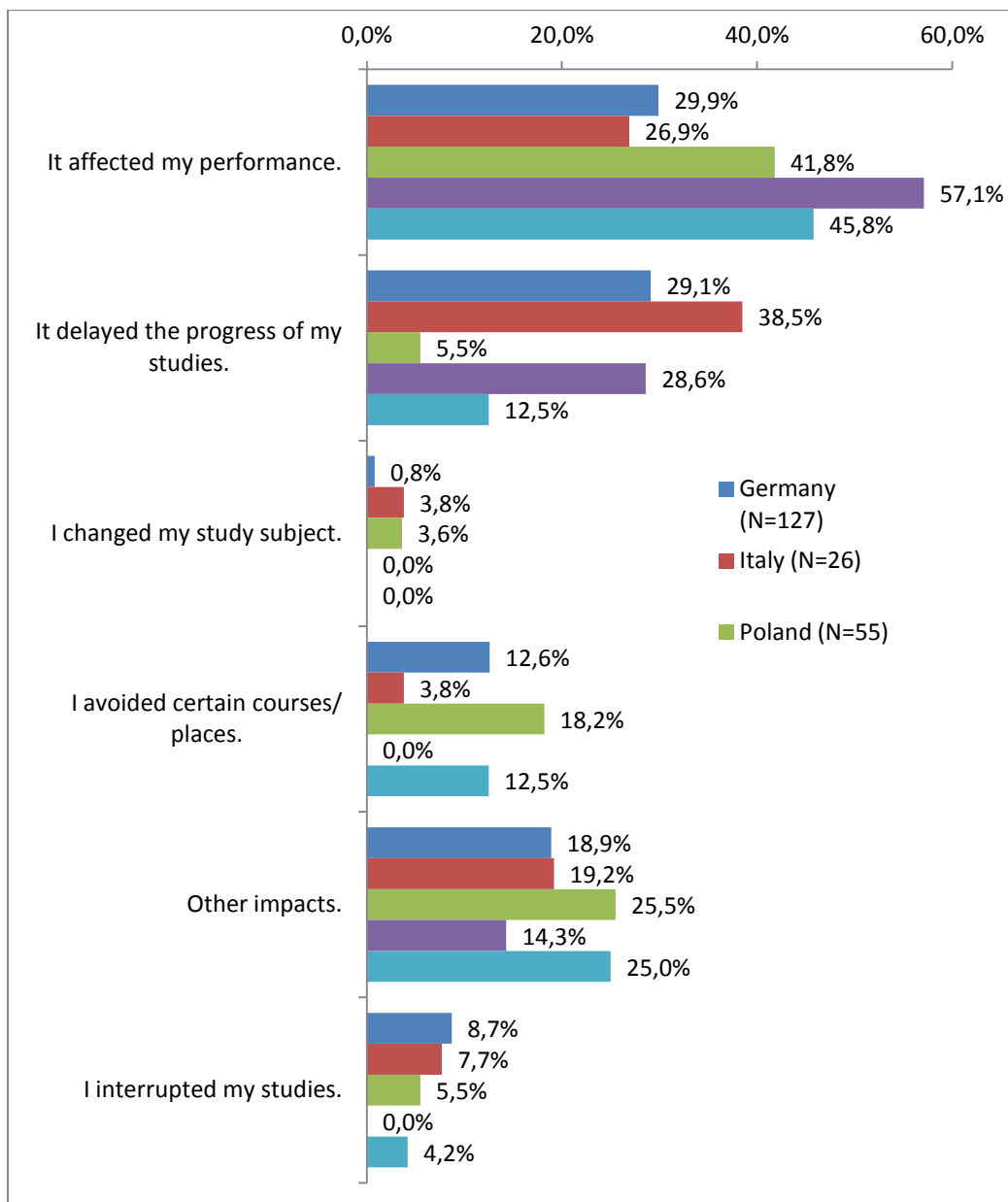
Graph 68: Impacts of sexual violence – on women's studies (reference sample: experienced negative effect and felt threatened)

In cases where acts of sexual violence did influence the respondent's studies, the most important impact in almost all countries was that they affected the student's performance; only in Italy was the most frequent impact a delay in the progress of the student's studies.

If we take into consideration the influence of different forms of sexual violence, then in Germany coerced sexual intercourse influenced the respondents' studies most frequently. It delayed the progress of one in every five women who experienced it. Attempted rape had less influence on the respondents' studies. In the Polish sample also coerced sexual intercourse influenced the respondents' studies most frequently. It most frequently affected their performance. In both countries, other sexual acts not named in the questionnaire had significant consequences additionally (for details, see **Graphs 1 and 2 in the Appendix**).

The factor analysis was run on the German sample only, as the other samples contained a relatively low number of observations in this section. The solution produced four factors and explains 52 percent of total variance (for detailed results, see **Table 88 in the Appendix**).

The factor "General symptoms of depression" named in the report includes the same items as the corresponding harassment and stalking factors in the German sample. The physical problems (became more prone to illness, developed an eating disorder, and started abusing alcohol/drugs) were correlated with self-control and difficulties with social contacts. Interestingly, the proactive way of thinking was linked with the feeling of anger and disappointment – in the case of the harassment and stalking impact factors the item was related to the factor "self-blaming". The effect "constantly went over the situation in my mind" also changed its position in the configuration of factors and in the case when sexual violence is correlated with avoidance reactions as symptoms of fear.

3.2.6 Feeling of safety

Conclusions on the feeling of safety among female students who participated in the research are limited to an analysis of answers to questions about whether the respondents feel safe in selected locations at the higher education institution.

Ten places on university premises were selected for the analysis. The Polish questionnaire included only nine such places because Polish institutions of higher education do not have such places as "student rooms" in the sense agreed on in the research project.

The results obtained suggest that female students feel fairly safe, although there are some differences in proportions to answers between countries, especially between the answers "very safe" and "more or less safe" (Graphs 3-13 in the Appendix). Dissimilar results were obtained to the question "How safe do you feel when you walk alone in the dark on the university premises?"

Because different places are attended by students with different frequencies, a thorough analysis was conducted of answers provided by the students who go to these places (see **Table 89 in the Appendix**). The main results are presented below:
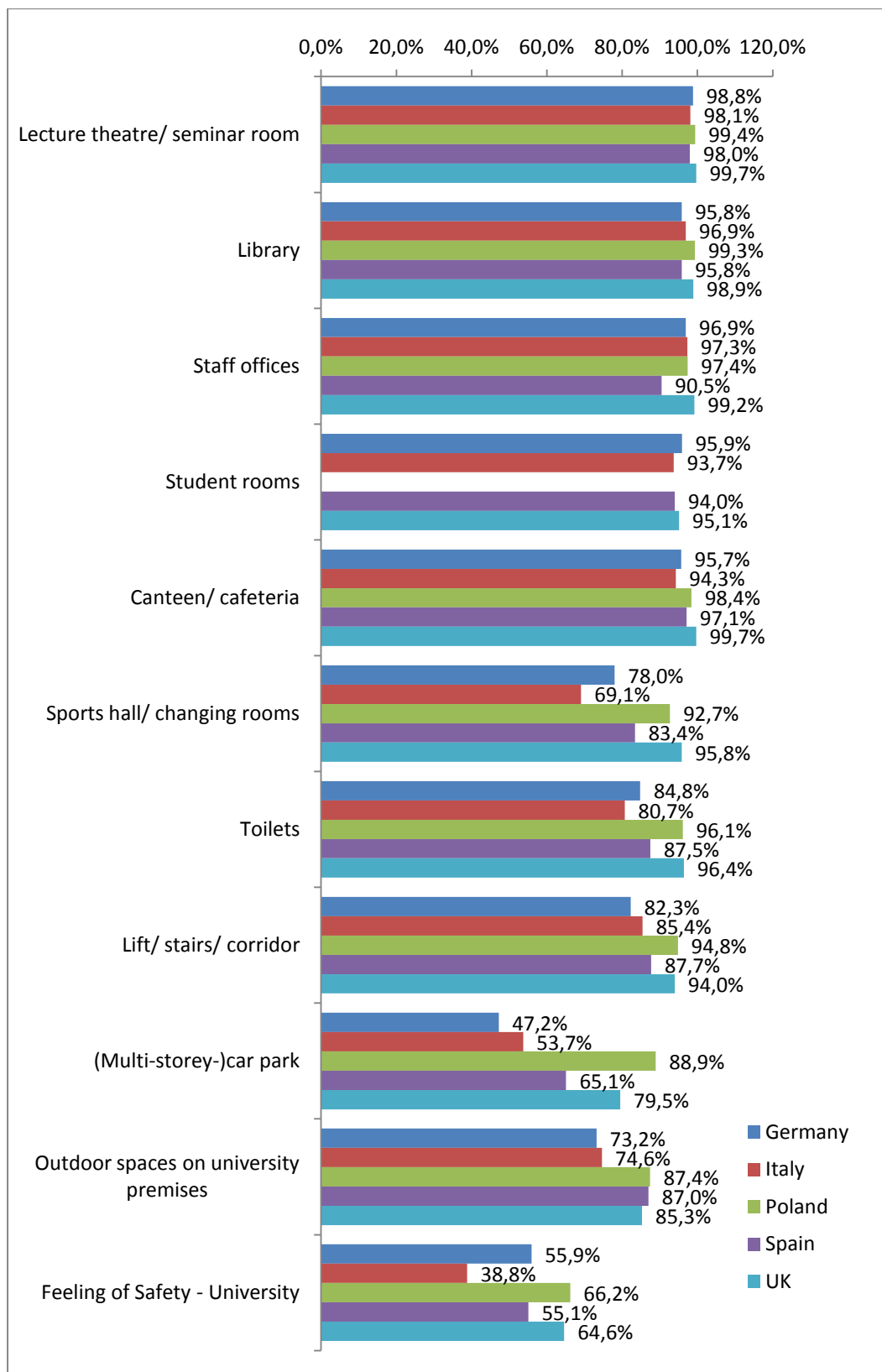
Graph 69: Feeling of safety - the sum of the answers "very safe" and "more or less safe" (reference sample: respondents who go to these places; numbers are given in the Appendix)

Among the places regarded by all students (except Polish respondents) as relatively less safe was the (multi-storey) car park. What needs to be emphasized is that

German female students, as the only ones, were more often scared of car parks than they were of walking alone in the dark on university premises. Only Polish students named outdoor spaces on university premises least frequently as a safe place. These outdoor spaces were the second place regarded as unsafe by female students in Germany and Great Britain. In Italy and in Spain such places regarded as unsafe were the sports hall/changing rooms. A partial explanation for these differences may lie in infrastructural differences: in Polish university towns, the infrastructure of car parks is not well developed, and the places where such car parks can be found and used by female students are usually one-storey, relatively open constructions.

Although the samples differ in size and the conclusions presented below should be treated cautiously, it is worth noting that (apart from the above mentioned places) the results from the different countries do not show many significant differences. With regard to responses to all the questions about the respondents' feeling of safety in selected places on university premises, it turns out that Polish female students feel the safest.

Among the places regarded as the safest were lecture/seminar rooms (in this category the differences between results from various countries of 1.7 percent are the smallest; the highest score (the safest) was obtained in the UK at 99.7 percent, and the lowest (the least safe) in Spain at 98.0 percent). Other places regarded as safe are the library (Poland 99.3%, Germany 95.8%), the canteen/cafeteria (UK 99.7%, Italy 94.3%) and staff offices (UK 99.2%, Spain 90.5%).

Except for Poland, sports halls and changing rooms are visited less frequently than other places (in Germany they are not visited by 42.6 percent, in Italy by 68.4 percent, in Spain by 53.2 percent, in the UK by 34.9 percent while in Poland by 14.7 percent of respondents). It is likely that the places are used in different ways. In Germany, for example, sport halls and changing rooms are only frequented on a volunteer basis during sports courses, as many students may go to other venues such as local sports clubs etc. to do their sporting activities. However, they seem to feel less safe there. As many as 10.8 percent of German, 8.1 percent of Italian and 5.8 percent of Spanish students do not feel safe in those places (if the analysis is limited only to the category of respondents who are using these places, then the results are: 22 percent for Germany, 30.9 percent for Italy and 16.6 percent for Spain). Students from Poland and Great Britain feel relatively safe in these places. Similar feelings are expressed towards toilets, lifts, stairs and corridors. In these places Polish and British students feel safer than the students from other countries in the study.

In order to characterise more precisely the feeling of safety of female students at the university, an attempt was made to establish whether there was a correlation between the respondent's feeling towards a given place and the years she has spent at the university. Because there are differences related to the proportions of the answers "very safe" and "more or less safe" in the participating countries (with the exception of the ones mentioned above) an analysis was conducted of opinions about particular places expressed by students with a different number of years at the university behind them, comparing the differences between these two answers. **Except for a few cases, a better familiarity with the university, which is a result of more years of study, did**

not have a significant influence on the students' assessment of the safety of these places. With regard to lecture theater/seminar rooms a tendency was noted among German female students towards a greater feeling of safety as measured by an increase in the percentage of students who feel "very safe" in this place combined with more years at the university. A similar tendency was noted only in Great Britain, albeit in relation to being a first or second-year student and a student with four or more years at the university.

In the students' assessments of student rooms combined with more years spent at the university, the students felt very safe. In the UK the students who feel "very safe" are the students in their last year at the university, followed by those who have just started their studies, while in other age categories the number of students who feel "very safe" increases with time. An increase in "very safe" responses was also noted among the German students in reference to their assessment of the cafeteria/canteen. A similar tendency can be observed in the population of Polish students. In the UK this tendency occurs only in the case of lecture theatres/seminar rooms.

What could be the reasons for such a relatively high level of feeling of safety at the university? Is this a result of the insignificant threat experienced in relation to acts of sexual harassment, stalking or sexual violence? The results presented above do not support this assumption. The possible reasons could also be the fact that the majority of these events took place before the students started their university studies or that they took place during the respondents' studies but outside the university and hence did not generate a strong sense of anxiety. Considering the context, it should be stressed that:

- the majority of harassment was experienced "outside the university", with the exception of the data from the UK, where over half the respondents had experienced harassment within "university sites" (see **3.2.2.1.1**);
- the minority of stalking was experienced within the university; between 9.4 percent in Poland and 12.9 percent in Germany, again with the exception of the UK where 30.4 percent students had experienced stalking at the university (see **3.2.2.2.1**);
- the majority of sexual violence was perpetrated outside the university (see **3.2.2.3.1**).

Is it possible that, even if the incidents took place there, the experience did not influence the students' assessment of the university? Or that an institution of higher education is perceived as safe and familiar and this belief influences the assessment of places which are related to the university (in which case the car parks would be the last to belong to this "psychological" category of the university)? Although relatively more incidents in the UK had occurred within university sites, British students felt safer at the university than respondents from other countries, even if an unwanted sexual act occurred there. Only Spanish and Italian respondents felt more unsafe in the situation (see **3.2.2.3.4**).

Despite a relatively high level of feeling of safety declared in reference to specific places at the university, students from all the participating countries declared a higher level of fear in answer to the question: "How safe do you feel when you walk alone in the dark on the university premises?"
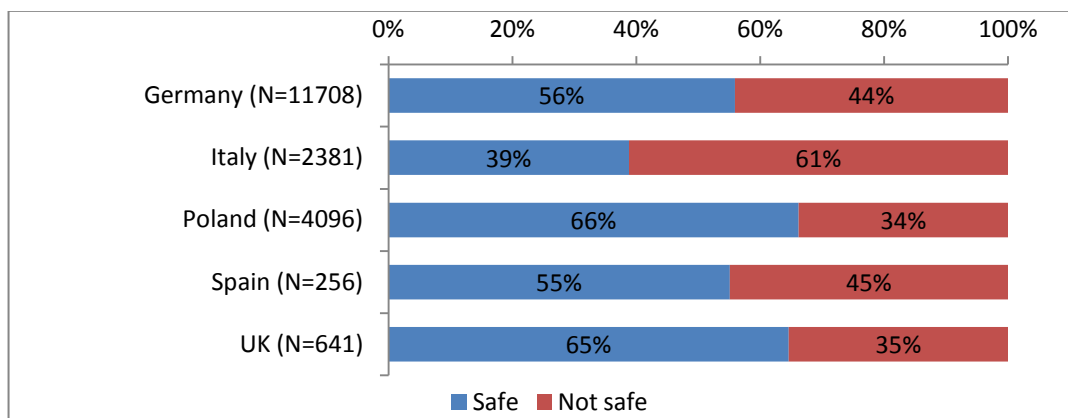
Graph 70: Feeling of safety in the dark on the university premises (reference sample: respondents who go to these places)

With a question asked in such a way, which is analogical to the so-called standard question, the interpretation of results should include all the interpretation-related doubts and concerns formulated in reference to the results obtained by means of this question. The most significant doubt is whether one can really measure a sense of fear by means of such a question or whether other variables are being analysed (for details, see **2. A review of the extant research**). One of the hypotheses assumes that such a fear reflects a stereotype of a violent stranger, something which cannot be verified based on the results obtained in this research. What needs to be underlined nonetheless is that, in our opinion, **this question, which was asked in the context of other more detailed questions about safety at the university, has a diagnostic value.**

Again a pattern is repeatedly apparent in other answers: the least fear is shown by the Polish and the British students, the most by the Italian respondents. This conclusion was not falsified when we extended the analysis by differentiating the statements on feelings of safety into two answers, "very safe" and "more or less safe". The distribution of answers is as follows:

Table 10: Cross tabulation for feeling of safety - university * country (How safe do you feel when you walk alone in the dark on the university premises?)

		Country					Total
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Feeling of safety at the university	Very safe	1105	141	426	30	64	1766
		9.4%	5.9%	10.4%	11.7%	10.0%	9.3%
	More or less safe	5445	783	2285	111	350	8974
		46.5%	32.9%	55.8%	43.4%	54.6%	47.0%
	Not safe	5158	1457	1385	115	227	8342
		44.1%	61.2%	33.8%	44.9%	35.4%	43.7%
Total		11708	2381	4096	256	641	19082
		100%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%

A comparison of students' responses with the number of years spent at the university shows no visible pattern of correlation between these variables. The most fear is expressed by students in Germany and Poland who have been at the university for one year or less (Germany: 45.3%. N=2371; Poland: 37.1% N=1037). In Italy and Great

Britain most fear is expressed by the students who have been at the university for more than one year and up to two years (Italy: 63.5% N=443; Britain: 40.1%, N=152). In Spain the greatest fear was expressed by students who had been at the university for more than two and up to three years (57.7%[8]).

The results from the empirical research confirm that female students generally feel safe, except when walking alone on the university premises after dark. Some differences are infrastructural or cultural, although many similarities were established among the participating countries. In any future analysis, it would be important to take into consideration the reflections about the so called standard question – the impact of feeling unsafe in specific situations on the students' quality of life and reactions in threatening situations at the university.

3.2.7 Support services at the university

The questionnaire was adapted to the specific support services available in each country. For this reason different response options were provided in the different country questionnaires. In Poland and Italy, where universities have no counselling centres and there are no university therapists, they did not include questions about them. The Italian questionnaire did not include an answer "students union officers", while Polish students were not asked to express their opinions about the role of the Dean due to the normative position of this institution in Poland's university structure.

3.2.7.1 Knowledge about and trust towards the support services

The level of familiarity with support services differs in the participating countries. Graph 71 shows the distribution of support services known:

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[8] However, given the small sample size considerable caution should be applied when drawing any conclusions, as this category consisted of just 52 students.
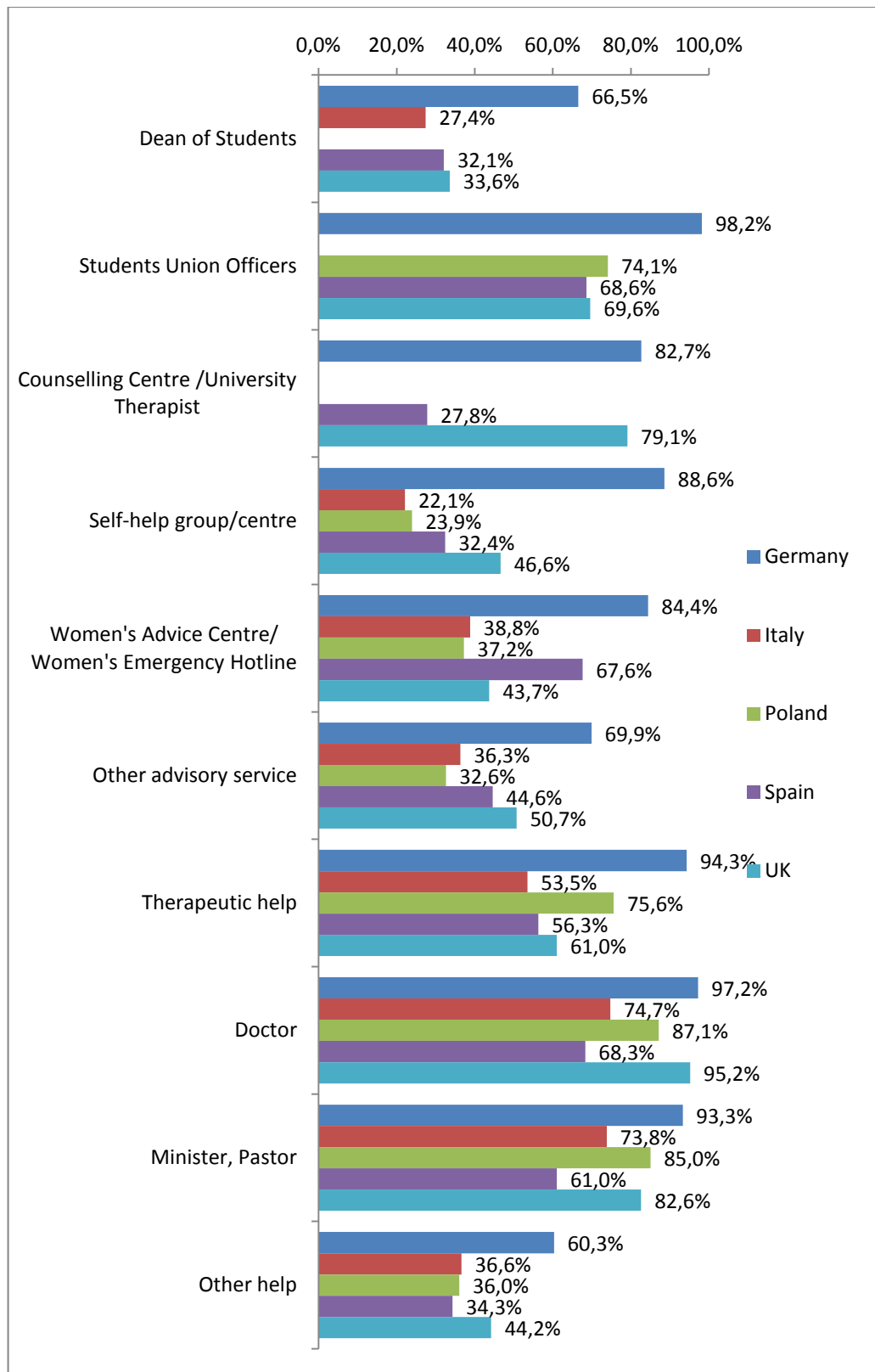
Graph 71: Support services known

The category "know" includes: "know about it and have already used it, "know about it and would use it" and "know about it but wouldn't use it". The reference samples for each response are shown in Table 90 in the Appendix.

The majority of German students state they know the support services listed. The best known are students union officers, doctors and therapeutic help. The least known among them is the Dean of students, which is mentioned by as many as 66.5 percent of German students. Relatively well-known in Italy is the doctor, the minister or pastor as well as therapeutic help. In Poland the best known services are the same. In Spain the best known services are those of the students union officers, the doctor and the women's advice centre/women's emergency hotline. In the UK the best known are the doctor, the minister or pastor and the counselling centre/university therapist. Only in Spain are the best known services those that are part of institutions specialized in providing assistance to women.

An analysis of the respondents who are familiar with particular institutions (detailed data can be found in the Appendix, Tables 91-100) requires a sample consisting of those who have had direct experience with a given institution because they "know about it and have already used it". The distribution of answers could be influenced by the prevalence of support services, their accessibility, as well as the women's willingness to use the forms of support available in a given country. However, based on the data available it is difficult to establish which aspect was most important in the individual decisions. With regard to frequency in terms of women's use of these forms of support, Great Britain comes first. The three institutions mentioned most often for each country (N – all persons who answered a question about an institution) were:

- Germany – therapeutic help (10.8%); doctor (10.1%); students union officers (8.1%)
- Italy – doctor (11.1%); minister/pastor (8.7%); therapeutic help (5.3%)
- Poland – doctor (8. 5%); minister/pastor (5.8%), therapeutic help (5.4%) – identical sequence as in Italy
- Spain – therapeutic help (6.7%); doctor (6.6%); other advisory service (3.3%)
- UK – doctor (22.6%); counselling centre/university therapist (14.9%), therapeutic help (5.3%)

Differences between countries are also visible in answers to a question which can be treated as an expression of trust towards a specific support service. Such an answer is: "know about it and would use it".

With regard to the questions about the Dean, it is difficult to compare answers because in Germany almost twice as many students as in other countries know the Dean in person and/or have used this institution to seek help. When considering the disproportion in answers to the question about familiarity with the Dean, it is worth stressing the lack of trust towards this institution in Italy (21 percent of all respondents, while 27.4 percent know him/her) and in Spain (22.4 percent. while 32.1 percent know him/her), which is not much different from the results obtained in Germany (27.6 percent while 66.5 percent know him/her) and the UK (14.1%. and 33.6% respectively). The data indicate that in the category of students who stated they know the Dean, four respondents in ten in Germany and the UK and seven in ten in Italy and Spain would not ask him/her for help.
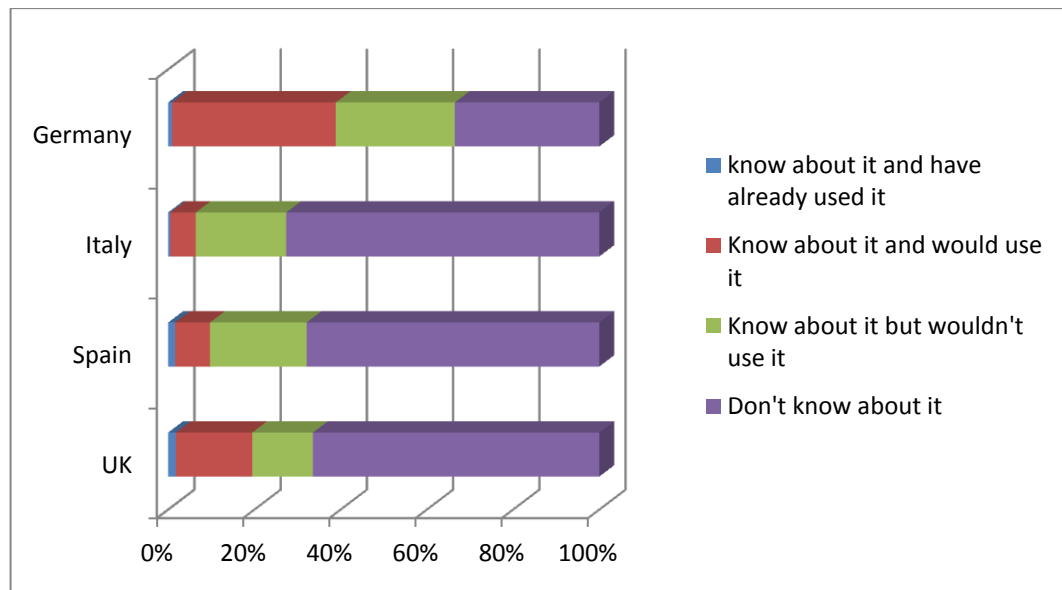
Graph 72: Knowledge about and trust towards the Dean

Compared to other countries, British students showed the highest level of trust towards another support service characteristic of universities, namely, the students union officers. In this case an analysis of data from Germany again showed a high level of familiarity: while around one in three of Spanish and British students and one in four of Polish students stated that they were not familiar with this form of support service, in Germany the percentage of negative answers was as low as 1.8 percent. In the UK, 50.3 percent of those respondents who knew this institution would use it compared to 39 percent in Germany, 27.7 percent in Poland and 16.7 percent in Spain.
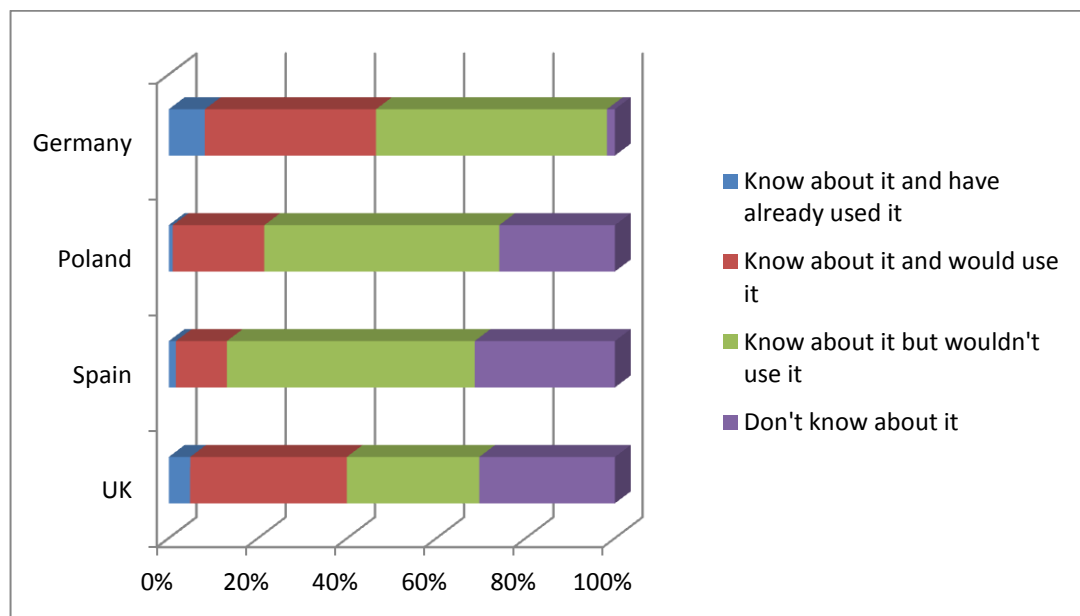
Graph 73: Knowledge and use of the students union officer

Self-help groups/centres are regarded as very effective forms of support service. These institutions are not necessarily part of the university system, although in a number of the participating countries they are (e.g. in Germany). Apparently significant differences emerged in the analysis of the level of familiarity with these forms of support services among German students and other students (seven times

greater than among students from Italy or Poland, six times more than among students in Spain and almost five times more compared to students from the UK). Along with these large differences, the percentage of students who "know about it and have already used it" was quite similar for all the countries, ranging from 1.7 percent of all surveyed students in Spain to 0.3 percent in Poland. This means that in all five countries self-help groups are rarely used by female students. Based on the data obtained, one could put forward the rather cautious conclusion that Italian students are the least trustful towards these forms of support services: 9.5 percent of those who know the institution, while 77.9 percent stated that they don't know these institutions. The highest degree of willingness to use self-help groups was noted among Polish students at 58.4 percent compared with 47.2 percent for British students, 38.8 percent in Germany and 14.1 percent in Spain.

The critical attitude observed among Italian students was also seen in answers to questions about other support services. One of the most popular and accessible institutions offering support services is the doctor. Nonetheless, 31.7 percent of Spanish students, 25.3 percent of Italian students and 12.9 percent of Polish students declared that they "don't know about it" (almost certainly they mean a doctor who could help them with problems connected to the subject of this research, and not a doctor in general). More than half the Italian respondents stated they would not use a doctor in the future (seven students out of ten who know the institution).
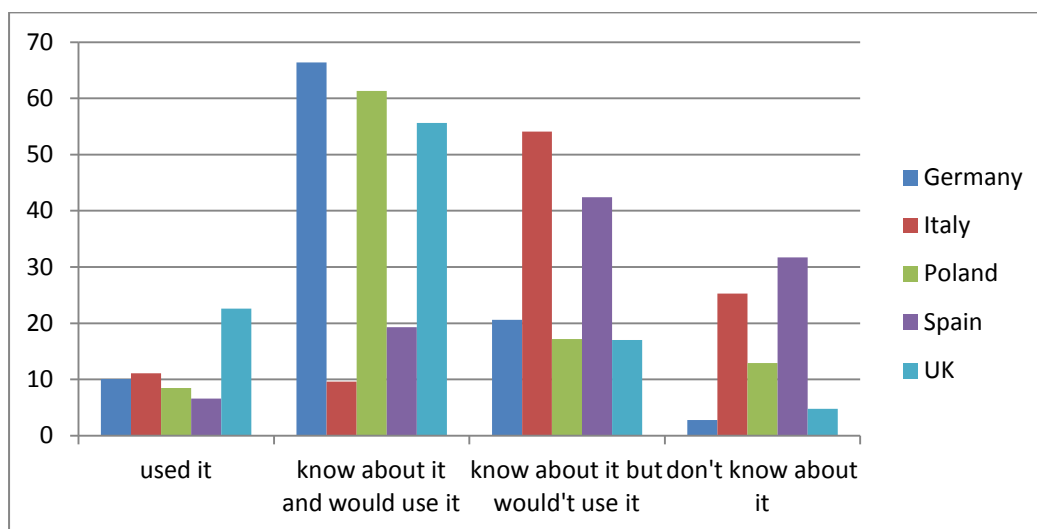
Graph 74: Knowledge and use of a doctor

Differences between countries in familiarity with the institution of doctor (in Spain and Italy the lack of familiarity was seen to be the highest, in Germany and Great Britain the lowest, with Poland in the middle) were not reflected in the responses chosen to other parts of this question. British students used the doctor as a support service twice as often as Italian and German students, almost three times as often as Polish students and four times as often as the Spanish students. German, Polish and British respondents stated with similar frequency their willingness to use this form of support service. Among Spanish and Italian students such answers constitute an even smaller proportion (19.3 percent and 9.6 percent respectively for each of the national samples). The respondents from these countries state more often than the others that they "know about it but wouldn't use it". This may explain an observable barrier among Italian and Spanish students to use such types of support services.

In answers to questions about the use of support services provided by a spiritual leader (a minister or pastor) the dividing lines were drawn differently. For respondents from countries which are stereotypically Catholic, consulting a spiritual leader was most often stated in Italy (8.7 percent of all respondents) and in Poland (5.8%), while in Spain the percentage was the lowest (1.2%); in Germany it was 2.1 percent, while in the UK it was 3.9 percent. The response "know about it and would use it" was most often given in Poland (33.3 percent of all students, 39.1 percent of those who declared that they are familiar with this form of support service) and in Germany (22.6% and 24.3% respectively), and least frequently in Spain (1.2% and 2.0%) and in Italy (4.2% and 5.7%). In the British sample the percentages are 17.3 percent and 20.9 percent respectively.

From the perspective of the objective of this research project it was crucial to examine the dynamics of respondents' attitudes towards these institutions and how they are affected by the passage of time and by gaining experience while at university. An analysis of the level of trust towards institutions as related to the respondent's years at university was conducted for Germany and Poland. In Germany statistical significance[9] was observed for all support services with the exception of the pastor (here the level of statistical significance is equal to 006), while in Poland the same level of statistical significance was observed for students union officers, the crisis intervention centre and the pastor.

As expected, in Germany the percentage of students who knew the Dean grew with the number of years spent at the university. However, while the percentage of students willing to ask the Dean for help also increased with the number of years spent at the university, the percentage of students who did not plan to use the Dean's services in the future also increased. With the time spent at the university, trust towards the students union officer (expressed in the number of students wanting to use this service in the future) decreases while the number of those who are not planning to use this institution in the future increases.

A different tendency can be seen in reference to the counselling centre/university therapist. As students gain more experience in their studies, the number of students who have already used this institution and those who plan to do so in the future also increases. The time spent at the university thus has an effect on the students' knowledge of and the level of trust in this institution. The same tendency can be seen with regard to students' trust in support services offered by the women's advice centre/ women's emergency hotline and self-help groups/centres: as the number of years spent at the university increases, so too does the percentage of students who know these institutions and are willing to use their support services. Studying at university therefore provides a good opportunity for students to become familiar with professional institutions which specialize in providing support services. As mentioned earlier, the largest percentage of German students used the service of therapeutic help, slightly more than the percentage which used the services of a doctor. Attitudes toward this type of support service are distributed similarly to attitudes towards the support services described above.

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[9] Also 0.005 level.

Conversely, as the number of years spent at the university increases, so too does students' unwillingness to use services provided by institutions whose main mission is – generally speaking – to help with the overall organization of studies.

In Poland, the percentage of students who are familiar with the services offered by the students union officer increased along with the amount of time spent at university; at the same time, however, the percentage of students who were willing to use such help decreased. Also, an analysis of respondents who stated that they were familiar with support services offered by spiritual leaders reveals an increase in distrust towards the idea of seeking help from them if needed. The number of students who are familiar with the crisis intervention centre also grew in line with the number of years spent at the university. The percentage of those who will use it in the future also increases for those students who have spent the longest time at the university (more than 3 years). Importantly, this institution operates outside the university system and is available to the public. Hence, in Poland, as in Germany, there is a need for more activities aimed at encouraging students to use support services.

3.2.7.2 Requests regarding counselling

The questionnaire contained a question: *What would you want from a service you seek help from*? The respondent could choose a maximum of three responses.

Evidently **students from all countries felt that "to be listened to and taken seriously" was most important**, although even for this answer different prevalence rates were observed. It seemed to be more important to British (88.2%), Polish (81.8%) and German students (78.3%) than to Spanish (66.2%) or Italian students (62.2). A similar selection of answers was also made in all countries in reference to the following question (the numbers in brackets show the highest and lowest percentages): "to be advised without a lot of bureaucracy being involved" (British students 43.0%, German students 38.4%).

The distribution of responses was as follows:
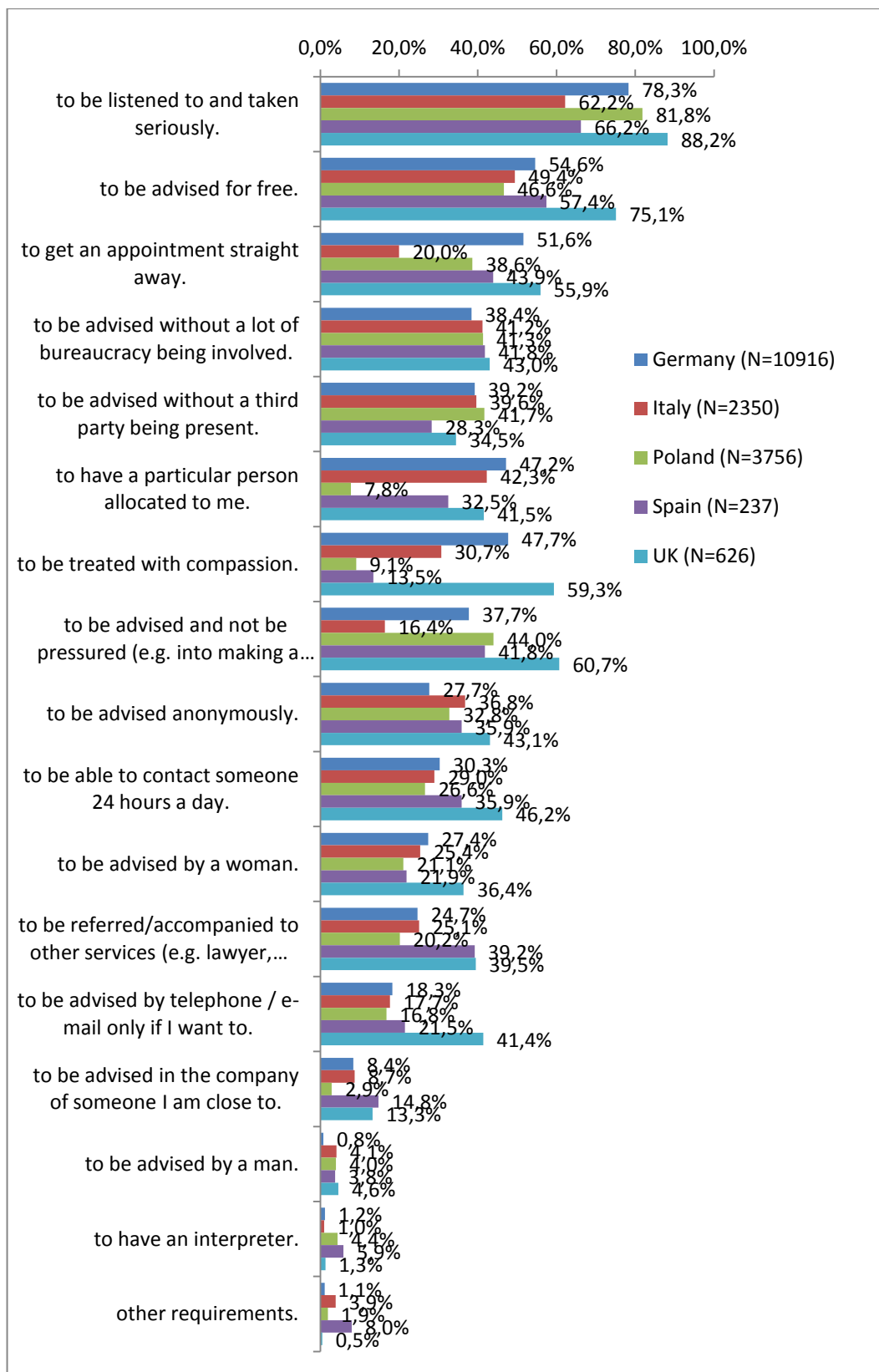
Graph 75: Services – requirements (multiple responses were possible)

The most interesting and possibly the largest variance between students from the five countries was noted in the respondents' stated expectation "to be treated with compassion". The Polish and Spanish students chose this answer less often as compared to respondents from the other countries. The possibility of "getting an

appointment straight away" was chosen the least often by Italian students (similarly to the expectation/wish to be advised and not pressured, e.g. into making a complaint to the police). Unlike the respondents from the other countries, Poles would very rarely choose the answer "to have a particular person allocated to me".

A negative attitude towards bureaucracy is, without doubt, one of the universal social values. It is worth considering whether there might be cultural factors that explain differences between the answers provided by students from different countries. What seems particularly worth exploring is the frequency of different answers provided by British students (with the exception of two answers related to the presence of other people, that is, "to be advised without a third party being present" and "to have a particular person allocated to me").

As with the problem of trust towards institutions providing support services, an analysis of requests in relation to counselling expressed by Polish and German students in different years of academic study was conducted (see **Tables 101-102 in the Appendix**). Based on the above analysis, there was no relation in Germany between the frequency of choice of different responses and the number of years the respondent had spent at university. The only expectation was evident in relation to the responses "to get an appointment straight away" and "to be advised without a lot of bureaucracy being involved" (in both cases, the more time the respondent had spent studying at the university, the – marginally – greater importance she would attach to these answers). In the case of Polish students, the time spent by the respondent at the university played a limited role in the respondent's formulation of requests regarding counselling. Respondents who spent the longest time studying at the university felt that "to be advised by a woman" and "to be advised without a third party being present" were the least important issues.

For countries where the sample size allowed, a factor analysis was performed to identify the factors influencing the choice of answers among respondents who felt threatened in the event of at least one of the incidents (sexual harassment, stalking, sexual violence). As opposed to the analysis of the effects of the victimisation (see **3.2.5**), the same factors cannot be identified in all countries, meaning that the choices were based on different criteria. Results from Germany, Italy and Poland are presented in the Appendix (see **Table 103**).

In conclusion, one important piece of advice can be formulated: the university's institutions should endeavour to improve their image as helpful, especially the students union officer. Female students' familiarity with support services and the expectations the respondents have towards them are formed as a result of both individual experience and cultural patterns, including access to specific forms of institutional help.

3.2.8 Reasons for non-disclosure

In the sample of respondents who had experienced harassment, students in Italy were more prepared to tell somebody about it, while the least willing to do so were students in Poland (for more details, see **Table 104 in the Appendix**).
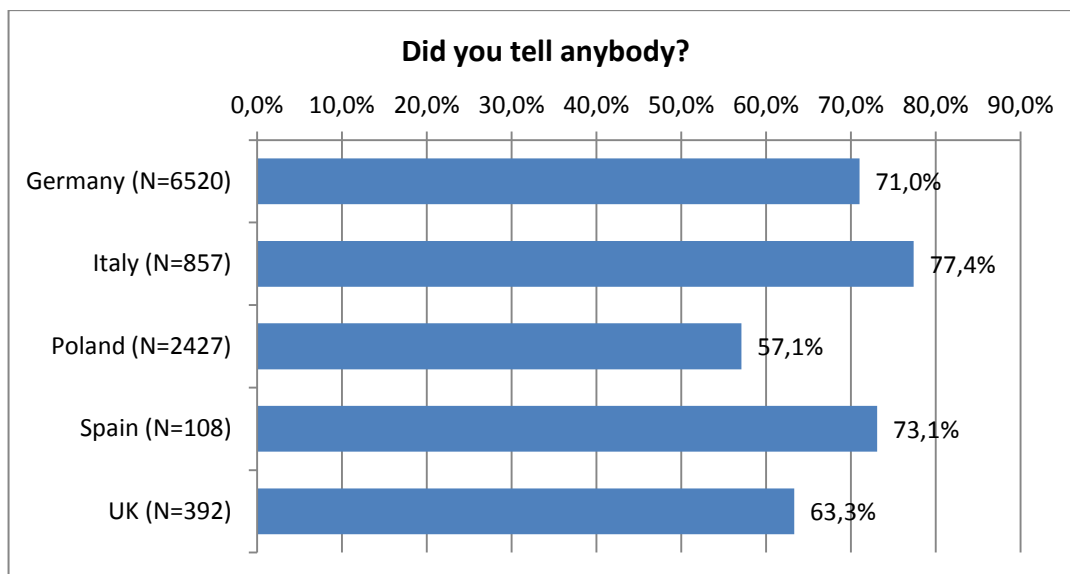
Graph 76: Harassment – "Did you tell anybody?"

As also observed in the case of harassment, students in Poland and the UK were least likely to tell anybody about stalking incidents. Those more prepared to speak about their experiences were students in Italy, Germany and Spain (see **Table 105 in the Appendix**).
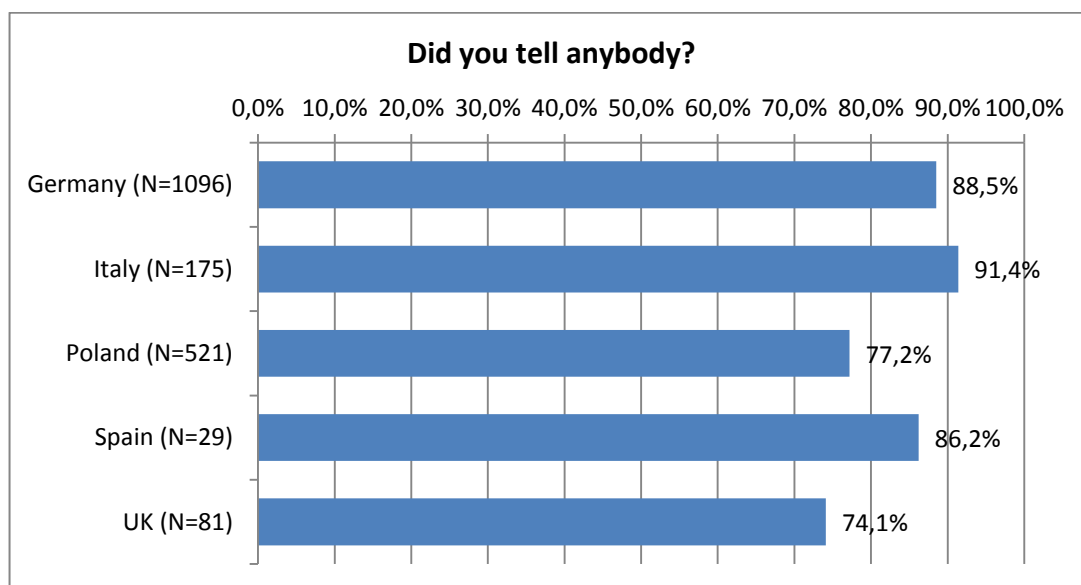
Graph 77: Stalking – "Did you tell anybody?"

Among those who experienced sexual violence, only around half told anybody about it. The exception is Poland, where only 44.1 percent say they spoke to someone, and Spain (Although here the reference sample is only 10 cases. For details see **Table 106 in the Appendix**).
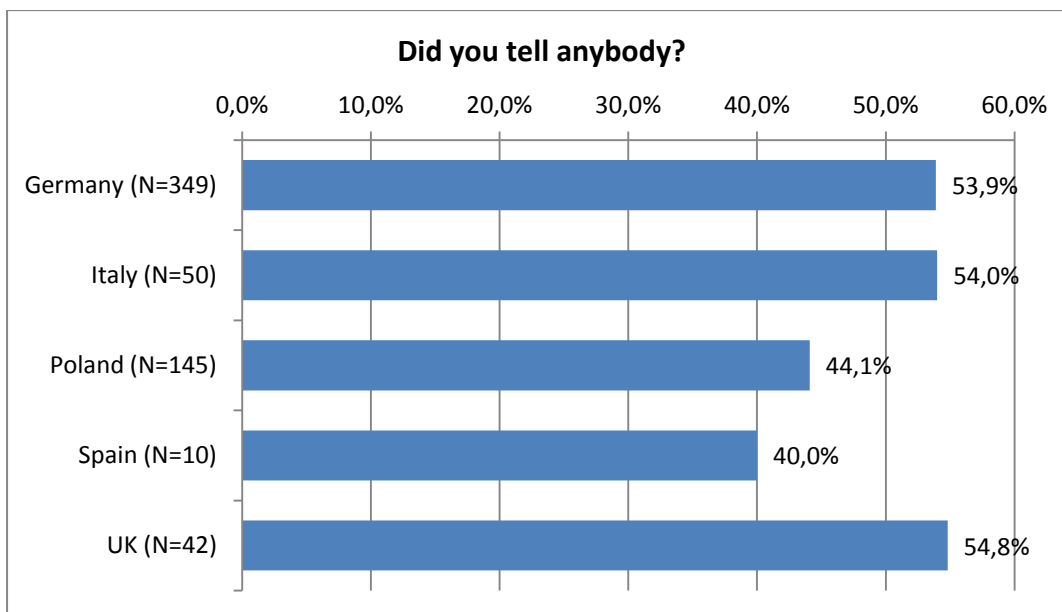
Graph 78: Sexual violence – "Did you tell anybody?"

Polish students most often didn't tell anybody about the incidents they experienced. The closer analysis included only those respondents who felt threatened by the incidents. In these cases, too, Polish respondents most frequently did not disclose, with one exception (for stalking), while British students rarely did. However, the differences between the Polish and British results were not significant.
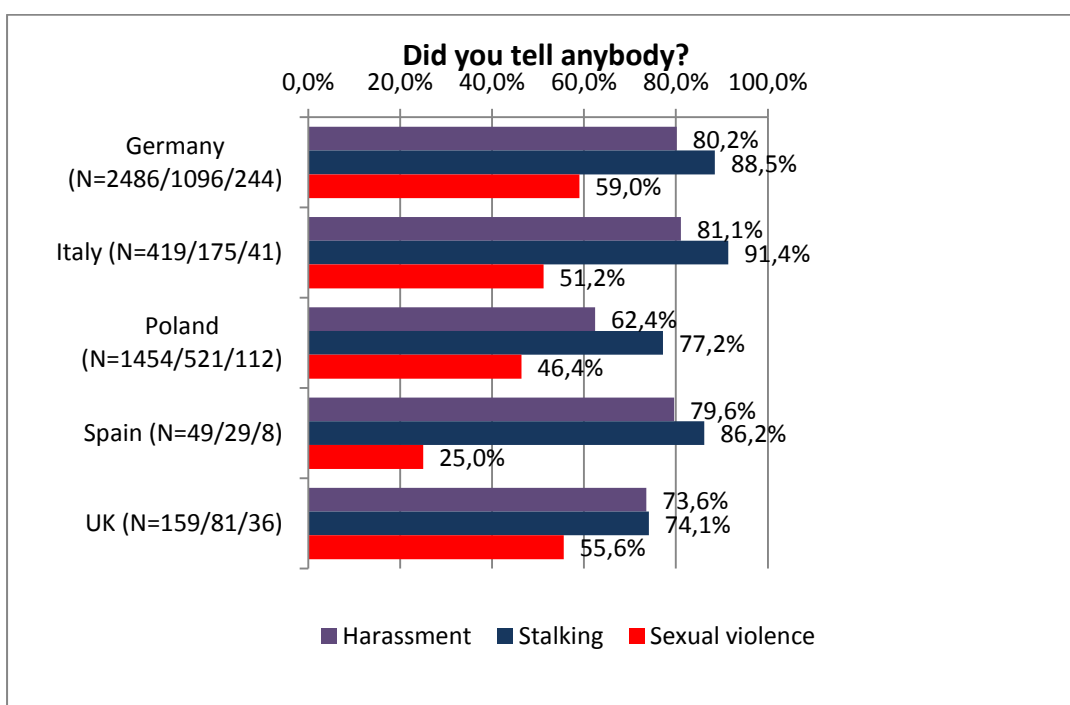
Graph 79: "Did you tell anybody?" (Reference sample: those who felt threatened)

3.2.8.1 Harassment

In all the participating countries there are two groups whom the women inform about harassment: fellow students and people outside the university. **It is a marginal phenomenon to tell either a member of the academic staff or a non-academic university employee**. Only British students do so more frequently. In almost all the countries, students more often tell somebody outside the university about their experiences – it is more often a friend rather than a family member.

The most cited reason for not telling anybody about the incident was the feeling that what happened had not seemed so bad at the time or (the second most cited) that the respondent believed that what had happened was a one-off event. Respondents' assessment of the situation as not bad enough to tell anybody was the main reason (reference sample: those who felt threatened) for the lack of disclosure in Germany (52.1%), Poland (53.6%) and the UK (45.2%). In the Italian sample the most frequently chosen reason was the belief that what happened was a one-off event (41%).[10] **Students judged the harassment they experienced as a matter of little importance**.

In Poland and Germany, the respondents' assessment of the situation as not serious enough was cited as the main reason for disclosure in nearly all harassment incidents they experienced. The most frequent type of harassment experienced was being whistled at/hearing dirty comments: 82.5 percent (N=819) in Germany and 69.8 percent (N=431) in Poland.

Only a few students reported the incident of harassment to the police: 6.4 percent in Spain, 3.8 percent in Germany, 3.6 percent in Italy and in the UK, 1.9 percent in Poland (see **Graph 88**). If we take into consideration only those students who felt threatened by the incident, the number is slightly higher: 13.2 percent in Spain, 7.8 percent in Germany, 7.7 percent in the UK, 5.9 percent in Italy and 2.9 percent in Poland.

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[10] In Spain the number of cases was very small (N=10).
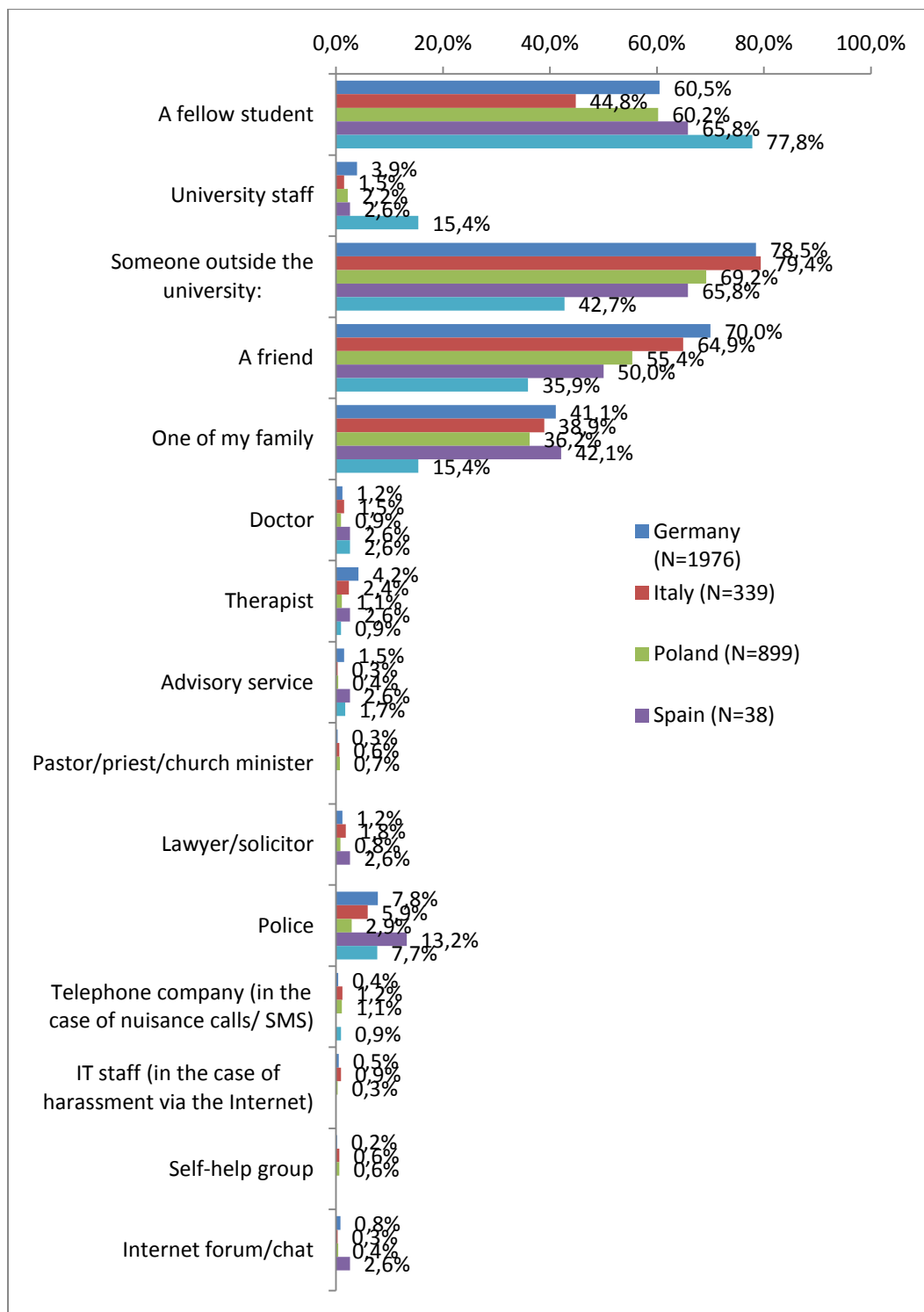
Graph 80: Harassment – "Whom did you tell about what happened to you in the situation?" (Multiple responses were possible; reference sample: those who felt threatened)
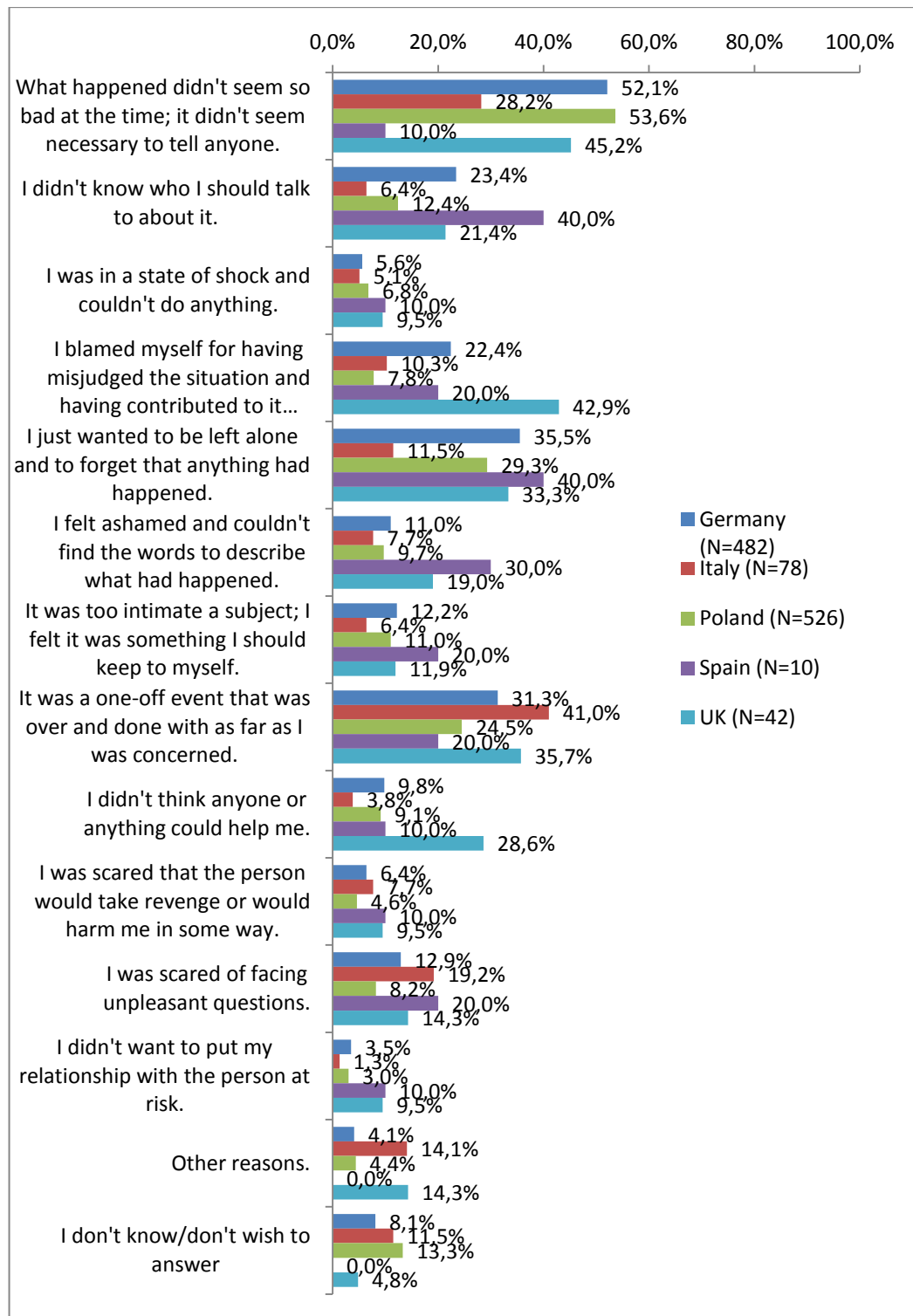
Graph 81: Harassment – "Why didn't you tell anybody?" (Multiple responses were possible, reference sample: those who felt threatened).

The chart shows responses by country (Germany N=482, Italy N=78, Poland N=526, Spain N=10, UK N=42):

What happened didn't seem so bad at the time; it didn't seem necessary to tell anyone.
- Germany: 52,1%
- Italy: 28,2%
- Poland: 53,6%
- Spain: 10,0%
- UK: 45,2%

I didn't know who I should talk to about it.
- Germany: 23,4%
- Italy: 6,4%
- Poland: 12,4%
- Spain: 40,0%
- UK: 21,4%

I was in a state of shock and couldn't do anything.
- Germany: 5,6%
- Italy: 5,1%
- Poland: 6,8%
- Spain: 10,0%
- UK: 9,5%

I blamed myself for having misjudged the situation and having contributed to it…
- Germany: 22,4%
- Italy: 10,3%
- Poland: 7,8%
- Spain: 20,0%
- UK: 42,9%

I just wanted to be left alone and to forget that anything had happened.
- Germany: 35,5%
- Italy: 11,5%
- Poland: 29,3%
- Spain: 40,0%
- UK: 33,3%

I felt ashamed and couldn't find the words to describe what had happened.
- Germany: 11,0%
- Italy: 7,7%
- Poland: 9,7%
- Spain: 30,0%
- UK: 19,0%

It was too intimate a subject; I felt it was something I should keep to myself.
- Germany: 12,2%
- Italy: 6,4%
- Poland: 11,0%
- Spain: 20,0%
- UK: 11,9%

It was a one-off event that was over and done with as far as I was concerned.
- Germany: 31,3%
- Italy: 41,0%
- Poland: 24,5%
- Spain: 20,0%
- UK: 35,7%

I didn't think anyone or anything could help me.
- Germany: 9,8%
- Italy: 3,8%
- Poland: 9,1%
- Spain: 10,0%
- UK: 28,6%

I was scared that the person would take revenge or would harm me in some way.
- Germany: 6,4%
- Italy: 7,7%
- Poland: 4,6%
- Spain: 10,0%
- UK: 9,5%

I was scared of facing unpleasant questions.
- Germany: 12,9%
- Italy: 19,2%
- Poland: 8,2%
- Spain: 20,0%
- UK: 14,3%

I didn't want to put my relationship with the person at risk.
- Germany: 3,5%
- Italy: 1,3%
- Poland: 3,0%
- Spain: 10,0%
- UK: 9,5%

Other reasons.
- Germany: 4,1%
- Italy: 14,1%
- Poland: 4,4%
- Spain: 0,0%
- UK: 14,3%

I don't know/don't wish to answer
- Germany: 8,1%
- Italy: 11,5%
- Poland: 13,3%
- Spain: 0,0%
- UK: 4,8%

A series of factor analyses was conducted to examine the possible underlying dimensions in various reasons for disclosure of sexual harassment in Germany and Poland, but no clear factors were found.

3.2.8.2 Stalking

In the case of disclosure of stalking incidents, the state of affairs is similar to that of harassment. The students most often told someone outside the university about what had happened. **It is very rare to tell a member of the academic staff or a non-academic university employee**, whereas the British students, again, were the exception (22.4%). Only British students disclosed the incident more frequently to a fellow student than to a person outside the university. In all countries, students more frequently informed a friend than a family member about their experiences.

Of the 609 students who indicated that the most severe incident had taken place during their time at university, only 277 said that they felt threatened. Most of them came from Germany (122) and Poland (115). While the low level of severity is a reason for the lack of disclosure in the case of harassment, a degree of helplessness is the main reason for the lack of disclosure in stalking incidents: 36.9 percent of German students didn't know who they should talk to (22.6% in Poland) and 33.9 percent of Polish students wanted to be left alone and to forget that anything had happened (30.3 percent in the German sample). In the sample of all students who indicated that the most severe incident had occurred at university, the most frequently chosen reason for not disclosing was again the low importance attached to the experience of stalking (in Germany 50.3 percent, N= 346, and in Poland 37.6 percent, N= 181). This changed when the student felt threatened.

Some students (more than in the case of harassment) reported the incident of stalking to the police. In the sample of all students who told somebody (see **Graph 88**), 9.8 percent of students in Italy, 8.6 percent in Germany, 7.5 percent in Spain, 5.7 percent in UK and 4.4 percent in Poland reported the incident to the police. In the sample of students who felt threatened by the incident (see **Graph 82**) the number is larger. **The most frequently given reason for not reporting the incident was the belief that there would not be sufficient evidence to prosecute**.
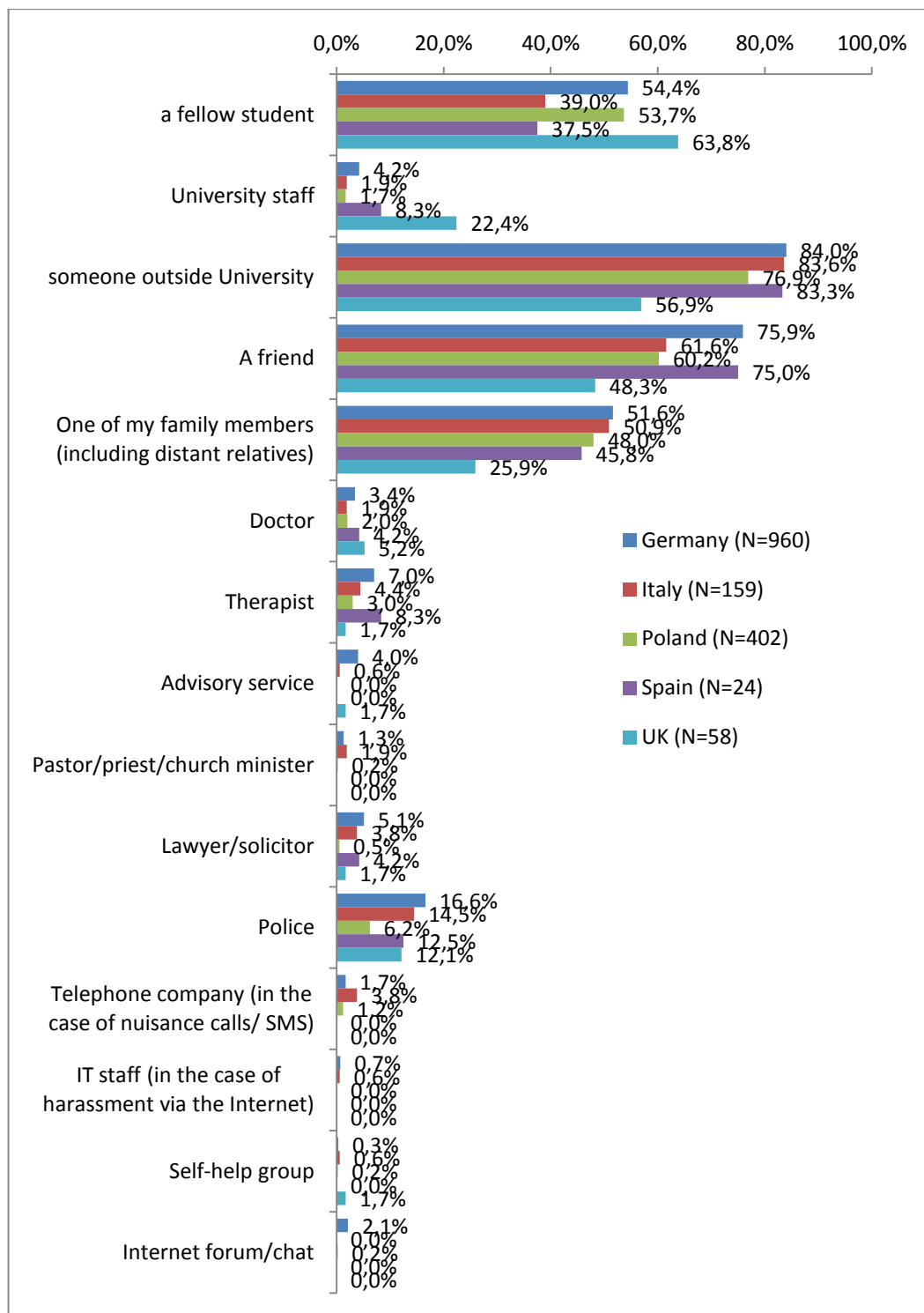
Graph 82: Stalking – "Whom did you tell about what happened to you in the situation?"

(Multiple responses were possible; reference sample: those who felt threatened)

The chart shows responses by category:

a fellow student
- Germany: 54,4%
- Italy: 39,0%
- Poland: 53,7%
- Spain: 37,5%
- UK: 63,8%

University staff
- Germany: 4,2%
- Italy: 1,9%
- Poland: 1,7%
- Spain: 8,3%
- UK: 22,4%

someone outside University
- Germany: 84,0%
- Italy: 83,6%
- Poland: 76,9%
- Spain: 83,3%
- UK: 56,9%

A friend
- Germany: 75,9%
- Italy: 61,6%
- Poland: 60,2%
- Spain: 75,0%
- UK: 48,3%

One of my family members (including distant relatives)
- Germany: 51,6%
- Italy: 50,9%
- Poland: 48,0%
- Spain: 45,8%
- UK: 25,9%

Doctor
- Germany: 3,4%
- Italy: 1,9%
- Poland: 2,0%
- Spain: 4,2%
- UK: 5,2%

Therapist
- Germany: 7,0%
- Italy: 4,4%
- Poland: 3,0%
- Spain: 8,3%
- UK: 1,7%

Advisory service
- Germany: 4,0%
- Italy: 0,6%
- Poland: 0,0%
- Spain: 0,0%
- UK: 1,7%

Pastor/priest/church minister
- Germany: 1,3%
- Italy: 1,9%
- Poland: 0,2%
- Spain: 0,0%
- UK: 0,0%

Lawyer/solicitor
- Germany: 5,1%
- Italy: 3,8%
- Poland: 0,5%
- Spain: 4,2%
- UK: 1,7%

Police
- Germany: 16,6%
- Italy: 14,5%
- Poland: 6,2%
- Spain: 12,5%
- UK: 12,1%

Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)
- Germany: 1,7%
- Italy: 3,8%
- Poland: 1,2%
- Spain: 0,0%
- UK: 0,0%

IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)
- Germany: 0,7%
- Italy: 0,6%
- Poland: 0,0%
- Spain: 0,0%
- UK: 0,0%

Self-help group
- Germany: 0,3%
- Italy: 0,6%
- Poland: 0,2%
- Spain: 0,0%
- UK: 1,7%

Internet forum/chat
- Germany: 2,1%
- Italy: 0,0%
- Poland: 0,2%
- Spain: 0,0%
- UK: 0,0%

Legend:
- Germany (N=960)
- Italy (N=159)
- Poland (N=402)
- Spain (N=24)
- UK (N=58)

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Graph 83: Stalking - reasons for not disclosing ("Why didn't you tell anyone?")
(Multiple responses were possible; reference sample: those who felt threatened).
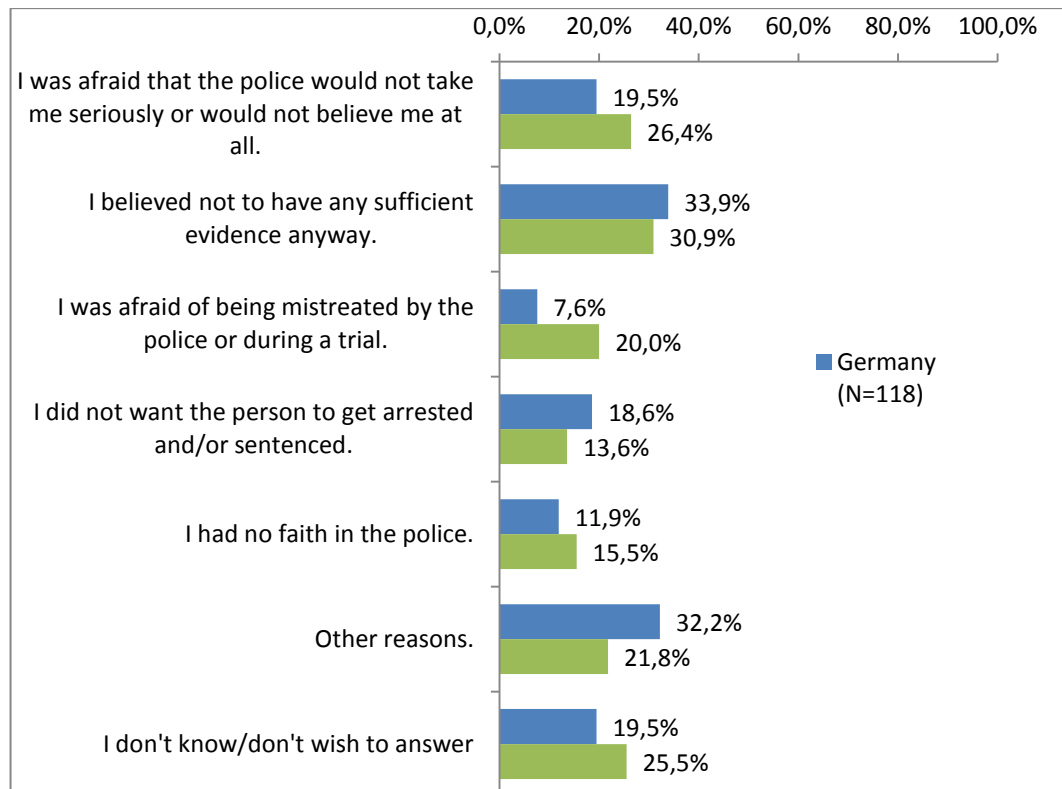
Graph 84: Stalking - reasons for not complaining to the police ("Why didn't you report to the police?") (Multiple responses were possible, reference sample: those who felt threatened)

3.2.8.3 Sexual violence

Female students more frequently told someone from outside the university about an incident of sexual violence. Only in the UK was a fellow student mentioned more often. In all of the five countries, students would more frequently inform a friend rather than a family member about their experiences. Nevertheless, it should be remembered that the number of respondents who answered this question is very low in most of the countries.

The most frequently cited reason for not telling anybody was the respondent's feeling of self-blame for having misjudged the situation (57 percent in the German sample), as well as feeling ashamed and having difficulty in finding words to describe the incident (41.7 percent in the Polish sample, which could be interpreted as uncertainty in understanding and describing the situation). A significant minority of respondents also said that the experience was too intimate (48 percent of German students and 40 percent of Polish students).

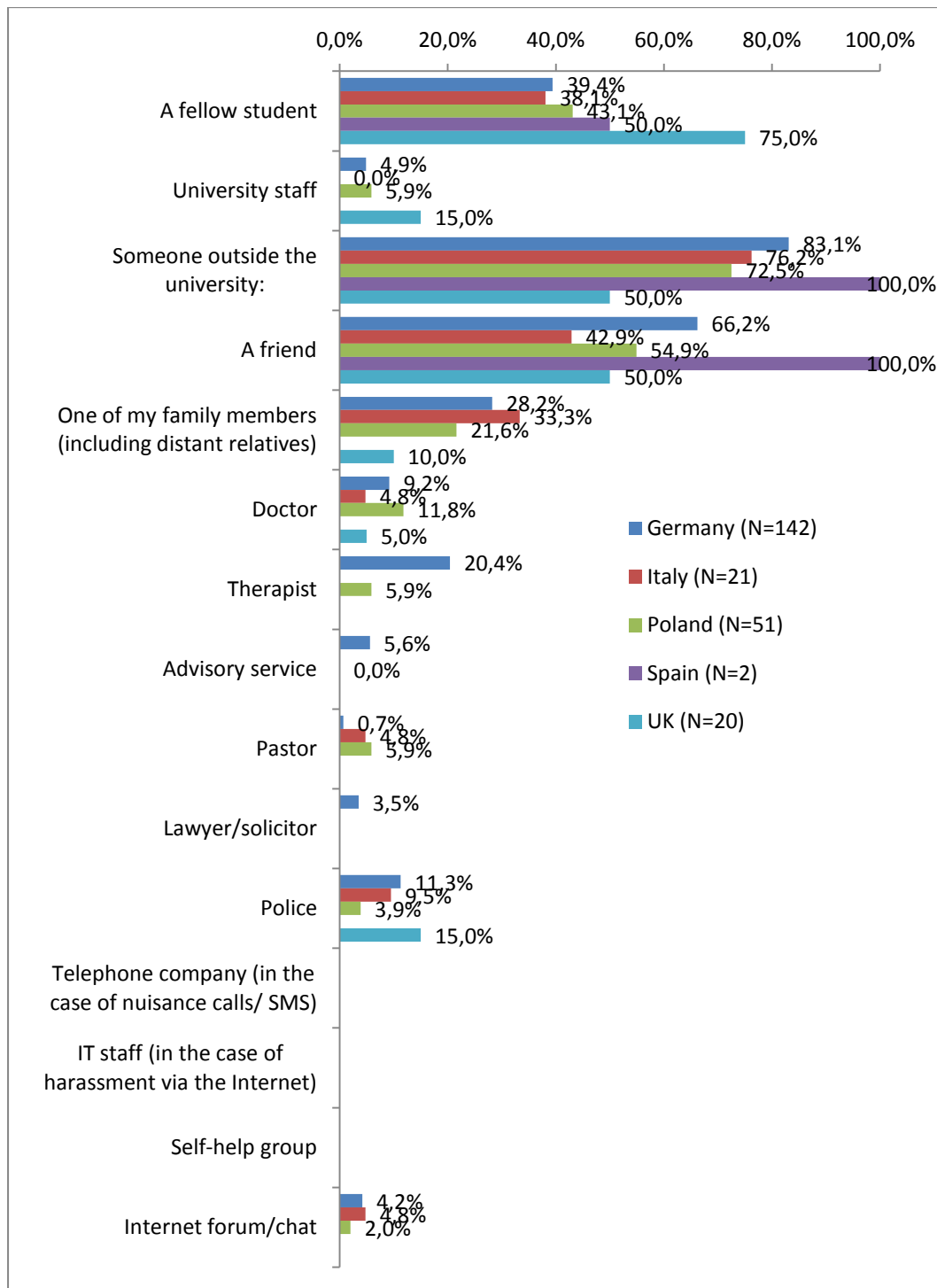**Graph 85: Sexual violence – "Whom did you tell about what happened to you in the situation?" (Multiple responses were possible, reference sample: those who felt threatened).**

Graph 86: Reasons for not disclosing - sexual violence (Multiple responses were possible, reference sample: those who felt threatened)

Chart data:

Reason	Germany (N=100)	Poland (N=60)
What happened didn't seem so bad at the time; it didn't seem necessary to tell anyone.	24,0%	16,7%
I didn't know who I should talk to about it.	43,0%	25,0%
I was in a state of shock and couldn't do anything.	18,0%	23,3%
I blamed myself for having misjudged the situation and having contributed to it...	57,0%	36,7%
I just wanted to be left alone and to forget that anything had happened.	37,0%	30,0%
I felt ashamed and couldn't find the words to describe what had happened.	41,0%	41,7%
It was too intimate a subject; I felt it was something I should keep to myself.	48,0%	40,0%
It was a one-off event that was over and done with as far as I was concerned.	15,0%	23,3%
I didn't think anyone or anything could help me.	18,0%	11,7%
I was scared that the person would take revenge or would harm me in some way.	15,0%	16,7%
I was scared of facing unpleasant questions.	30,0%	25,0%
I didn't want to put my relationship with the person at risk.	17,0%	13,3%
Other reasons.	8,0%	11,7%
I don't know/don't wish to answer	3,0%	5,0%

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Graph 87: Reasons for not reporting the incident to the police – sexual violence ("Why didn't you report the incident to the police?") (Multiple responses were possible, reference sample: those who felt threatened)

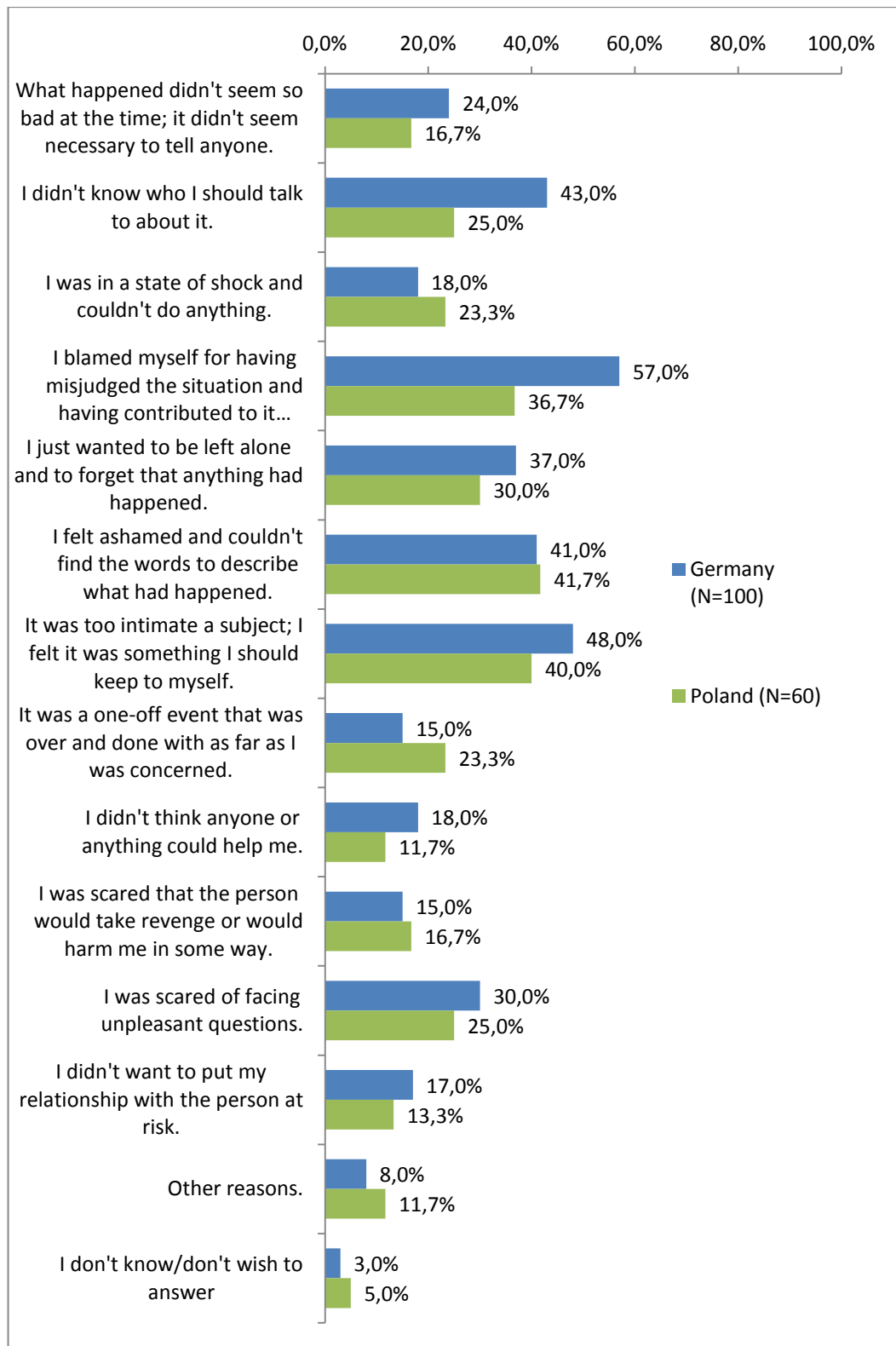Some students reported the incident of sexual violence to the police. However, in most cases, the samples were very small. In the sample of all students who told somebody about the incident, 10.3 percent were German, 7.4 percent Italian, 3.2 percent Polish. Nobody informed the police in Spain and 13.0 percent did so in the UK (see **Graph 88**). If we take into consideration only those students who felt threatened by the incident, the percentages are as follows: Germany 11.3 percent, Italy 9.5 percent, Poland 3.9 percent, and the UK 15 percent. The most frequently given reasons for not disclosing the incident in the German sample were: the respondent's belief that she did not have sufficient evidence, and her fear of an investigation or a trial. Almost every third woman provided other reasons (not specified on the list) for not disclosing. In Poland, the most frequently mentioned reasons were: the respondent's belief that she would not have sufficient evidence to prosecute, and her fear that the police would not treat her seriously or would not believe her. Every fifth victim was afraid of being treated badly either by the police or during a trial.

Students threatened by incidents did not disclose information about the incident to anyone, most frequently because they judged the incident (stalking) to be of little importance, because of a feeling of helplessness, or due to uncertainty connected with understanding and describing the situation, which is connected with a sense of shame (sexual violence). The results of the empirical research confirm that victims of sexual violence are very reluctant to disclose their victimisation to universities or state authorities.

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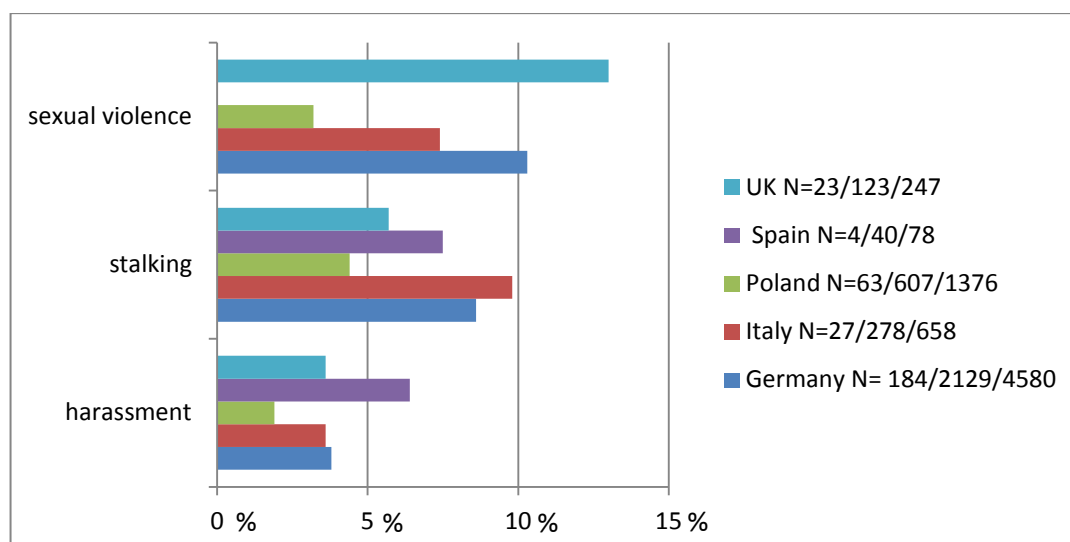
Graph 88: Reporting to the police (reference sample: students who experienced a serious incident while at university)

German and British students more frequently reported incidents of sexual violence to the police, while Italian and Polish students more frequently reported incidents of stalking. Students were more willing to report incidents of stalking to the police than incidents of harassment. The biggest gap in reporting to the police was found in every situation experienced by Polish students.

3.3 Further statistical analysis

When devising recommendations for action, prevention, and response (which was a key goal of the current project) the ways in which women that have been affected by gender-based sexual violence deal with/respond to that experience is of specific interest. Thus, in the following statistical analysis, multiple victimisation and disclosure behaviour were specifically addressed.

Unlike sexual violence surveys which typically have a definitional framework that focuses on criminal sexual actions, behaviour-related items assessing sexual harassment and stalking include actions which are not necessarily infringements of the law or behaviours which inevitably result in extreme fear and sense of threat. In order to elicit information concerning multiple victimisation and disclosure behaviour, the following analysis focused only on data in which the respondent perceived their victimising experience to be threatening. The respondent's subjective sense of threat was addressed in the questionnaire through the survey item: "Did you feel seriously threatened in the situation?"

3.3.1 Multiple victimisation

The following analysis addresses the ways in which female respondents are affected by the three forms of gender-based violence: sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence (referred to as "victimising dimensions"). Examining the proportion of students who have felt threatened by an incident of stalking, sexual harassment or

sexual violence is an integral part of any analysis, although it is recognised that students may have experienced multiple forms of victimisation, and will therefore not fit succinctly into just one group. In addition, sexual victimisation cannot always be clearly separated into specific forms (for example, a situation involving sexual harassment may also constitute a preliminary stage of sexual violence). As such, the following analysis focuses on the extent of multiple victimisations among female students during their time at university. That is, women who have had experience of more than one victimising dimension. The analysis is further differentiated by students who have experienced double and triple forms of victimisation.

The following table shows the frequency figures for each country and for each victimising dimension, in accordance to those students who felt threatened at the time of the incident.

Table 11: Frequencies and proportions of multiple victimisations amongst students

	Number of students who have experienced threatening situation(s)					
	Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Situation(s) experienced						
Sexual harassment	2585	443	1531	51	161	4772
Stalking	1135	184	545	29	82	1975
Sexual violence	246	42	120	9	37	454
Multiple victimisation						
Sexual harassment and stalking	**687**	**113**	**380**	**18**	**52**	**1250**
Proportion in relation to sexual harassment	26.6%	25.5%	24.8%	35.3%	32.3%	26.2%
Proportion in relation to stalking	60.1%	61.4%	69.7%	62.1%	63.4%	63.3%
Sexual harassment and sexual violence	**172**	**33**	**90**	**4**	**26**	**325**
Proportion in relation to sexual harassment	6.7%	7.5%	5.9%	7.8%	16.2%	6.8%
Proportion in relation to sexual violence	69.9%	78.6%	75.0%	44.4%	70.3%	71.6%
Stalking and sexual violence	**122**	**29**	**67**	**7**	**18**	**243**
Proportion in relation to stalking	10.8%	15.8%	12.3%	24.1%	22.0%	12.3%
Proportion in relation to sexual violence	49.6%	69.1%	55.8%	77.8%	48.7%	53.5%
Sexual harassment, stalking and sexual violence	**95**	**23**	**56**	**4**	**13**	**191**
Proportion in relation to sexual harassment	3.7%	5.2%	3.7%	7.8%	8.1%	4.0%
Proportion in relation to stalking	8.4%	12.5%	10.3%	13.8%	15.6%	9.7%
Proportion in relation to sexual violence	38.6%	54.8%	46.7%	44.4%	35.1%	42.1%

Experienced sexual harassment and stalking

A total of 1,250 students surveyed had experienced a situation involving sexual harassment and one involving stalking. Accordingly, 26.2 percent of those who have

experienced a situation involving sexual harassment had also been a victim of stalking, whilst 63.3 percent of those who had been a victim of stalking had also experienced sexual harassment. Poland was the country with most students who had been a victim of both stalking and sexual harassment behaviours (69.7 percent).

Experienced sexual harassment and sexual violence
A total of 325 students had experienced both sexual harassment and sexual violence. Accordingly, 6.8 percent of those who had experienced a situation involving sexual harassment had also experienced a situation involving sexual violence, whilst 71.6 percent of students who had been a victim of sexual violence had also experienced situations involving sexual harassment. The proportions were especially high in Italy and Poland, at 78.6 percent and 75 percent respectively.

Experienced stalking and sexual violence
Of all students surveyed, 243 had experienced both stalking and sexual violence with 12.3 percent having been a victim of stalking specifically. In contrast, 53.5 percent of students had been the victim of sexual violence. The highest proportion of students victimised by both stalking and sexual harassment was found in Spain (77.8 percent), although the very small number of cases (n=7) means that the result should be interpreted with caution. The lowest proportion of stalking and sexual harassment was found in the UK (48.7 percent).

Experienced sexual harassment, stalking and sexual violence
A total of 191 students had experienced threatening situations across all three victimising dimensions. Four percent of the victims of sexual harassment, 9.7 percent of stalking victims, and 42.1 percent of those who had been a victim of sexual violence could be classified as students who have experienced triple victimisation. The country with the lowest proportion of students to have experienced sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence was the UK (35.1 percent) and the largest, Italy (54.8 percent).

3.3.2 General disclosure behaviour

The disclosure analysis focused specifically on those students who had experienced sexual violence. The reason for this focus was due to differences in disclosure behaviour between those who have experienced sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence. For example, for those German survey respondents who felt threatened by their victimisation, 74.4 percent told someone about an incident of sexual harassment. However, in the case of stalking, 85 percent of students disclosed and in the case of sexual violence, a much lower 54.2 percent.

These findings are supported by the wider empirical research. In contrast to other forms of victimisation, the figures on disclosure, and in particular, bringing a charge against a perpetrator, are lowest in cases of sexual violence. A representative survey of German women concerning disclosure rates in cases of gender-based sexual victimisation elicited similar results to those identified in the current study, namely 52.8 percent, although the woman's sense of danger was not factored into this analysis (Müller and Schröttle, 2004). Other studies, whilst only partially comparable for the noted reason, indicate (in some cases) even lower rates of disclosure. A further German study, for example, revealed that only 44 percent of women surveyed from a

cross-section of the population reported the sexual violence they had experienced (Helfferich *et al.*, 1997), whilst in the UK and North America disclosure rates of 43 percent and 42 percent respectively were recorded in surveys with students (Koss, 1988; NUS 2010). A Catalan based violence survey also indicated that 6.8 percent of women living in Catalonia had been subject to some form of gender violence but that only 17.7 percent of this group reported the incident to the police (Government of Catalonia, Department of Home Affairs, 2010).

As the frequency analyses have demonstrated, the majority of students disclose their experiences of violence to close family members and friends. By contrast, disclosure to support services and official authorities is much lower. The German representative study on violence against women similarly identified that only eight percent of those surveyed went to the police in the case of (attempted) rape, whilst just one fifth took advantage of counselling services (Müller and Schröttle, 2004). German students in the present study were reserved about using support services but did utilize them more often than national average statistics indicate. At least a quarter of those surveyed said they had contacted a counselling service (26.3 percent) whilst 12.2 percent went to the police, findings that accord with existent research (Fisher *et al.*, 2003; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007; Koss *et al.*, 1987; Sloane, 2011). The slightly higher rate of disclosure amongst the students surveyed, compared with the national average, reflect observations made by the German representative study. Namely, that although middle-aged women (35-53 years) are more likely to be aware of support services than younger or older women, a higher level of education and an urban living environment, two factors that characterise students' circumstances, have a beneficial impact on levels of awareness for support institutions - which may influence accordingly decisions to access them (Müller and Schröttle, 2004).

3.3.2.1 Hypotheses

3.3.2.1.1 Respondents' judgements of the sexually victimising situation

Many studies on help seeking and disclosure record the reasons as to why respondents did not disclose their experiences of sexual violence. Reasons typically focus on feelings of shame and guilt. In the current study, Polish and German students most frequently gave the following three reasons for remaining silent: "I blamed myself for having misjudged the situation and having contributed to it happening" (34.6 percent and 50.9 percent), "I felt ashamed and couldn't find the words to describe what had happened" (34.6 percent and 36.6 percent), and "It was too intimate a subject; I felt it was something I should keep to myself" (39.5 percent and 47.2 percent). These results again reflect findings widely noted in sexual violence research, namely, that feelings of shame and guilt have a strong influence on disclosure (Koss, 1988; Müller and Schröttle, 2004; NUS, 2010). The following analysis examines the extent to which feelings of being responsible for sexual violence affect a student's willingness to disclose what happened. This was identified through the survey question: "Do you agree that what happened to you was something you also feel responsible for?" The following hypothesis was derived:

Hypothesis 1: The likelihood that a student affected by sexual violence will tell someone about it is reduced if she feels partly responsible for the violence she experienced.

3.3.2.1.2 Relationship to the perpetrator

Research on gender-based sexual violence demonstrates that in most cases, the perpetrator is known to the respondent. That is, sexual violence typically takes place within the woman's circle of friends or family. The nature of the relationship, i.e. whether the perpetrator is known and, if so, how well, has a significant influence on disclosure. Criminological researchers are largely in agreement that the likelihood of charges being pressed is lower when the perpetrator is a known individual (Heinz, 1993; Schwind, 2007). German crime statistics also demonstrate that sexual violence charges are brought against unknown individuals three times as often as they are against perpetrators from the victim's social circle (Landeskriminalamt Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2006). Findings confirmed by other studies (Helfferich *et al.*, 1997; Müller and Schröttle, 2004). Qualitative data from the German representative study identified that women feel particularly guilty and ashamed if the perpetrator of gender-based violence comes from their circle of friends or family (Müller and Schröttle, 2004), whilst the quantitative results identified that almost twice as many women felt partly responsible when the domestic violence experienced involved their current partner, compared to their ex-partner (Müller and Schröttle, 2004). In order to identify whether a woman's relationship to the perpetrator affects her disclosure behaviour, independent of feelings of shame or guilt, the following hypothesis was constructed:

Hypothesis 2: The likelihood that a student affected by sexual violence will tell someone about it is reduced if she knows the perpetrator.

3.3.2.1.3 Drugs and alcohol consumption

Anglo-American research has identified that alcohol use is a risk factor amongst students for experiencing sexual victimisation. In an early North American study, more than half (55 percent) of the students affected by sexual violence had been under the influence of alcohol (Koss, 1988). High rates of intoxication, due to alcohol or drug use, have been identified in more subsequent studies, some of which identify rates of intoxication up to 72 percent (Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007; Mohler-Kuo *et al.*, 2004). Given these figures, one interpretation is that alcohol is consumed more often by students when compared with non-students (Kypri *et al.*, 2005). However, this theory does not appear to apply in the case of European data. A European study on the use of alcohol concluded that: "younger respondents and students claim to have a drink on fewer occasions per month than the EU average" (European Commission 2007. p.10). Looking at the individual countries within this study revealed marked differences in students' alcohol consumption. Britain for example is one of three countries in the EU in which the largest amounts of alcohol are consumed. Nearly a quarter (24 percent) of respondents said they had at least five drinks on a single drinking occasion whilst in Poland the figure was nine percent, in Spain and Germany five percent, and in Italy just two percent (European Commission, 2007). When participants in the current study were asked whether they were under the influence of alcohol when they experienced sexual violence, UK students were the largest group to answer "yes" (40.5 percent). In Spain, a third (30 percent) answered "yes", in Germany and Poland under a quarter (24.1 percent and 23.8 percent respectively), and in Italy 9.8 percent. The European Commission study noted that students consume less alcohol when compared to the overall national average. It may therefore be argued that alcohol plays a less significant role in sexual violence incidents amongst European students, than it does in the American context. Nonetheless, the number of students affected by sexual

violence when drinking is considerably higher when compared to the wider female population. More than twice as many German students affected by violence were under the influence of alcohol when compared with the female population average (24.1 percent vs. 11.5 percent) (Müller and Schröttle, 2004). Due to the current project indicating that alcohol plays a role in students' experiences of sexual violence, in four of the five partner countries, the relationship between sexual victimisation and the influence of alcohol and drug consumption on disclosure was examined:

Hypothesis 3: The likelihood that a student affected by sexual violence will tell someone about it is reduced if she was under the influence of alcohol or drugs when she experienced the violence.

3.3.2.1.4 Location of the assault

Research indicates that sexual violence predominantly takes place within a woman's circle of friends, acquaintances or family, thus impacting on the location of the violence experienced. The German representative study found that in 68.5 percent of cases sexual violence occurred in the woman's home and in 29.5 percent of cases, in another person's home (Müller and Schröttle, 2004).

Research indicates that public places and areas which women experience as unsafe or intimidating are often avoided. For example, a quarter of women indicate that they prefer to stay at home than enter environments they perceive as unsafe (Flade and Rölle, 2004. p.29). Certain women also consciously assess the "risk" to which they assume they will be exposed when entering public spaces (Holst, 2003). Given the paradox that sexual violence takes place predominantly within women's circle of friends, family, and acquaintances, if a sexual assault occurs in a woman's home, it may have a significant influence on her interpretation of the experience. Due to private spaces not fitting into dichotomous classifications that suggest public spaces are "unsafe" whilst private spaces remain "safe" (Ruhne, 2004), experiencing violence in the home, for example, may fail to conform to the stereotypes of sexual violence and impact on the way the victim responds to that experience, including who she tells.

The immediate home environment is the most frequent place in which sexual violence occurs (Müller and Schröttle, 2004). However, there has not yet been a differentiated, place-specific study on disclosure with regard to offence location. As such, there is no research literature available on which to base an informed hypothesis. Instead, the project examined in an exploratory way, how location impacts upon disclosure. Focus was placed on students' immediate social environments, divided into "own home" and "another person's home".

3.3.2.2 Methodology

Due to disclosure having been captured in a dichotomous mode (yes/no), a binary logistic regression model was used to study the factors influencing disclosure behaviour. Such models assume that, in the cross tabulation of target variables and independent variables, a sufficiently large number of cases is available for every response option (Schendera, 2008). Of the students who had experienced at least one fear-inducing situation of sexual violence, only 144 respondents from the largest study group (German students) told anyone at all about the experience (59 percent). Due to the smaller survey samples in the other study countries, even smaller numbers of

cases emerged. In Poland, only 52 students (46.4 percent) told someone about their experience of violence, in Italy and the UK, 21 and 20 students respectively disclosed (51.2 percent and 55.6 percent) and in Spain just two students (25 percent). However, in order to facilitate a country comparison a binary logistic regression was attempted using Polish data, the second largest data set after Germany. It became apparent that the number of Polish cases was still not sufficient to apply high enough numbers to each response option contained in the cross tabulations. Whilst location could have been entered dichotomously into the model, the variables "perpetrator from outside the university" and "victim under the influence of alcohol or drugs" would have had to be excluded. As this would have resulted in omitting two of the four study variables, a comparison with the German results would have been extremely limited. Consequently, the decision to evaluate Polish students' disclosures using logistic regression methods was dropped. The numbers of cases for the other three partner countries (Italy, Spain, and the UK) were even smaller and therefore did not allow for any country-specific comparative logistic regression analyses to be undertaken. Thus, disclosure is only described on the basis of German data.

In line with the hypotheses developed above the following variables were included in the logistic regression model:

Respondents' judgements of the sexually victimising situation:
The question "Do you agree that what happened to you was… something you also feel responsible for?" was answered by 192 of the 244 students affected by sexual violence. Ninety-three students (48.4 percent) reported feeling responsible for the incident.

Relationship to the perpetrator:
In the majority of cases (77 percent) the person involved in the incident was someone from outside the university. Of the 187 respondents, 39 (21 percent) said that it was a total stranger.

Drugs and alcohol consumption:
Fifty seven students (23.5 percent) said that they had been under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time of the incident.

Location of the assault:
A large number of details were elicited about offence location using a total of 22 response options. In order to include the variable "location" in the logistic regression model the response categories had to be combined to ensure there were a sufficient number of cases for each location category. Location was structured as follows:

(1) Another person's home
(2) Public area
(3) "Other" location: due to only 15 students (6.2 percent) having experienced sexual violence in the university context, non-university environments were subsumed under "other location"
(4) My own home

The variable "location" is the only categorical variable to be included in the logistic regression model, with the highest scoring response option (4) serving as the

reference category. Of the 243 students affected by sexual violence and who were included in the analysis, 79 (32.5 percent) had experienced the incident in another person's home, 33 (13.6 percent) in a public area, 63 (25.9 percent) in another location and 68 (28 percent) in their own home.

Having ruled out the possibility of multicolinearity, the binary logistic regression was run using the four independent variables named above. In total, 140 cases were entered into the model which had a Nagelkerke R^2 value of 0.269. Similar to the coefficient of determination R^2 of the linear regression model, this is a measure of goodness-of-fit with the same scale of values [0.1], which allows for an unequivocal interpretation of the data (Backhaus *et al.*, 2008). However, the pseudo R^2 statistics (of which Nagelkerke R^2 is one) elicit much lower values in practice, therefore values between 0.2 and 0.4 can be classified as good (Urban, 1993). The results of the regression analysis are detailed in the table below.

Table 12 : Results of the logistic regression: Variables in the equation

		Regression coefficient B	Standard error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1[a]	Locations			2.848	3	.416	
	Another person's home	.664	.477	1.935	1	.164	1.942
	(2)Public area	-.377	.820	.211	1	.646	.686
	(3)Other location	.053	.586	.008	1	.929	1.054
	Known perpetrator from outside the university	-1.388	.717	3.747	1	.053	.250
	Sense of being partly responsible	-1.726	.397	18.877	1	.000	.178
	Student under the influence of alcohol or drugs	-.246	.443	.309	1	.578	.782
	Constant	2.238	.817	7.497	1	.006	9.372
a. Variables entered in Step 1: V_881_kat_ohneUni. V_872_dich. V_341_dich. V_306_dich.							

The regression coefficient β gives an indication of the direction of influence that the independent variables exert on disclosure. Thus, for the variable "location" public area, known perpetrator from outside the university, sense of being responsible for the situation, and respondent under the influence of alcohol or drugs, exert a negative influence, whilst another person's home has a positive influence. Since no linear connection is described, the regression coefficients contain no information about the degree of influence that the independent variables have on the dependent. The effect coefficient Exp(B), also known as the odds ratio, is therefore used to aid interpretation. This ratio gives the factor by which the chance of disclosure vs. the chance of non-disclosure is changed by the influence of the independent variables. Because this is a somewhat abstract value, certain researchers (for example, Best, 2010) advise against such an interpretation and recommend that predicted probabilities be calculated instead.

3.3.2.3 Results

The probability of a student affected by sexual violence telling someone about the incident was investigated in relation to the discussed combination of independent variables. The most significant results are documented below and in the Appendix (which provides an overview of the probabilities for all the combinations of variables tested).

The lowest probability of a student who has experienced sexual violence telling someone about that incident is 0.25. This probability is produced if the situation occurred in her own home, involved a person she knew, if she felt partly responsible for what happened, and was under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time.

If one of the variables in the model is changed, whilst all others remain constant, the probability that the student will tell someone about their experience is affected. Indeed, disclosure increases by 40 percentage points to 0.65 if the student does not feel partly responsible, and by 32 percentage points to 0.57 if the student does not know the person involved. Due to the categorical nature of the "location" variable and the choice of response option "own home" serving as the reference category, a "no" response to this "own home" option would mean that the victimising incident took place in another person's home/house. This demonstrates that, if all other factors remain unchanged, the probability of the student telling someone about the situation increases by 14 percentage points to 0.39 if the situation occurs in someone else's house. If the student affected is not under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time, the probability of disclosure increases by just five percentage points to 0.29.

When identifying how the probability of disclosure is affected when several variables are changed simultaneously, the following picture emerges. If the student does not feel partly responsible for the incident and does not know the perpetrator, the probability that she will tell someone increases by 63 percentage points from 0.25 to 0.88. If the student has experienced the situation in someone else's home, as opposed to her own, the probability that she will disclose increases by five percentage points to 0.93. This probability increases by a further two percentage points, to 0.95, if the student was not under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time. Thus, the highest probability of a student affected by sexual violence telling someone about what happened is produced if the incident occurred in another person's home, if she does not know the person involved, if she does not feel partly responsible for the incident, and if she was not under the influence of alcohol or drugs.

The biggest influences on disclosure behaviour relate to whether the student felt responsibility for the incident, as well as her relationship to the perpetrator. The location of the sexual violence and whether or not the student was under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time, have a much smaller influence.

3.3.3 Disclosure behaviour within the university context

With regard to prevention and response measures that universities can implement to protect their students from gender-based sexual violence, it is necessary to examine the extent to which students utilize university based individuals and services to address that incident. As noted, study partners' samples often contained low case

numbers preventing detailed statistical analysis from taking place. However, in order to conduct a comparative study on disclosure to university services/individuals, the analysis presented below is based specifically on students' experiences of sexual harassment. Of the three victimising dimensions analysed, sexual harassment occurred most often. It can therefore be assumed that a sufficiently large number of cases exist from all five partner countries to allow for a meaningful analysis to be conducted. Again, only those incidents that respondents perceived as threatening were included.

It is reassuring to note that almost three quarters of students (74.4 percent of 4567) who had experienced a threatening situation involving sexual harassment, and who indicated in the survey whether they disclosed, answered "yes" they had told someone about the experience. Of the German and Italian students surveyed, 80.2 percent and 81.1 percent respectively confided in someone whilst 79.6 percent of Spanish students told someone about the incident. UK students (73.4 percent of whom told someone) were closest to the overall disclosure average whilst Polish students were the least forthcoming in terms of telling someone (62.4 percent).

In differentiating between whether a student disclosed their threatening sexual harassment experience to someone within the university or outside of the university context, the following picture emerged for each country. Multiple responses were possible.

Table 13: Disclosure behaviour to individuals within/outside the university context

Confided in someone from...	**Germany**	**Italy**	**Poland**	**Spain**	**UK**	**Total**
...the university context	n = 1210 61.0%	n = 153 45.1%	n = 546 60.7%	n = 26 66.7%	n = 96 82.1%	n = 2031 60.1%
... outside the university	n = 1551 78.2%	n = 269 79.4%	n = 622 69.1%	n = 25 64.1%	n = 50 42.7%	n = 2517 74.5%
Total	n = 1983 100.0%	n = 339 100.0%	n = 900 100.0%	n = 39 100.0%	n = 117 100.0%	n = 3378 100.0%

"Within the university context" is interpreted here to include academic staff members and non-academic university employees as well as fellow students. Across all the countries the majority of students (59.3 percent or 2004 students) indicated that they had confided in a fellow student. In contrast, far fewer students told a member of either academic or non-academic staff at the university about their experience: only 83 students (12.5 percent) talked to a non-academic member of staff and just 59 to an academic member (seven percent).

In the country comparison, UK students (82.1 percent) confided most frequently in someone within the university context whilst fewest Italian students did so (45.1 percent). In relation to those individuals spoken to from outside the university the picture is reversed. Namely, 79.4 percent of Italian students and 78.2 percent of German students confided in an external individual/service, these countries being those whose students most frequently utilized outside support. By contrast, UK students were least likely to contact external university individuals/agencies (at 42.7 percent).

A possible influencing factor on student disclosure within the university context may be the student's living situation. If a student lives in university owned accommodation they may receive increased information about the support facilities that the university offer, thus impacting on use. As Table 14 indicates, UK students differ from the other partner countries in that almost half live in student residences. This figure is below 11 percent in all other countries.

Table 14: Country comparison of residential living situation

			Country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
	Student residence	Number	229	24	111	2	72	438
		% within country	10.9%	7.1%	10.0%	5.7%	50.0%	11.7%
	Shared flat/house	Number	647	139	316	11	48	1161
		% within country	30.8%	41.2%	28.4%	31.4%	33.3%	31.1%
	Flat/house with partner/children	Number	476	20	150	3	10	659
		% within country	22.6%	5.9%	13.5%	8.6%	6.9%	17.6%
	Flat/house on my own	Number	463	18	75	1	4	561
		% within country	22.0%	5.3%	6.7%	2.9%	2.8%	15.0%
	Other	Number	19	12	23	1	0	55
		% within country	.9%	3.6%	2.1%	2.9%	.0%	1.5%
	Parents home	Number	270	124	439	17	10	860
		% within country	12.8%	36.8%	39.4%	48.6%	6.9%	23.0%
Total		Number	2104	337	1114	35	144	3734
		% within country	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Of all European partners, the closely intermeshed living and studying environment (in spatial and social terms) described in Anglo-American campus research applies most directly to UK universities. The following analysis therefore addresses whether living in a student residence on or off campus[11] impacts on student disclosure.

To explore this research question, an examination (via a country comparison differentiated in accordance to living situation) of whether students who had experienced a threatening situation involving sexual harassment confided in a person/service within the university, was conducted.

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[11] "Student residence" typically means halls of residence but may also include a university owned house/flat. Complete separation of the "student residence" and "shared flat/house" categories is therefore not possible.

Table 15: Country-specific cross tabulation of disclosure behaviour and residential living situation

Country	Confided within university	Residential situation						
		Student residence	Shared flat/house	Flat/house with partner/ child	Flat/house on own	Other	Parents home	Total
Germany	Yes	130	377	185	237	12	117	1058
	%	71.0	69.6	48.6	62.9	66.7	56.0	61.9
Italy	Yes	15	52	2	7	5	44	125
	%	71.4	45.2	14.3	50.0	41.7	45.8	46.0
Poland	Yes	55	151	55	25	8	157	451
	%	77.5	71.6	49.1	54.3	53.3	57.1	61.8
Spain	Yes	1	6	2	1	0	9	19
	%	100.0	60.0	66.7	100.0	0	64.3	63.3
UK	Yes	49	26	4	3	--	4	86
	%	87.5	81.3	66.7	100.0	--	57.1	82.7

The absolute figures in Table 15 differ from those presented in Table 13 due to Table 15 including only those students affected by sexual harassment and who provided information about living situation and disclosure behaviour. Table 15 indicates that the number of cases emerging from Spanish data was insufficient to produce reliable results. As such, this data was excluded from the comparison.

In the UK, Germany, Italy, and Poland those participants who live in a student residence confide most frequently in someone from the university context. It should also be noted that in each country (apart from Italy), disclosure does not differ heavily between students who live in a student residence and those who live in a shared flat or house. Assuming that the people with whom the student shares their living space are also fellow students, this may account for why these participants are more likely to disclose their victimisation to other students.

4. Qualitative gender-based sexual violence analysis

4.1 Focus-group interviews with female students

4.1.1. Introduction

The aim of this section of the report was to analyse and present data generated from the qualitative research component of the project. Data was collected via Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) with female students, in-depth interviews which aimed to complement the information gained in the FGDs, and stakeholder interviews.

In the wave A surveys conducted at all partner universities, female students had the opportunity to indicate whether they were willing to participate in a Focus Group Discussion and if so, to provide their e-mail address as a means of contact. As discussed in section three of the report, this was achieved via an external link, so as to guarantee the anonymity of the student completing the questionnaire.

The majority of focus group participants were recruited through the online survey although at certain universities, students were recruited through additional techniques. These included: snowballing, invitations during lectures, contact with student associations and student governments, and informal contacts (such as making contact with former students). Participants in all focus groups and in-depth interviews were assured that they would not be personally identified as part of the research process and were informed about all aspects of data protection before the focus group/interview commenced.

Whilst the current study was not specifically directed at female students who had been the victim of gender-based sexual violence, inevitably (given the statistics on the prevalence of such experiences amongst student populations), multiple women identified themselves as having been a victim of sexual violence during the in-depth interviews and Focus Groups Discussions (this was the case at Keele University, Bologna University, and the Autonomous University of Barcelona). Indeed, certain students stated that their willingness to participate in a focus group or in-depth interviews was due to their previous experience of being a victim of gender-based sexual violence.

The analysis is organised around several key topics, following the structure of the focus group and in-depth interview guides:

- Definition and different forms of gender-based sexual violence
- The concept of "victim" of violence
- Risk factors for gender-based sexual violence
- Female students' perceptions of safety at the university and in the city
- Perpetrators
- The consequences of gender-based sexual violence
- Reporting incidents of violence
- Proposals for future reforms and improvements

The focus group approach was chosen as the primary method for qualitative data collection whilst the in-depth interview served as a complementary technique for exploring and advancing issues that arose in these discussions. The qualitative method can obtain valuable, rich information which may be difficult to ascertain from quantitative techniques alone (Quivy and Van Campenhoudt, 1992; Vallés, 2002; 1997). It also allows for the analysis of new concepts which the researcher may not have foreseen at the initial hypotheses generation stage. The reasons for using focus groups (Krueger and Casey, 2000) as the primary methodological approach included, group discussion encouraging the emergence of information between participants, and this technique significantly reducing the directive influence of the interviewer, and in turn, encouraging the direct expression of participants' views (Morgan, 1993). Thirdly, it facilitates the emergence of central themes of interest, thus enriching the discursive material generated.

The sample of participants in the FGDs and interviews does not claim to be representative of all female university students, or indeed, students who have experienced gender-based sexual violence. However, it provides rich, in-depth information which allows for a comprehensive analysis of the phenomenon of sexual violence as experienced by female students at university.

All focus groups consisted of a maximum of 10 students and one-two study moderators (or facilitators). Moderators introduced general topics for discussion, asked questions based on the interview guides, and were responsible for the administration and flow of the FGDs. The duration of the focus groups ranged from one-two hours and all were audio recorded. All individual in-depth interviews were conducted by a moderator, were audio recorded, and followed partner agreed guidelines (Morgan, 1997). In total, 167 female students participated in the qualitative research component, 163 in the focus groups and four participants in the in-depth interviews. The distribution per university was as follows:

At Ruhr University Bochum 20 female students participated in four focus groups
At Keele University seven female students participated in one focus group
At Bologna University 63 female students participated in nine focus groups
At Jagiellonian University Cracow 41 female students participated in seven focus groups
At the Autonomous University of Barcelona 32 female students participated in three focus groups and four in-depth interviews

4.1.2 Trans-national analysis of outcomes – similarities and differences

The following section is structured around the key topics contained in the FGD guide in order to highlight similarities and differences across data generated at the different universities.

4.1.2.1 The concept of gender-based sexual violence

When focus group participants were asked to share their definitions of gender-based sexual violence and its different forms, in most universities the majority of female students had a clear idea of what gender-based sexual violence constituted. Indeed,

focus group participants discussed a wide range of different forms of gender-based sexual violence. However, in some cases, like at the Autonomous University of Barcelona, participants showed a disproportionate emphasis on physical violence being part of the rape and sexual assault offence. At Keele University, focus group participants demonstrated a good understanding of the distinctive elements of gender-based sexual violence, delineating the physical, mental, emotional, and psychological aspects. They understood gender-based violence to be a panoply of actions, physical and otherwise, where the intent was to hurt (broadly defined) women and was perpetrated against their will. It was agreed that gender-based sexual violence was any form of aggression and coercion, physical or otherwise, that is based on an unequal power relationship, socio-cultural notions of "being a man" and machismo, and that breaks a woman's sense of self-worth, thus having consequences for her material and psychological well-being: "for me, gender violence is rape, domestic violence, and sexual assault. Also, stalking and cyber-stalking." (FGD Keele):

> "The first thing that comes to my mind when talking about gender sexual violence is sexual abuse or rapes, it becomes something very physical, to force someone to have sexual relations against her will. Harassment is more implicit, more subtle, maybe not so physical and more psychological." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona)

At Jagiellonian University Cracow and at the Autonomous University of Barcelona, the public act of verbal abuse by academic staff was highlighted as a specific form of gender-based sexual violence experienced by students. This typically involved referring to women's sexuality in an offensive and subjective way, stressing superiority over women, and expressing general offensive comments against females: "there was a professor who constantly depreciated female students...I felt insulted but I remained silent." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona) and: "he [the academic member of staff] indulged in very vulgar comments about us, our intelligence, what we should do instead of study." (FGD Jagiellonian University Cracow)

At Jagiellonian University the definition of violence against women that emerged during FGDs was any form of aggressive behaviour against a woman which was perpetrated because she was a woman, and which breached her privacy and freedom. Violence was also seen to relate to stereotypes around women being the weaker sex and who cannot adequately defend themselves. Female respondents argued that through stressing women's lack of capability, they are deprived of the right to fight back, or if they do, are perceived to transgress gender boundaries: "if a woman defends herself, runs away or beats someone up, she is perceived a lunatic". Students argued that gender-based sexual violence should be divided into two main forms: physical violence, characterised by physical acts of abuse, and psychological violence, where the act of aggression is limited to psychological manipulation.

At the Autonomous University of Barcelona and Keele University certain participants experienced **difficulties in labelling forms of gender-based sexual violence, as violence, when the incident had happened to them**. At Keele, the Autonomous University of Barcelona, and Bologna University, several students recognised that they had been a victim of some form of gender-based violence before or during their time at university. However, at Keele University, those female students who had been the victims of violence were uncomfortable ascribing the term "gender-based sexual

violence" to their personal experience, even if they did acknowledge the violent and unwanted nature of what had happened to them. The academic research literature (for example, Boch and Ferrer, 2000; Fisher *et al.*, 2000; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007; Koss *et al.*, 1987) similarly demonstrates the difficulties that university students experience when identifying themselves as victims of sexual violence.

The qualitative analysis identified several **reasons as to why female students who had been the victim of gender-based sexual violence may have difficulties in recognising and labelling their experiences as such.** Most of the violent incidents discussed took place in the context of an emotional relationship and/or a relationship that is presumed to be based on trust and care, thus making it difficult for the victim to recognise the act as victimising. Secondly, because of the existence of cultural myths, victims often found it difficult to look beyond the stereotypes that dictate gender violence is typically physical in nature, leaves physical marks, and is perpetrated by a stranger. These points are corroborated by the Keele interviews where female students exhibited high levels of ambivalence when the perpetrator of violence was known to them: "you wouldn't think such a person [a known individual] could be capable of harassment or stalking" and "perhaps I led him on" (Keele University FGD). In these instances, women were hesitant to term incidents as gender-based sexual violence, and the perpetrators as a violent individual. This in turn resulted in even greater hesitance to report the incident to those in formal authority (Fisher *et al.*, 2000; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007; Koss *et al.*, 1987).

4.1.2.2 Factors explaining gender-based sexual violence

When asked about the factors that explain gender-based sexual violence, in certain universities, female students emphasised the ways in which **women and men are socialised** (this was mentioned at Keele University, the Autonomous University of Barcelona, and Bologna University). Men were often viewed as being socialised into active and aggressive roles within their initiate relationships with women (see Lees, 1993):

> "What places women in a vulnerable position is that society has not taught us to cry or to denounce those situations… what we have learnt from society is to be silent, and this silence is what makes us vulnerable in front of the aggressor." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona)

Keele University participants stressed that university socialisation rituals, such as initiations into clubs and societies and freshers' parties, are distinctly gendered by stereotypes that enable the persistence of violence/assault-related myths. For example, FGD participants described in detail the ways in which women and men are "initiated into university". Seen as a coming of age and rites of passage into manhood and womanhood, Keele participants noted that "boys become men at university". This "becoming a man" takes the form of a) binge drinking, b) drinking games where men are encouraged by their peers to go and "kiss a woman", and c) aggressively pursuing female students. Women by contrast were encouraged to "lighten up and have a little bit of fun" and not complain about such incidents. At Bologna University, certain students expressed similar ideas when trying to understand the causes of sexual violence. One reason offered by students was that gender violence may constitute a male reaction to women's increased empowerment and independence, or more
specifically, a: "possible male reaction in the face of feminine emancipation" (FGD Bologna University).

More generally, female students stressed that **alcohol or drugs** were an instrument, or an aggravating circumstance, that related to gender-based sexual violence - as opposed to being an explanation for its occurrence (corroborated by Keele data). Men who drink or take drugs were not perceived to commit violent acts against women only because of the influence of the substances. Rather, in many cases, the alcohol or drugs resulted in disinhibition and this was then used to justify/excuse the behaviour perpetrated.

At Bologna University FGD participants also highlighted the **role played by the mass media** in supporting certain stereotypes and images of women as sexual objects. This was deemed to justify and perpetuate certain sexist attitudes towards women. Participants in the FGDs at Bologna University and the Autonomous University of Barcelona also emphasised the role played by the mass media in placing undue emphasis on isolated incidents of sexual violence perpetrated by strangers. This was again seen to encourage sexual violence stereotypes and keep hidden the reality that in most instances, gender-based sexual violence is committed by someone known to the victim. Hanmer *et al* (1989) have similarly emphasised the role played by the mass media in focusing public attention on security problems associated with public spaces, consequently neglecting the importance of the private sphere as a place where violence against women takes place. This again keeps hidden those environments, situations, and individuals who perpetrate violence in private contexts:

> "The violence of men is being misrepresented as a geographical problem... transforming the paradigm from fear of men and male violence to geography enables men to be presented as our protectors." (Hanmer *et al.*, 1989. p.187)

In connection with this idea, at Ruhr University Bochum, participants talked extensively about the importance of the **Internet** as a new tool for perpetrating harassment and stalking behaviours. The anonymity of the Internet was seen to encourage and enhance the potential for such behaviours and simultaneously increase a victim's sense of vulnerability.

4.1.2.3 The concept of "victim"

In relation to conceptualisations of "the victim", there were important differences among the participating universities. At Keele University, participants disliked the label of "victim": "it is a label and has negative connotations. It isn't a helpful term in terms of violence." Here, participants exhibited reservations with the "victim" terminology and argued that women want to be seen as empowered and able to deal with victimising situations: "women must learn to protect themselves and know about risks and be ready to confront this on their own." Thus, as one Keele participant noted in relation to the reasons for not reporting an incident of violence to those in formal authority: "by telling somebody you lose the power" and: "I can deal with it myself, I don't need anybody."

At Jagiellonian University Cracow, FGD participants identified certain lifestyle factors that make women more vulnerable to becoming victims of gender-based sexual violence. These included the type of clothes they wore and going out alone in certain areas of the city. At the Autonomous University of Barcelona, FGD participants argued that female university students could become victims of gender-based sexual violence, similar to any other woman in society, although certain myths around

gender-based violence still dictated that certain women were at greater risk than others. These included the belief that working-class and migrant women suffer gender violence to a larger extent than middle-class, educated, and home-nation women. Participants also felt that women with a university education were less likely to tolerate violence:

> "Women at university have intellectual resources to confront these situations, better than a woman with a low educational level. I think women at university have a greater awareness of gender equality." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona)

As certain authors state (see for example, Neame, 2003; Stanko, 2009) gender-based violence relates to perpetrator attitude, stereotypes, and behaviour despite prevention responses typically focusing on the actions that women should engage in, in order to "stay safe". Indeed, almost no complementary narratives are geared towards those who perpetrate sexual violence (Neame, 2003). This often results in women modifying their behaviours and daily routines in order to try and minimise the possibility of offences.

4.1.2.4 Risk factors for gender-based sexual violence

With regard to the possible risk factors that relate to gender-based sexual violence, there were country differences in adherence to myths perceived to be associated with victimisation. At Bologna University, the Autonomous University of Barcelona, and Jagiellonian University for example, students emphasised that a woman's clothing and sexual behaviour may be factors that increased the potential for violence:

> "We must restrain our clothing choice because other people can have different opinions about it even though each of us has got the right to put on what we prefer. If I go somewhere at four a.m. dressed up, I know that I could be heading for trouble." (FGD Bologna University)

However, at Keele University and Ruhr University Bochum, the relevance of clothing and sexual behaviour was not mentioned by participants as a potential precursor to violence. This may be due to the beneficial effect of Gender Equality Legislation and campaigns by the government, the third sector, and policy organisations in these countries to actively break down rape-supportive myths and gender stereotypes. In England specifically, campaigns against rape by feminist organisations such as Reclaim the Night, Rape Crisis, and the London Feminist Network have focused on what are termed "enabling" social messages that actively seek to break stereotypical views which causally align sexual activity and clothing to assault. An example of an "enabling" message includes Rape Crisis England and Wales's manifesto statement: "it is irrelevant what you were wearing, how much you had to drink or whether you were in your own home or out for the evening - you did not ask to be raped"[12]. The reach of such sustained media publicity and active campaigning may also help to contextualise why at Keele University, students in the FGDs used the term "survivor" as opposed to "victim".

Other lifestyle related risk factors were seen to contribute to experiences of gender-

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[12] See http://www.rapecrisis.org.uk/reportingrape2.php

based sexual violence and were mentioned by Jagiellonian University Cracow students specifically. These included being financially dependent on the perpetrator and having an emotional predisposition towards being engaged in abusive relationships.

4.1.2.5 Female students' safety perceptions

Each country analysis highlighted a different perspective on female students' perceptions of safety at their university. However, the conclusions from the current analysis compliment empirical research on women's fear of crime (see for example, Ferraro, 1996; May *et al.*, 2010; Stanko, 2009; 1990).

At the Ruhr University Bochum, female students identified that the university campus contributed to their fear of crime and feelings of isolation. The isolated buildings, the difficulty of being able to orientate oneself, the dark spaces (especially in winter and at night) contributed towards students feeling afraid and their perceptions that the police and security services would not be able to effectively intervene:

> "I often have lectures and seminars late in the evening that take place in the middle of nowhere, so to speak, on campus, where I have to walk a very long way alone across the campus in darkness, and I also live alone in the student residence, and I wonder how I can protect myself...." (FGD Ruhr University Bochum)

The opposite was noted at Keele University where students reported feeling safer on campus than in the city. At Jagiellonian University Cracow, students were fearful of certain built-up areas of the city which were associated with higher rates of criminality. These areas included the train station and specific neighbourhoods which were deemed risky for a woman to be alone in at night.

Students at the Autonomous University of Barcelona and certain students at Ruhr University Bochum detailed self-protective strategies that they would engage in to avoid attacks from strangers. The focus here however was on the potential for stranger violence: "I do not wear high heels if I know I am going to be coming home alone, because I can't run as fast as I can in flat shoes." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona) and: "I mean, how unsafe you feel really does influence the way you structure your everyday life, how you plan your day, whether you will have to walk home in the dark." (FGD Ruhr University Bochum) Stanko (1990) similarly identified that women and men develop self-protective strategies to feel safer and to protect themselves from potential attacks. These routines and behaviours are not typically justified, but constitute customs that women incorporate into their daily lives to make them feel secure. Such behaviours may include not going out late, not walking home alone at night, avoiding eye contact, and taking objects to defend oneself from attacks (keys, lighters, self-defence sprays, umbrellas, and in extreme cases, weapons): findings corroborated by other research studies (Barberet *et al.*, 2004: 2003; Flade and Rölle, 2004; Holst, 2003).

At Bologna University and Ruhr University Bochum, participating students showed concern about the use of the **Internet and social network sites** as spaces for sexual violence. There was the perception that students generally had little awareness about the possible dangers and risks that these forums could expose them to. It was argued

that the Internet was increasingly becoming a space where women could be made to feel unsafe.

4.1.2.6 The perpetrator

When talking about perpetrators, at Keele University, the Autonomous University of Barcelona, and Bologna University, students highlighted that **women are socialised to believe that sexual attacks are perpetrated by strangers, who attack in isolated places, often at night, and involve the use of a weapon.** In reality, the majority of cases of gender-based sexual violence are perpetrated by a known relative, friend, boyfriend, ex-boyfriend or classmate (see Fisher *et al.*, 2000; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007; NUS, 2010; Ruch, 2011; Sloane, 2011; Stanko, 2006; 1990). This context makes it especially difficult for female students to identify and classify someone they know as a perpetrator of violence (Kelly *et al.*, 2005). Similarly, data from Ruhr University Bochum identified that: "if the perpetrator is someone she knows, the incident tends to be downgraded or trivialised" (FGD Ruhr University Bochum).

At Jagiellonian University Cracow, Ruhr University Bochum, and the Autonomous University of Barcelona, participants specifically mentioned incidents of **gender-based sexual violence between professors, academic staff, and female students.** Here, participants emphasised the vulnerability of females in such positions due to the hierarchical relationships established at university and the possible fear of academic, professional, and personal consequences if the student tries to stop and/or make public the situation.

4.1.2.7 Consequences of gender-based sexual violence

When asked about the consequences of gender-based sexual violence, participants in the focus groups and in-depth interviews cited **the psychological consequences** as the most severe and important. Psychological consequences included fear of going out alone, fear that one could be kidnapped, anxiety when encountering aggression, feelings of insecurity, reduced self-esteem, difficulties establishing emotional relationships, and Post Traumatic Stress Disorder: "I've developed anxiety, depression... It affected my sexuality; it took me time to rediscover my sex life, to talk about it [sex]..." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona)

Social isolation, as a consequence of gender-based sexual violence, was mentioned at Jagiellonian University Cracow, Bologna University, and the Autonomous University of Barcelona, especially if the perpetrator belonged to the victim's circle of friends. In certain cases, a victim may be forced to move house, change their telephone number, e-mail address or classes at university in order to avoid the perpetrator. Such actions inevitably result in additional financial costs, especially when the victim and the perpetrator live together:

> "When the sexual harassment or stalking takes place among classmates, this can provoke isolation and rejection, very often friends tell you – ah, you are so hard with this guy he is so nice... and you continue being nasty to him – and this explains why you feel rejected by your own friends." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona)

At Bologna University and the Autonomous University of Barcelona, FGD participants

stressed the relevance of **feelings of guilt** as a consequence of gender-based sexual violence. Multiple female participants who had experienced gender-based violence felt that they were responsible for what had happened, typically because they felt they did not do enough to protect themselves or because they breached gender boundaries (for example, by dressing provocatively, by going out late): "why did I come back home at three a.m. all alone? I should have taken a taxi... It would have been better if I had not gone to the party." (FGD Bologna University)

Feelings of responsibility and guilt help to explain the large proportion of cases that are not reported to official authorities. Indeed, women and students do not disclose their experiences of sexual violence because of their feelings of humiliation, shame, and guilt (Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007; NUS, 2010; Sloane, 2011; Stanko, 1990). FGD participants also mentioned **the stigma** associated with sexual attacks: "the worst thing that can happen to you in this world is being raped, and therefore if it happens to you, your integrity, your dignity as a person fails." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona) Stigma further acts to inhibit the disclosure of violence.

4.1.2.8 Disclosure of gender-based sexual violence episodes

In relation to disclosing incidents of violence, the majority of students (at Jagiellonian University Cracow, Bologna University, Keele University, and the Autonomous University of Barcelona) were **reluctant to report incidents to those in formal authority, including the police**, for several reasons. These included: fear of not being believed, feelings of shame at making public an attack of a sexual nature, feeling that nothing will happen if an official complaint is made, and the process of reporting being considered a long, expensive, and emotionally draining one which requires the victim to speak about very personal sexual issues. Other reasons included perceptions around the inefficiency of the police response, fear of negative accusation being made, and fear of being held responsible or accountable in some way. These reasons reflect closely those previously identified in the research literature (Bosch and Ferrer, 2000; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2007; NUS, 2010; Sloane, 2011).

> "When she goes to the police, she will meet a policeman and perceive him to be a similar type of guy, to be capable of doing what he [the perpetrator] did, that he'll treat her in the same way." (FGD Jagiellonian University Cracow)

> "I don't like the Police and I don't trust them. I got broken into when I was younger and they were very helpful. But I have worked with them since and I didn't like the way they worked and they were sly and backstabbing and surreptitiously taking information about people. This tainted my otherwise very good view of the Police." (FGD Keele University)

At Bologna University and the Autonomous University of Barcelona, students' reluctance to report incidents of gender-based sexual violence included their **lack of awareness/knowledge that such incidents constitute a crime** in the eyes of the law, especially in cases of psychological violence, sexual harassment and stalking. At Keele University and the Autonomous University of Barcelona, non-disclosure also related to students' **confusion around the relationship and joint work between the university security services and the police**, especially when the violent incident took place on campus:

"We thought about calling the police but later on we realised they were internal affairs of the Autonomous University of Barcelona, and they should be resolved internally and not transferred outside unless the university decides it." (FGD the Autonomous University of Barcelona)

At Keele University and Bologna University, many participants would **only disclose incidents of violence to friends and family**. At Keele for example: "many participants reported that if they were ever attacked or assaulted, they would choose and confide in family and friends over the police" (FGD Keele University).

4.1.2.9 Recommendations and proposals for the future

In relation to proposals for the future and actions for improvements, the type of proposal proffered in the FGDs differed significantly depending on the existing resources and services available at the participating university.

In universities with no or few specialised services and resources, like Bologna University, Jagiellonian University Cracow, and the Autonomous University of Barcelona, the main proposals were the creation of **specific services within the university structure to attend to women's complaints of gender-based sexual violence.** Participants wanted easily accessible services where incidents could be reported and help sought. However, certain students participating in these FGDs did not show significant faith in those measures that could be implemented at a university level and argued instead for more preventive measures, rather than reactionary responses (for example, at the Autonomous University of Barcelona).

At Bologna University, female students wanted **more information** on gender-based sexual violence and for all students (men and women) to be made aware of related initiatives. Students wanted prolonged services, not just intermittent public awareness raising campaigns, where a constant production of visible literature (placed on notice boards and on each university website) was available. Bologna University students also called for the publication of a list of services and help centres in the Bologna area to be made available by the university via their online student guides. Students also highlighted that women who have experienced victimisation not only lack suitable places to go to in order to seek help, but in many cases, women did not have the courage to publically accuse somebody of perpetrating a violent crime:

"There are women waiting for ten years before calling the 'free line centre for fighting violence'; this means that they knew about the existence of institutional services, but they did not have enough strength to call it. So a campaign should get to the bottom of this and then aim to fill students with courage." (FGD Bologna University)

It is evident that institutions should assist female students who have experienced gender-based sexual violence by setting up support services and centres that are easily accessible and run without bureaucratic impediment. Services must be equipped with sufficient, sustainable resources in order to effectively respond to those women seeking help. In addition, female students often reported seeking help and guidance from personal tutors who should also be appropriately trained in order to provide an effective response.

Italian students agreed on the need to promote prevention policies and strengthen networks of support. Indeed, all students were unanimously in favour of such approaches via the creation of a specific support centre on campus which could offer professional care and assistance to victims. Students felt that such a centre should provide end-to-end care which included police workers who proactively investigated charges, doctors to provide medical examinations and services, social workers and councillors to provide psychological support, and where possible, emergency accommodation to house women.

A further issue raised by students, especially those at Bologna University, concerned **the role of the mass media in the cultural education of young people**. Changes in family dynamic, related to changes in the labour market, provide the backdrop to the problem. The consequence of changing family structures was seen to relate to an enhanced reliance, or use, of mass media and online social forums which could provide the opportunity for young women to interact with others, but which could also expose them to the possibility of abuse. Students argued that increased use of such technology may relate to feeling neglected by parents, as a consequence of their busy working lives. That is, Bologna University students specifically argued that the search for attention, relationships, and love provided the motivation to use social networks. In this respect, social network use was seen to be an attempt to fill an emotional gap caused by the physical and psychological absence of parents:

> "This generation surfs the Net by themselves in order to search for somebody who will pay them attention. You exist, you publish photos on the Net, you write about your thoughts, you want attention from other people because you feel alone and your parents are never with you." (FGD Bologna University)

Facebook and YouTube are also virtual environments where young people meet and interact and where pervasive use inevitably impacts on young women's perceptions of themselves and their relationships. These new forms of technology also represent a place for communication which is out of the reach and protection of adults. Such technologies often use stereotypical images of women, where their bodies are used for the purposes of advertising, thus disseminating pervasive stereotypes and messages about the function of the female body:

> "It seems like a continuous rape of the female form... a young woman in her underpants in the middle of a stage while the audience laughs at her... makes awful jokes. It is not only a matter of showing your own body, but also, and most of all, a constant, public self-humiliation.... So, I would not be surprised if someone thinks they can take advantage of me... because of what is presented on TV as being absolutely normal." (FGD Bologna University)

At universities where there were specialised services and/or resources for students, such as Keele University and Ruhr University Bochum, students wanted more publicity and transparency around those services. At Keele, FGD participants wanted better communication about the services available on campus. Participants wanted clear and precise information about: "the processes that are in place for women." At Ruhr University Bochum students shared similar views, especially in cases where the perpetrator of gender-based sexual violence was a professor or academic member of staff. In such instances, students argued that the university must not be

reluctant to punish staff or make public such episodes. Ruhr University students also proposed that the university provide information about all existing services, specialised resources, and procedures, to all students in their first year via a student information/orientation pack and that related brochures and leaflets be made available on campus.

Despite the existence of specialised resources and services, students from these universities still **felt that awareness raising campaigns and official declarations of zero tolerance** towards violence were necessary. At Ruhr University Bochum, students also proposed that a team of counsellors be hired and trained to specifically provide support to victims of gender-based sexual violence. These individuals would need to remain attentive to the needs of students from other counties and cultures whose language, religious, and cultural background may impact on the victimisation and reporting process.

At Bologna University and the Autonomous University of Barcelona, FGD participants were united in their suggestions to include **compulsory courses on gender-based sexual violence within the formal university degree structure**. The reasons to include such content were summarised by a students at Bologna University: "if gender crime is a cultural and social problem, the university's task is to contribute towards modifying this ethos... to help move towards social change" (FGD Bologna University).

At Ruhr University Bochum and Jagiellonian University Cracow, FGD participants also proposed **self-assertion training sessions** for female students in order to raise awareness about the nature of gender-based sexual violence and to learn how to respond effectively in such situations. At Bologna University, FGD participants also recommend an increase in specialist **female police officers** which women could report to.

4.2 Interviews with stakeholders inside/outside the university

4.2.1 Introduction

For this part of the research project individual in-depth interviews with stakeholders were conducted (in exceptional cases two or four people were interviewed together). The interview schedule that guided conversations was based on the directives mutually agreed by all research project partners. The aim of this part of the project was to collect data on the opinions of key stakeholders about the extent and nature of gender-based sexual violence at their university. A considerable number of stakeholders from inside and outside the university context were identified and invited to participate in the research study. All in-depth interviews were audio recorded except in those few instances whether the stakeholder requested to speak "off the record".

Answers were solicited from stakeholders on the following questions:

1.   Do you think female university students experience significant problems of sexual harassment, stalking or sexual violence. If yes, what do you think is the nature

and extent of such problems?

2.   What policies, procedures, and practices are currently in place to address, prevent, and respond to such problems?

3.   Who, within the university environment, has/have the principal responsibility for addressing, preventing, and responding to such problems [what is your role...?]

4.   Do you think the current policies, procedures, and practices in place at the university are adequate? If not, in what respects are they inadequate and what improvements need to be made in your view?

5.   What relationships exist between people within the university and people or bodies outside the university in addressing and responding to these problems?

6.   Are these relationships adequate at the moment? If not, how might they be improved?

7.   Who decides whether a particular incident should be dealt with internally or referred to some outside agency for response? How does this happen?

8.   What factors have influenced the way the university responds to these incidents, and the policies, procedures, and practices it has adopted to do so?

9.   What do you consider the best policies, procedures, and practices for addressing, preventing, and responding to such incidents in a university environment, and why?

10.   Is your answer to question nine based mainly or exclusively on your experience at the university? If not, what other sources of information have been used by you in deciding the best practices in this area?

11.   Is there anything else you would like to say, that we haven't talked about so far, that may help us in developing recommendations for addressing, preventing, and responding to these incidents?

In total, 72 stakeholders were interviewed in 60 in-depth interviews. The distribution by participating university was as follows:

At Bologna University eight interviews were held and 11 stakeholders participated. These included: the Coordinator of the Centre of Gender Studies; the President of the Equal Opportunities Office; the Coordinator of Social Workers at the Advisory Centre; the Coordinator of the Psychological Help Centre for Students; the Coordinator of the University Commission on Violence against Women; and the University Guarantor. From outside the university three stakeholders with different areas of Police expertise and a representative from the Women's Advice Centre in Bologna were interviewed.

At Keele University 15 interviews were held and 15 stakeholders participated. These included: the Head of Security; the University Registrar and Head of University Discipline; the Deputy Head of University Governance; the Student Support and Anti-harassment Officer; the Head of Student Discipline and Complaints; the Assurance and Academic Audit Manager; the Head of the Department of Social Sciences; the male Residence Hall Manager; the Student Union Gender Officer; the Keele Women's Society Officer; the female Residence Hall Manager; the University Student Counsellor; the University Chaplain; and Keele's allocated Staffordshire Police Constable. From outside the university the Lesbian Gay Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) Officer and the Gender Officer of the National Union of Students who is the current NUS Director of Research were interviewed.

At Jagiellonian University Cracow 21 interviews were held and 25 stakeholders

participated. These included: the Student Governor; the Director of Student Dormitories; the Chairman of the Student Council for Living in Dormitories; and the Coordinator of the Universities Legal Clinic. From outside the university Police; Judges; Public prosecutors; and Security Experts from other universities were interviewed. In addition, representatives from the City Centre for Social Help; the Centre for Crisis Intervention; the Autinomia Foundation; and the Academia Iuris Foundation were also interviewed.

At Ruhr University Bochum eight interviews were held and 11 stakeholders participated. These included: the Director of the Student Advisory and Counselling Service; the Equal Opportunities Officer; and representatives from the Academic Support Group; and the General Students' Committee. From outside the university a representative from the Advice Centre for Girls and Women NORA was interviewed; and the Victim Protection Officer of Bochum Police. In addition, representatives from Bochum Police Criminal Investigation Department "Crimes against Sexual Self-Determination"; and the Anti-sexual Discrimination and Violence Advice Centre at the University of Oldenburg were interviewed.

At the Autonomous University of Barcelona eight interviews were held and 10 stakeholders participated. These included: the Director of Observatory of Equality; the Autonomous University of Barcelona Ombudsman; and the Rector's delegate for students. In addition, representatives from the Psycho-Pedagogic Counselling Unit; and the Autonomous University of Barcelona Labour Health Service were interviewed. The Ombudsman of the Law Faculty; and the sub-Dean of the Law Faculty also participated in interviews. From outside the university the Head of the Local Police of Cerdanyola del Vallés; and the Director of the Security Program aimed at combating Sexist Violence (from the Catalan Police Service, Department of Home Affairs), were also interviewed.

Each research team identified the most important experts from within and outside the university context who had direct responsibilities for addressing issues of gender-based sexual violence. In certain universities internal stakeholders who had gender-based sexual violence responsibilities were approached (for example, Equal Opportunities Officers, Gender Equality Officers, Student Counsellors), and in other universities, due to the lack of specialist service/authority dealing with gender-based violence, services that were responsible for student affairs and well-being were interviewed (for example, the Ombudsman, NUS representatives, University Security Services). In all cases, project partners identified experts with direct responsibilities for preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence in the local community and approached these to act as external stakeholders (for example, Government Agencies, NGOs, Police Forces).

4.2.2 Trans-national analysis – similarities and differences

The following section is structured around the key topics contained in the stakeholder interview guide in order to highlight similarities and differences in partner country perspectives.

4.2.2.1. Nature and extent of the problem

The in-depth interviews identified a **lack of knowledge about the extent of gender-based sexual violence amongst those university stakeholders interviewed**. Stakeholders did not typically know about the institutional policies and procedures in place that related to gender-based sexual violence and what the strategy should involve if a female student reported an incident of violence. Certain stakeholders felt that due to the rare nature of such incidents (as affirmed by the few official reports made to campus security officials), it was not necessary to create specific protocols to address sexual violence.

At the Autonomous University of Barcelona, certain stakeholders had experience or expertise in gender violence. These participants affirmed that female university students did experience multiple forms of sexual violence, similar to the non-student female population, but that due to a lack of available data on the nature of the problem at the university, the issue remained hidden. However, other stakeholders at the university showed a lack of knowledge about the issue and some stated, that due to the lack of official disclosures, incidence of gender-based sexual violence were rare:

> "I think there were more cases of sexual harassment and sexual violence in the past because the Autonomous University of Barcelona campus was much more physically isolated, you had to come by train to Bellaterra station and then walk down a path….there were even cases of rape. Now there are security issues but they are more about thefts and so on, not episodes of sexual violence…" (the Autonomous University of Barcelona stakeholder)

Furthermore, at the Autonomous University of Barcelona, stakeholders spoke about the difficulties of making information on gender-based sexual violence public. Despite gender-based violence impacting on women from all backgrounds, of all levels of education, and culture, it was considered an unpleasant topic to make public, especially in a campus environment. It was argued by multiple stakeholders that the publicity around such incidents would work against the institution and students would be dissuaded from choosing their university as a place to study. Only at Keele University were issues of institutional reputation deemed irrelevant with stakeholders being united in the view that the university's anti-violence measures would: "always and first and foremost be victim-centred and disregard issues of university reputation in providing redress to victim."

At the Autonomous University of Barcelona and Ruhr University Bochum, several stakeholders stated that despite the low number of official reports of gender-based violence, the incidence of sexual victimisation among the female student population must be similar in prevalence, or even higher, to that found in society. It was argued that events which happen in wider society must also be reflected within universities, if not exacerbated within the university context. The academic literature has argued that women do not typically make public their experiences of gender-based sexual

violence, when compared with crimes that are not gender-based violations (Stanko, 1990). This hesitance to disclose may be exacerbated within the university context where female students perceive the university to lack capacity to effectively address incidents, thus increasing the potential for non-disclosure. Indeed, empirical research carried out with university populations highlights that the prevalence of gender-based violence at Spanish universities is similar in scope to that experienced in Spanish society (Valls *et al.*, 2007). The main differences however were the small number of cases reported to official authorities within the university context (Valls *et al.*, 2007).

At Ruhr University Bochum, the majority of stakeholders thought that most incidents of gender-based sexual violence took place in the context of a relationship. This was seen to account for why few women reported to the police or utilized related services/agencies and instead turned to their relatives and/or friends for support. At Keele University, most stakeholders agreed that a proportion of female students experience different forms of gender-based sexual violence and that only a minority of these women seek help from the existing services at the university. Stakeholders felt that this lack of disclosure related to multiple factors including feelings of shame, fear of the reporting process, fear of negative peer assessment, alcohol intoxication at the time of the assault, and familiarity with the perpetrator. Keele stakeholders also noted that lack of disclosure subsequently affected the university's capacity to recognise and confront the problem of sexual violence.

At Jagiellonian University Cracow, most stakeholders again thought that the incidence of sexual violence amongst the female university population would be similar to the rates found within the general population, although as with the other participating universities, all stakeholders recognised the lack of available data that could effectively estimate the incidence of such violence. As one Jagiellonian University stakeholder stated: "I cannot estimate the scale of the problem but for sure it exists and it is not being reported. It is a problem, a dimension of a cultural problem, always present." Similarly, a Keele stakeholder noted:

> "In my thirteen years at Keele there haven't been many examples of it. I suspect the possibility is that we never find out about such incidents, but in the context of those that we've had to deal with, I can't remember more than two or three in thirteen years at this university."

Stakeholders at Jagiellonian University highlighted similar reasons to those mentioned by the participating universities in explaining why women may fail to report violence including feelings of shame, fear of revenge, a lack of faith in police competence, and fear of the judicial procedure. These findings sit alongside statistics that suggest only around 10 percent of sexual offences in wider society are officially reported (Bosch and Ferrer, 200).

At Bologna University, the majority of stakeholders admitted to a lack of knowledge about the incidence of gender-based sexual violence amongst students and their lack of official statistics on the issue. While Bologna University stakeholders stated that they thought the nature and incidence of gender-based sexual violence amongst students would be the same as that found in the general population, they argued that Bologna University was not a more dangerous institution than other Italian universities. There was a shared belief amongst stakeholders that living away from

family for the first time made students increasingly vulnerable to becoming a victim of gender-based sexual violence – possibly due to increased freedom and the potential for meeting new people.

4.2.2.2 Preventive and response measures

The in-depth interviews highlighted that **Keele University and Ruhr University Bochum had related prevention and response measures/procedures that could be utilized in addressing gender-based sexual violence within their university.** Again, the lack of official data on the issue, and consequent invisibility of a problem, made it difficult for certain university authorities to adopt measures to prevent and intervene in instances of violence. The related gender-based prevention and response measures operating at Keele University and the Ruhr University Bochum were largely the consequence of a wider commitment to secure gender equality on the campus and to prevent any form of sex discrimination at the university, in accordance with national legislation.

At Ruhr University, whilst there were no specific services and/or procedures for addressing gender-based sexual violence, or gender violence more generally, the existence of resources devoted to protecting students' well-being and securing gender equality within the university setting provided useful resources that those who had experienced gender-based violence could utilize. For example, the Equal Opportunities Officer provided protection to university employees and students from psychological and physical discrimination, especially sexual harassment and violence. The Student Advisory and Counselling Service also provided one-to-one psychological counselling and therapeutic assistance to students. The General Students' Committee which represents Ruhr University students, and its Women/Lesbian Department, also provided a contact point for all female students experiencing discrimination and sexual violence. Ruhr University was also planning to establish a complaints office for sexualised forms of harassment, as recommended by the general Equal Treatment Act passed in Germany in 2006.

At Keele University there were several policies specifically addressing gender-based sexual violence on campus. The existing university disciplinary policy could impose punishment on students and staff members involved in cases of gender-based sexual violence, whilst there was also a violence prevention strategy governed by the university authorities. Other resources included the students' union, the police, and therapeutic and pastoral personnel who were premised to provide information to students about safety and actions that could be taken if violence was experienced. Keele University also had a crime prevention strategy which was coordinated by the Head of Security, Residence Managers, and the students' union in collaboration with Keele's allocated Staffordshire Police Constable and Police Community Support Officers (one of whom was a female officer). Lastly, Keele University had a clearly defined (although not well advertised) post-incident policy. This was implemented by numerous stakeholders within and outside the university although there was no coordinated official line of action amongst stakeholders. In addition, knowledge sharing mechanisms were typically stronger in principle than in practice. All of the policies and procedures at Keele were governed by the university's Gender Equality Scheme, which as a publically funded university, it is required to promulgate and comply with by law.

At the Autonomous University of Barcelona, Bologna University, and Jagiellonian University Cracow there were no specific measures or procedures to prevent and intervene in cases of gender-based sexual violence. Again however, there were certain resources and structures dedicated to securing the well-being of the students at the university that could be used to prevent and intervene in cases of sexual violence. For example, at Bologna University, the university Ethical Code Guidelines (which were adopted in 2006) were in operation, and in principle, guaranteed university staff, students, and professors the right to work in a safe environment where interpersonal relationships were underpinned by equality and reciprocal respect. The implementation of the Ethical Code at Bologna had led to the creation of the Confidential Counsellor to assist and support victims of violence. At Bologna there was also the Guarantor of the university whose skills could be utilized in cases of gender-based violence. The Guarantor however had not been notified of any gender-based sexual violence incident over the previous two years. There were also certain initiatives due to the Equal Opportunities Committee at Bologna University, to establish cooperative links and network between NGOs and women's associations in Bologna city. These could also provide dedicated support to female victims of gender-based sexual violence.

At Jagiellonian University Cracow, in accordance to Higher Education Law, student safety at the university was the responsibility of the Rector. The main student organisation at the university was the Students' Government which was responsible for representing student interests. They would also be capable of helping students address incidents of gender-based sexual violence, but did not have specialised procedures or personnel to do so. There were no legal or psychological counselling services for students at Jagiellonian University. The only form of legal advice available to students was through the University Legal Counsel where law students provide help to people experiencing economic difficulties. The four dorms offering accommodation to the university also had a concierge and a security guard, but again, there was no specific procedure in place to guide a response if a student reported an incident of gender-based sexual violence to them.

At the Autonomous University of Barcelona there were no specific procedures on how to deal with cases of gender-based sexual violence with all stakeholders stating that they would not know how to respond to these incidents. Only the police authorities recognised that a student perpetrating a victimising behaviour (such as an incident of sexual violence against a classmate) would constitute a breach of the universities Disciplinary Regime (and an infringement in legal terms) and at the same time, constitute a crime under penal legislation. At the university there was certain tension between the autonomy of the institution and their responsibility for addressing crimes on campus. University regulations dictated that the police should be informed if a crime takes place at the university, and in the case of gender violence, the protocol "Cerdanyola del Vallés" will be initiated to ensure that the victim can access organisations such as the police, medical services, social services, and psychological support. However, university authorities were reported to be reluctant to inform the police of crimes on campus because their presence caused concern and suspicion amongst students and the wider community. The only existing measures at the university that could specifically address gender-based sexual violence included the services carried out by the Psycho-Pedagogic Counselling Unit including their awareness raising program "Let's talk about gender".

4.2.2.3 Factors influencing university response

At certain universities **there was a general lack of awareness amongst stakeholders about the responsibility of the university to address incidents of gender-based sexual violence that took place amongst their students and staff**. This was the case at Bologna University, the Autonomous University of Barcelona, and Jagiellonian University Cracow. Similar arguments arose to explain this lack of awareness and again included stakeholders not having available statistics to inform their understanding of the extent and importance of the problem. As previously discussed, the small number of violence-related incidents reported to the university implicated that gender-based sexual violence was not a significant problem on campus that demand the university to respond.

Indeed, at Bologna University, despite the existence of the Ethical Code, the university Guarantor, and the Confidential Counsellor, which all provided employees and students with some degree of protection against gender-based sexual violence, the lack of official reports suggested that there was not a significant problem with violence at the university. Stakeholders at Bologna University offered different explanations for this lack of reporting and lack of official university response including cultural and gender factors, a lack of available funds, and the idea that "social matters" were secondary to educational issues when investing university funds:

> "The main problem for the person relates to gender, the fact that Italy, in spite of the great progress made, is still characterised by the persistence of a strong and traditional masculine culture which limits the will to report these crimes." (Bologna University stakeholder)

At Bologna, the university stakeholders argued that the main responsibility for ensuring the availability of prevention and response measures, related to gender-based violence, would typically belong to the Ombudsman of the university. This was an individual whom all students, professors, and teaching staff could access. Whilst it was felt that further steps should be taken to address the issue of gender-based sexual violence, certain important provisions were already perceived to be in place at the university:

> "In accordance with the application of the university Moral Code Guidelines, we have worked out a behavioural code for preventing and safeguarding against sexual and moral harassment and all students have been e-mailed and informed. The written communication has been signed by the Chancellor and reads as follows: 'The University feels it is fundamental to guarantee university staff, students, and professors the right to work in a safe environment where interpersonal relationships are based on equality and reciprocal respect." (Bologna University stakeholder)

At the Autonomous University of Barcelona, stakeholders highlighted specific obstacles in dealing with gender-based sexual violence which influenced the university's response to such cases. The lack of available measures and procedures were seen to relate to multiple factors, the primary one being tension around the university's autonomy. The anonymity of the university refers to the independence of the public university from any wider political or administrative power. It was created to

ensure that university institutions had sufficient freedom to achieve their cultural and educational missions. The autonomy of the university guarantees that the institution remains a centre of free thinking, without pressure or interference from political authorities. Consequently, the police force cannot intervene in university life unless the highest authority of the university, the Rector, requires their presence on campus, or to act if a crime takes place. Furthermore, at the university a protocol existed for addressing sexual harassment but this was originally devised for university staff only; it was a protocol however that was not widely recognised or implemented. According to Spanish Gender Equality Legislation, all public entities and companies with over 250 workers are obliged to devise a corporate Equality Plan, including a protocol on sexual harassment and stalking. It is one of the future objectives of the Autonomous University of Barcelona to devise such a plan, despite the possible difficulties of conceptualising it and fears around its misuse.

At Jagiellonian University Cracow, both students and stakeholders pointed out that the most important role of the university was to promote appropriate behaviour amongst teachers and students towards its fellow female population. Jagiellonian University was due to create a Code of Ethics which would aim to enforce all university staff and employees to adhere to such obligations. At Keele and Ruhr University Bochum, stakeholders indicated that preventing gender-based sexual violence was part of their university authorities' responsibilities. This emanated from each institution's obligation under Gender Equality Legislation or their responsibility to ensure public order and security on campus.

At Keele University, and in compliance with the UK's Gender Equality Law, university officials were statutorily obliged to work in an environment which was free from harassment and forms of violence; the same being true for students. However, there were certain doubts about how far the university's responsibility towards preventing gender-based sexual violence went. Taking into account that all Keele students are over 18 years of age, preventive measures imposed by the institution cannot limit individuals' rights and freedoms and the university is not in loco parentis. Still, in principle, there was a broad, comprehensive commitment by all Keele stakeholders that they were obliged to act in ways to prevent and respond to gender-based sexual violence. Keele stakeholders did however point out that there was no concrete policy that coordinated all stakeholders' responsibilities, and most of the time, the level of coordination, internally and externally (with partner agencies) varied and was dependent on each service.

At Ruhr University Bochum, the General Equal Treatment Act passed in 2006 was a legal instrument that clarified the university's responsibility for preventing and responding to sexual harassment and discrimination. Prior to this Act, Ruhr University stakeholders still believed that existing resources were well coordinated to offer an integrated response to any victim of gender-based sexual violence. These included the responsibilities and remits of the Employee Advice Service, the Human Resources Department, the Equal Opportunities Officer, and the General Students' Committee.

Ideally, Gender Equality Laws and Acts will be sufficient legal instruments to ensure public authorities (and university authorities) develop mechanisms to prevent and respond to episodes of gender-based sexual violence at universities. Sexual violence constitutes one of the worst violations of the fundamental right to gender equality, and

must therefore be addressed effectively via appropriate mechanisms (Bodelón, 2009).

4.2.2.4 Best practice

Certain stakeholders identified other institutions as examples of best practice. This was the case at Ruhr University Bochum who used the example of the **University of Oldenburg/Lower Saxony** as a possible model to follow. The University of Oldenburg/Lower Saxony had set up an Anti-sexual Discrimination and Violence Advice Centre for its student and staff members. This centre offered initial one-to-one crisis management sessions, counselling, legal advice, and crime prevention and awareness-raising work. An important feature underlying the university was the assumption that it was part of the university's mission to raise awareness among its members and employees about gender-based sexual violence and to encourage those affected to actively defend themselves against further harassment and coercive behaviour. The University of Lower Saxony also implemented punishments for those students and staff members involved in gender-based sexual violence incidents. The university had well-established collaborative links with external agencies including a contact person in the police, links with the Women's Department of the city, the city Crime Prevention Council, and the Centre for Advice and Prevention of Domestic Violence.

Jagiellonian University Cracow also identified other Polish universities as good practice leaders such as **Warsaw University's** Rector's Commission against Discrimination which was established in 2010. Jagiellonian University also highlighted the "Integrated Security Policy" established in 1996 by the Regional Police Precinct (Wojewódzka Komenda Policji) in Cracow. The objective of this policy was for the police to relinquish their monopoly on providing security and public order protection by seeking support in the realisation of this task from external partners and local communities. The first stage of implementing the policy would involve a campus assessment to identify security threats at the university level. Based on the findings of the assessment, a timetable is devised for the completion of security-related response tasks. In the later stages of implementation, the police are required to evaluate the project and if it positively impacts on crime, the university obtains a four-year certificate entitled: "University Promoting Security". Although the "Integrated Security Project" is being implemented by at least seven Cracow universities, its real effects are currently only visible at three. In addition, personal involvement by the Deputies for Security, who are responsible for the implementation of the program, appears crucial to the success of the policy. All Deputies interviewed agreed that they currently still lacked adequate competence to provide help to victims of gender-based sexual violence and did not have specific strategies in place for responding to a complaint. Clearly, additional work is required to ensure that these projects can provide best responses to students who have experienced violence.

The other participating universities, rather than identifying best practice examples, identified a series of recommendations and proposals to be established and applied within their own universities. These proposals are described in the following section.

4.2.2.5 Proposals and recommendations for the future

Many stakeholders from the participating universities stressed the importance of having **a clear political commitment on the part of the university towards**

eliminating gender-based violence, and gender-based sexual violence in particular. This political commitment needed to be part of each universities legal commitment to protect and promote gender equality, fight all types of crime, and promote a respectful and safe learning and working environment. Many stakeholders suggested that a good way to formalise and make public this political commitment would be through an official declaration by the highest university authority of "zero tolerance" towards any form of gender violence. It was argued that this political statement should be made public, be easily visible on all university web pages, via leaflets and brochures and be available to all new students and staff members arriving at the university (this was stated by stakeholders at Keele University, the Autonomous University of Barcelona, and Ruhr University Bochum). As a stakeholder at Jagiellonian University Cracow argued:

> "Zero tolerance in regards to such behaviours, and a completely clear procedure which should state which behaviours are reprehensible and unacceptable... If a report is filed because an act is committed, guidance on how to report should be included so that the person is not faced with unpleasant consequences."

Stakeholders (at Jagiellonian University and the Autonomous University of Barcelona) also recommend the **creation of a specific protocol/procedure to prevent and respond to gender-based sexual violence at university.** It was felt that this protocol should facilitate a permanent collaboration between university authorities, police forces, and existing resources and services outside the university. The protocol should fulfil two objectives: firstly, it should serve as a tool to all students and staff members working in the university to enable them to respond to cases of gender-based sexual violence and secondly, to raise awareness about these issues amongst students and university staff. In addition to the establishment of the protocol, certain stakeholders (at Jagiellonian University Cracow, Bologna University, and the Autonomous University of Barcelona) felt that it was necessary to have a specialist person or agency within the university, who was easily accessible to students, who could provide anonymous and confidential counselling support on the issue. It was argued that this agency or person should function as the main reference point for students. This was corroborated by the Keele interviews where stakeholders were united in arguing for a clear "first port of call" so that students who had experienced gender-based sexual violence knew who precisely to turn to at the university.

Even at universities where a range of services and resources existed for students who had experienced gender-based violence, stakeholders still recommend **more effective coordination of policies** (this was the case at Keele University, Jagiellonian University Cracow, and the Autonomous University of Barcelona) and that this coordination should be done in a way that ensured that the victim was at the core of the policy. Indeed, victims' needs must be protected and taken as the starting point for promulgating effective intervention and prevention measures.

T**here was no general consensus amongst stakeholders about the need to include awareness raising measures, directed at university staff**. Certain stakeholders mentioned this as a possibility whilst others felt it was unrealistic due to the widely subscribed to perspective that gender-based sexual violence on campus was not a priority. However, stakeholders did feel that training courses on gender-based sexual violence could be offered as another option within the scope of permanent training

courses delivered by the university to all staff members. Since enrolment to the course would be voluntary, it was recognised that only academic staff who were aware of the problem, or interested in gender matters, would participate. Stakeholders did show greater interest in devising awareness raising courses for female university students. At the Autonomous University of Barcelona for example, stakeholders suggested that topics about gender-based violence be included in the wider university curricula, not just limited to courses in education, social services, law, and health sciences.

At Bologna University, stakeholders emphasised the importance of promoting **campaigns that focused on breaking down gender divisions** through the delivery of related seminars and the establishment of specialised officers to deal with gender discrimination. The interviews with female students highlighted an inability to recognise certain behaviours as abusive. In light of such findings there is a clear need for campaigns and specialised courses that clarify and identify the different forms of gender-based sexual violence experienced by women (not simply focusing on physical and sexual violence but also recognising economic and psychological abuse).

FGDs with students also identified that female students were hesitant to contact the police to report gender-based sexual violence and often failed to utilize related services. This also emphasises the importance of creating a network of internal and external support provisions (university, police, medical, social service, and justice system) which communicate together, have defined pathways for referring in and out of, and that are sufficiently resourced in order to improve their efficiency and efficacy. Italian students indicated that they knew very little about available university based violence services but even when they were aware of such provisions, they were reluctant to use them due to a lack of confidence in the service maintaining their anonymity. As such, there must be a commitment towards raising awareness about the services that are available to support women in all universities, and the services in the nearby district (which students may choose to use). It is also important to promote the responsibilities and obligations a service has in terms of maintaining a client's confidentiality and anonymity. Increasing awareness of services could be done through the use of posters and the distribution of calling cards in which a woman could find all of the necessary information for the service.

Certain stakeholders made suggestions to **improve students' sense of security and safety through modifications to the physical environment** (for example, stakeholders at Ruhr University Bochum). These recommendations focused on providing escort services for women walking home at night and improved lighting on campus, especially during evenings. At Bologna University and Jagiellonian University Cracow, they also recommend the establishment of a **Counselling Centre for all people working at the university** and ideally, to extend counselling support to the student population. At Jagiellonian University stakeholders also emphasise the usefulness of establishing a centre that could link in with, and house, police and NGO ambassadors in order to help victims of violence more efficiently and to prevent them from having to go to multiple locations to seek the services required.

4.3 Summary

The qualitative analysis identified that there was a shared understanding of the concept, and different forms, of gender-based sexual violence amongst the female students in the research study. However, in general, women experienced difficulties in identifying and classifying gender-based violence when the perpetrator was someone known to them: a boyfriend, ex-boyfriend, friend, classmate or academic member of staff.

It has been identified that gender-based sexual violence takes place within the university context, irrespective of how low the actual levels of official disclosure may be. The persistence of myths that suggest gender violence does not exist amongst university students, is a problem experienced by women of lower socioeconomic status, and that females with higher educational levels are immune to such violence, all impact on the likelihood of disclosing a victimising experiences.

Whilst female students are often socialised into believing that the perpetrators of sexual violence are strangers, our research again demonstrates that perpetrators are typically known. This study also demonstrated that the university is a hierarchical environment whereby gender-based sexual violence occurs between members of academic staff and students. The quantitative analysis discussed in the previous section of the report also indicated that this was a small, non-statistically significant occurrence.

The analysis highlighted that there is no shared understanding of the concept of a gender-based sexual violence victim. Whilst at certain universities students rejected the label of "victim", in other universities there was the persistence of stereotypes that certain risk factors or lifestyles contributed towards a woman becoming a victim. These included the type of clothing worn, going out alone late at night, sexual history, and economic position. There was a general consensus around the physical and psychological consequences of being a victim to gender-based sexual violence. Namely, students recognised that it can constitute one of the most distressing episodes in a woman's life. Many of the female students interviewed also stressed the social isolation that a victim faces if she makes public her experience and that many victims believed they were partly responsible for what happened; either via not doing enough to prevent the incident, or believing they had provoked the attack in some way.

All university stakeholders noted that a very low percentage of gender-based sexual violence incidents were officially reported, even at universities where there were specific measures and agencies to address these problems. The reasons for this reluctance to disclose, especially to the police, were shared across all qualitative data outputs. Namely, that guilt, embarrassment to talk about what happened, lack of knowledge about where to seek help, lack of trust and faith in the police response, feeling that nothing could be done, fear of the reporting process, and fear of personal and/or academic consequences impacted on disclosure.

As stated by the majority of stakeholders, the lack of official public statistics, and subsequent invisibility of a problem, made it difficult to develop a clear understanding of the extent and nature of gender-based sexual violence at universities. The majority of participating institutions did not have specific preventive and response measures or procedures on gender-based sexual violence or gender violence in general. Only

certain universities (Keele University and Ruhr University Bochum) had preventive and intervention measures that were specifically geared towards addressing gender-based sexual violence.

At certain universities there was a lack of awareness amongst stakeholders about the university's responsibility to address incidents of violence that took place amongst their students and staff on campus and in wider university environments. In other universities, responsibility for addressing these issues was part of the institution's legal obligations which derived from wider, country level, Gender Equality and Anti-discrimination Laws.

Only two universities could identify best practice responses to gender-based sexual violence. However, most stakeholders made a series of proposals on what should, or could, be done at the university level to prevent and respond to the problem. Many of these proposals were shared across institutions. Indeed, despite certain differences amongst the participating universities, due to cultural differences, legal differences or because of the different stages of development that institutions were at in terms of implementing measures, a number of common recommendations were made.

It is evident from the qualitative analysis that gender-based sexual violence takes place within the European university context, as it does in wider society. Students experience difficulties in identifying certain types of gender-based violence when the perpetrator is someone close to them, despite the fact that in the majority of cases, the perpetrator is indeed someone they know. Female students infrequently report these incidents to university authorities or the police because they do not understand the reporting process, are fearful of personal and/or academic consequences, they distrust official authorities, and fear the possible personal and social stigma if they make their experience public.

5. Gender-based sexual violence: Towards Prevention and Response at European Universities

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this section is to provide guidance to university service providers who are responsible for preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence[13]. Using a 'best practice' approach, we proffer a combination of sustained education and advocacy, institutional support, and the utilization of plural policing methods, for serious incidents of gender-based sexual violence, to make universities safer environments for female students. This combination enables women who have been victimised to access remedies and empowers them to 'move on' with their lives (Hester and Westmarland, 2005). Our 'prevention and response' recommendations are predicated on **policies** and **procedures** that are long-term solutions though we acknowledge that universities need to put in place clearly articulated post-incident response policies and crisis-intervention procedures. Our recommendations include educational and sensitising programmes, targeting specific communities of students in universities, and we emphasises "both on-and off-campus…*victim services*" (Gehring, 1996, p.26). Emphasis added). Our prevention and response recommendations emphasise the development of an environment within universities where gender-based sexual violence is explicitly denounced by those at the university with the power to create consequences and where female students in general and survivors in particular have at their disposal, multi-agency based options.

The section is organised as follows. In part two we provide a broad overview of existing prevention and response models. Drawing heavily from North American research on the issue, we look closely at preventive recommendations that derive their impetus from feminist theory, public health perspectives, and criminal justice responses. In part three, we highlight data we have collected throughout our project which are relevant to this section. We develop our prevention and response recommendations from within the issues that have emerged from our surveys, focus group discussions (FGDs), and stakeholder interviews. Therefore issues of the nature and prevalence of violence, the impact of violence on students, disclosure, on-campus safety, students' views on current university policies and procedures on gender-based sexual violence, and stakeholders' lack of knowledge or inadequate knowledge of individual and collective responsibilities, underpin our 'best practice' recommendations.

While North American universities have taken the lead in responding to gender-based sexual violence at universities and have implemented an impressive array of prevention programmes since the early 1990s, it is important to note that few institutions have robustly or routinely evaluated their violence prevention programmes (Heppner *et al*, 1995) even though there is a growing body of research evaluating programme effectiveness (See Banyard *et al.*, 2007; Gidycz *et al.*, 2011; Coker *et al.*, 2011). Most programmes in the North American context have a sole or main focus on

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[13] We use gender-based sexual violence in this report and throughout our research to specifically refer to sexual harassment, stalking, and unwanted and coercive sexual acts.

sexual assault and as such, stalking and harassment are under-represented in preventive work. Moreover, the long-term effects of educational programmes appear especially ambiguous as "current knowledge does not permit the conclusion that these programmes help decrease sexual assault or the belief in myths about sexual assault" (Black *et al.*, 2000. p.591); the routine evaluation of preventive work in universities with multicultural communities "is virtually non-existent" (Black *et al.*, 2009. p.591). We also note that barring some studies, students' wishes and views as well as university based experts' knowledge are noticeably absent in the creation and delivery of extant prevention programmes in North America. Thus we do not recommend blithely replicating models given the country specific and multicultural European context. We believe that our prevention and response policies and procedures, in part five of this report, are one of the first empirically grounded exercises that base recommendations for preventive work on gender-based sexual violence on the expertise of over 71 'key stakeholders' and the wishes of over 21,000 female students. Our recommendations are therefore practice and actor oriented as opposed to theory heavy though we are indebted to and draw upon the rich sources of information within feminist, criminological, and public-health theory.

Our research has highlighted that universities are environments where female students experience different forms of sexual victimisation. We have also found that while the great majority of incidents of gender-based sexual violence at European universities are at the lower end of the seriousness scale, students' feel a statistically significant '***sense of threat***' post the most serious incidents and this has demonstrated negative impacts on their academic life and general well-being. Basing our recommendations for the prevention of gender-based sexual violence within the principles of the 'Duty of Care' most European universities have towards the student body, preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence will enable university personnel to fully and effectively discharge their duties of care. By providing an environment that ensures both the physical safety and mental well-being of its student community, universities can improve the overall quality of life on campus. We hope that our recommendations help European universities reach this goal.

5.2 Creating prevention strategies and responding to gender-based sexual violence at universities: An overview of extant programmes, policies, and models.

The "foundation of efforts for preventing sexual violence" at universities, in the North American context, comes from within the feminist movement and from criminological and public health studies based on the risk, protective, and ameliorative factors with regards to gender-based sexual violence (ACHA, 2008. p.7). Violence prevention programmes in North America have since the 1990s involved education on all aspects of gender and gender-based violence. The programmes have been based on a combination of education and learning, issue sensitisation, and the inculcation of pro-social behaviours in students. While the content of such programmes has varied, certain core themes can be discerned: assisting female students to recognise what constitutes sexual assault and other unwanted sexual conduct and behaviours; educating and empowering female students to say 'no' to unwanted sexual conduct; encouraging female students to formally disclose incidents of violence; letting victimised female students know that they are not to blame and helping them to deal with feelings of 'guilt' and 'shame'; educating and sensitising male students on various

aspects of sexual violence; and delivering programmes such as resistance and self-defence training to reduce the likelihood of assault and/or prevent a completed attack.

Anglo-American feminist theory and in particular the international anti-rape movement has sought to provide services for survivors as well as raise awareness about sexual assault through public education campaigns (Koss and Harvey, 1991). This academic and activist movement has remained committed to ending violence at the level of what is referred to in public health and criminological discourse as 'primary prevention'. While feminist theory understands sexual violence "as a cultural phenomenon requiring interventions beyond the personal and interpersonal" (ACHA, 2008. p.7) and advises that sexual violence can be prevented by "changing normative social ideas and views on sexuality, violence, gender, and oppression" (ACHA, 2008. p.7), public health theory has added to this by advising that sexual violence prevention work must be tailored to specific audiences- potential victims of violence (Rozee and Koss, 2001), potential perpetrators of violence (Clinton-Sherrod et al., 2003), and potential bystanders who have the ability to intervene and/or prevent an act (Banyard et al., 2004). Both epistemological perspectives however agree that education, sensitisation, and health promotion form the 'best practices' in terms of violence prevention. Indeed as the American College Health Association (ACHA), which provides routine policy guidance on campus-based sexual violence, has noted: "the best sexual violence prevention strategies combine the socio-political analysis of the feminist anti-rape movement and the systematic approach to promoting healthy behaviours central to public health theory" (ACHA, 2008. p.7).

5.2.1 Prevention Models based on education and sensitisation

Using educational sessions to promote what are termed 'pro-social behaviours' are perhaps the most common type of sexual violence prevention work currently in place at North American universities (see Morrison *et al.*, 2004 for a review). Most education based prevention programmes take the form of workshops, lectures and seminars, theatre and interactive performances. In such sessions, sensitisation techniques (i.e. peer group workshops, bystander approaches, self-defence and resistance training, etc.) are used for either mixed groups (i.e. mixed sex, undergraduates and postgraduates, etc.) or targeted audiences to educate students on all aspects of gender-based violence. Below, we present an overview of some of the current preventive work, based on education and sensitisation, at North American universities.

5.2.1.1 'Attitude Change' programmes: The 'social norms' approach

Sochting *et al* (2004) note that early sexual violence prevention programmes at North American universities were primarily focused on the principles of what was termed 'attitude change' and is now termed the 'social norms' approach. These programmes usually consist of an educational workshop that lasts between one-two hours and is "based on the assumption that a decrease in rape-supportive attitudes will result in a decrease in the actual incidence of rape" (Sochting *et al.*, 2004. p.75). The components of attitude change programmes consist of "some or all of the following: information on the prevalence of sexual assault, debunking rape myths, discussions of sex role stereotypical behaviours, and practical suggestions for safe dating behaviours" (Sochting *et al.*, 2004. p.75). Authors have suggested that attitude change programmes are helpful and can be a robust source of preventive work on violence "given that stereotypical gender perceptions may be implicated when assaulted women fail to identify their assault as a rape" (Sochting *et al.*, 2004. p.88).

Attitude change methods involve challenging 'social norms' (rules or expectations of behaviour within a group) that encourage unwanted sexual conduct and promote violent behaviour. Theoretical perspectives suggest that sexual violence will be eliminated only when broader societal norms on gender are addressed and a broader range of audiences are targeted by specific intervention and preventive work (e.g., Banyard et al., 2004). Social norms and attitude change approaches also "assume that people have mistaken perceptions of other people's attitudes and behaviours" (WHO, 2009. p.6) and these adversely influence their own behaviour (Fabiano et al., 2003).

One of the first prevention programmes based on the attitude change approach that targeted female students was the 1993 Hanson and Gidycz study. Hanson and Gidycz (1993) based their programme on principles that would increase participants' awareness of sexual assault, reduce their 'rape myth' acceptance scores, increase their ability to respond to threatening and risky circumstances (especially those associated with acquaintance assault), and would decrease the incidence of sexual assault (over a nine week period). "Hanson and Gidycz were able to demonstrate a statistically significant decrease in the rates of sexual assault over a nine-week period among college women who did not report a prior history of sexual victimisation" (Yeater and O'Donohue, 1999. p 742). In fact, the Hanson and Gidycz study has been hailed as "the first to demonstrate the effectiveness of a rape prevention program in reducing the incidence of sexual assault during a specified time period" (Yeater and O'Donohue, 1999. p 742).

While attitude change programmes have been devised to cater to both women and men, these mostly target male university students incorporating various psycho-social elements such as "including an empathy induction, a norms correction component, a discussion of consent, and a bystander intervention component" (Gidycz et al., 2011. p.5). Workshops, conducted by campus equality officers, feminist activists, law enforcement police personnel, and tertiary health care providers, are premised on the idea that a "perpetrator's attitudes, beliefs, socialisation, and peer group relationships determine[s] the conditions in which he would be willing to perpetrate or justify a sexual assault" (Berkowitz, quoted in Gidycz et al., 2011. p.5). Such social norms and attitudes "serve as heuristics in a perpetrator's decision making, resulting in potentially biased processing in sexual situations" (Gidycz et al., 2011. p.5). Bearing these in mind, attitude change workshops provide a venue for men to "talk about their frustrations regarding dating situations and their experiences as men on campus". An opportunity to "vent engages men in the task of preventing sexual assault and clears the air of frustrations in a way that allows for deeper processing of and receptivity to the material" (Gidycz et al., 2011. p.5). Gidycz et al (2011) note that a three pronged strategy is deployed in many attitude-change based educational programmes that target male students. The strategy is based on '**Fostering Empathy'**: Providing male students with the opportunity to "describe the impact of sexual assault on women in their lives and discuss alternative explanations for men's perceptions of false accusations of assault. Discussions also are designed to facilitate empathy by focusing on the debunking of rape myths" (Gidycz et al., 2011. p.5); '**Increasing awareness about consent'** in the context of specific scenarios; and '**Re-socialisation'**: "the sharing of personal experiences by participants…to undermine traditional conceptions of masculinity that are associated with rape proclivity. Men are also encouraged to share their discomfort with aspects of the male gender role script, which in turn allows men to critique it and discuss alternatives that are more positive and normative" (Gidycz et al., 2011. p.5).

Programme evaluations

In the Hanson and Gidycz study (1993), 360 female university students were randomly assigned to either the treatment or the control group. The treatment group received the sexual assault prevention programme. All students (participants and those in the control group) were then asked to return at the "end of the academic quarter and complete a series of outcome measures" (Yeater and O'Donohue, 1999. p.742). Though the authors were able to show a statistically significant decrease in the rates of sexual violence among those participants who did not report a previous history of victimisation, "the program was ineffective with women who were considered "high risk" for sexual revictimisation, (b) several of the dependent measures lacked adequate psychometric properties, and (c) participants who volunteered for the study may have been at lowest risk for sexual assault; thus, changes in rates of sexual victimisation could have been due to a biased sample" (Yeater and O'Donohue, 1999. p.742).

In the Gidycz *et al* study (Gidycz *et al.*, 2011), 635 male students from a Mid-Western North American university voluntarily participated in an attitude change sexual assault prevention programme. The voluntary participants completed both a one and a half hour prevention programme and a one hour booster session. In the booster session, conducted four months after participation in the prevention programme, men were allocated small groups wherein they discussed what components or ideas of the attitude change programmes they had used in the interim period. Gidycz *et al* then evaluated the programme and found that "men [also] reported engaging in less sexual aggression if they were in the programme compared with the control group over the four-month follow-up" (Gidycz *et al.*, 2011. p.16).

Yet Gidycz *et al* (2011) note in their programme evaluation that while social norms based interventions have positive short-term impacts, "problematically, most prevention programme has targeted groups of men who are not members of a cohesive group and who therefore may not be able to influence each other to change". As such, Gidycz *et al* note that attitude change based prevention efforts that target men on campuses may be more effective when "they take place in the context of cohesive peer groups where men are more likely to interact on an on-going basis" (Gidycz *et al.*, 2011. p.722). However, authors have noted that of the many published studies on the social norms approach and attitude change programmes conducted, "very few have been able to demonstrate an impact on male attitudes (for more than a few months) and behaviour (at all)" (Senn, 2010. p.122). Senn (2010) believes that one of the fundamental drawbacks of the social norms approach is that it even though it is underpinned by macro sociological issues such as gender and violence, it tends to individualise preventive work on sexual violence and is therefore limited in long-term impact generation. The focus on stereotypical gender roles in social norms workshops has also been critiqued as it is believed that men are branded as potential perpetrators and women as potential victims (Söchting *et al.*, 2004) and that many social norms based programmes do not disentangle the concept of 'responsibility' from stereotypical male blaming (Senn, 2010). Carmody (2009) has further critiqued rape education programmes in North America stating that she "found no evidence that [they] attempted to address the cultural conditions that underscore sexual violence" and has suggested that this is due to the faulty assumption that individual 'awareness' can prevent rape (Carmody, 2009. p.72).

5.2.1.2 The 'Bystanders Approach': Prosocial behavioural training and Green Dot initiatives

Since the 1990s, educational programmes in North America have somewhat shifted focus from the social norms and attitude change approach to a set of techniques within the framework of what is called the 'bystander approach' to the prevention of campus sexual violence (Banyard *et al.*, 2009; Banyard *et al.*, 2007; Katz, 1994). Victoria Banyard and her colleagues argue that to address campus violence, a shift in social and cultural norms must occur that requires the response of the campus as a community not just potential victims and potential perpetrators. Each "community member is recognised as a ***bystander*** to norms that promote sexual violence and each bystander can then be given a specific role, which they can identify with and adopt in preventing the community problem of sexual violence" (Banyard *et al.*, 2007. p.464). The ultimate goal is to educate students to recognise situations that promote sexual violence and to intervene in safely (i.e. without reprisal and other negative repercussions) and effectively. The specific application of the bystander approach has varied and among the various bystander programmes differences can be noted with respect to the length of training time, the training format, and whether students are given bystander training in mixed or gender-specific groups.

Bystander approaches are now a routine educational component of sexual assault prevention at many North American universities and many universities provide what are termed 'bystander tips' (Coker *et al.*, 2011; Potter *et al.*, 2008) and have bystander programmes in place; Harvard University's Office of Sexual Assault Response and Prevention conducts education workshops based on the bystander technique [14]. Lonsway *et al* note (2009. p.7) that "most bystander programmes address the spectrum of potential intervention" (before, during, and after an assault). Some famous bystander initiatives include programmes such as the Mentors in Violence Prevention (MVP) Programme (O'Brien, 2001), the 'Bringing in the Bystander' programme developed by Banyard *et al* (2007), the Green Dot initiative[15] developed by Dr. Dorothy J. Edwards of the University of Kentucky, and The Men's Programme (Foubert, 2000).

Green Dot bystander initiatives have recently emerged as a common bystander strategy at North American universities and are based on a two-pronged programme strategy; the first phase consists of a 'persuasive speech' (Coker *et al.*, 2011) which can last from five minutes to an hour and where newly enrolled students are introduced to the idea of bystander intervention and community responsibility. The motivational speech is used to build the idea, in students' minds, that students have a community-based commitment to prevent sexual violence. Connections between dating and sexual violence are made during the speech (to dispel 'stranger rape' myths) and bystander intervention is presented as a simple, relatively safe, activity. The second phase, known as SEEDS, starts at the end of the speech. Students are invited to attend a programme called **S**tudents **E**ducating and **E**mpowering to **D**evelop **S**afety (SEEDS). SEED is then headed by a team of Faculty members, administrators, and students who are called peer opinion leaders (POLs) and who in turn take the lead in delivering the SEED programme's objectives. The difference between the Green Dot

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[14] For more see http://www.osapr.harvard.edu/icb/icb.do?keyword=k79651&tabgroupid=icb.tabgroup131042

[15] For more on the Green Dot initiative see http://www.livethegreendot.com/gd_strategy.html

programme and other bystander based programmes is that it emphasises targeted recruitment and gives newly enrolled students the option to become POLs in the future after receiving SEED training. Prevention and intervention work in SEED programmes are thus on-going and long term (For a discussion, see Coker *et al.*, 2011).

Programme evaluation

Victoria Banyard, a leading scholar of bystander education for sexual assault prevention, and her colleagues recently evaluated a sexual violence prevention programme based on the bystander concept of community responsibility. This programme evaluation is the "first experimental evaluation of … a programme using a large sample of men and women' (Banyard *et al.*, 2007. p.477-478). Banyard *et al* stress that their programme evaluation is based bearing in mind that many sexual violence prevention programmes in North American universities have "**not been carefully empirically evaluated and thus their effectiveness is unclear**" (Banyard *et al.*, 2007. p.464). The Banyard *et al* sexual violence programme, called 'pro-social bystander behaviour', educates women and men to "intervene safely and effectively in cases of sexual violence before, during, and after incidents with strangers, acquaintances, or friends" (Banyard *et al.*, 2007. p.463). The programme is administered to women and men in single-sex groups and three sessions are offered: a one-session 90 minute prevention programme, a three-session prevention programme, and a booster session after a two month follow-up period. 389 undergraduates (217 women and 172 men) participated and were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups or a control group. Results from the Banyard *et al* research reveal that two months after participating in either a one- or three-session version of the programme, participants showed improvements across measures of attitudes, knowledge, and behaviour while the control group did not. Banyard *et al* re-evaluated the programme after four months and then again a year later and found that positive programme effects persisted at four and 12 month follow-ups and that the programme appeared to benefit both women and men. Both men and women showed "decrease in rape myth acceptance and increased knowledge of sexual violence… significant increases in prosocial bystander attitudes" (Banyard *et al.*, 2007. p.478).

Similarly, Ann L. Coker *et al* (2011) have recently used a cross-sectional survey of a random sample of 7,945 college undergraduates to report on the association between having received Green Dot active bystander behaviour training and the frequency of actual and observed self-reported prosocial bystander behaviours. Over a period of two years, similar to the Banyard *et al* (2007) evaluated prevention programme, 2,504 students aged 18 to 26 first completed the survey. Then, of these, 46 percent heard a Green Dot speech on campus and 14 precent received active bystander training over a two year period. Coker *et al* found that students who attended these prevention sessions had significantly lower rape myth acceptance scores than those with no training. Students with bystander training also reported engaging in significantly more bystander behaviours.

Potter and her colleagues (Potter *et al.*, 2011) designed and tested a poster campaign using tenets of the bystander and social norms approaches in an effort to develop a passive bystander tool for the prevention of sexual violence on campus. In addition to "modelling pro-social bystander behaviours, the campaign used familiar content" (Potter *et al.*, 2011. p.971) to target university students. Scenes were staged and cast

to look similar to the people and situations that students regularly encounter. Four posters were put up at university locations featuring four campaign taglines "Know your power. Step in. Speak up. You can make a difference" (Potter *et al*, 2011. p.977); these posters were displayed over a four week period. Each poster also provided specific advice about what to do in the situation the posters depicted. Potter *et al* note that the social marketing campaign raised awareness about the incidence of sexual violence on campus and the importance of taking action to reduce sexual violence on campus *even* when controlling for students' previous participation in a prevention programme. The authors also state that unlike an in-person bystander programme, a bystander social marketing campaign requires minimal financial input and administrative time on part of the university and therefore can serve as one method or a first step in a multi method bystander intervention programme.

Apart from the Banyard *et al*, Coker *et al*, and Potter *et al* studies, bystander and other pro-social initiatives have not been evaluated to test for their long term efficacy. Where evaluated, authors point out that evaluations have been "limited by non-random assignment of participants to programme and control groups, small sample sizes, and short follow-up assessment intervals" (Gidycz *et al*., 2011. p.3). It has been noted that even when bystander and other educational programmes are available on the campus, encouraging male students "to attend educational workshops on sexual assault are on-going and seriously limit the probability of widespread programming" (Senn, 2010. p.122). Authors have also found that male students' willingness to intervene and/or participate in programmes are strongly associated with their perceptions of how other male students and male peers might act in similar situations (Fabiano *et al*, 2003). Lonsway *et al* have argued that "although promising", bystander initiatives have not been evaluated to demonstrate programme "efficacy...for both reactive and proactive bystander intervention" (Lonsway *et al*., 2009. P.9).

5.2.1.3 '*Resistance strategies*': resistance, self-defence training, AAA programmes

Resistance strategies are those verbal and physical actions that women may engage in when presented with gender-based sexual violence situations (Ullman, 2007). Resistance typically refers to the ability to repel, or reject, instances of rape and sexual assault specifically. Indeed, physical resistance has long been deemed to infer non-consent to sexual intercourse, with police, prosecutors and jurors often still using evidence of resistance as a means through which rape claim credibility can be assessed (Kelly *et al*., 2005; Temkin and Krahe, 2008). Resistance strategies are premised on the idea of 'risk reduction' (Gidycz *et al*., 2002). The development of self-defence training for women has been based on evidence that active resistance strategies can deter the completion of an attempted sexual assault (Rozee and Koss, 2001; Ullman, 2007). Other types of risk reduction programmes based on resistance strategies that have been developed include "educational programmes designed to prevent drug-facilitated sexual assault by warning women to "watch their drink"" (Lonsway *et al*., 2009. p.4).

Building upon survey data that showed that most forms of gender-based sexual violence occur within intimate relationships or by perpetrators who are known to victims, the AAA model (*Assess, Acknowledge, Act*) has recently emerged to address the ways by which women can resist sexual assault if they are aware of the patterns in situations that are potentially coercive or in situations that can move towards coercion (Rozee and Koss, 2001). Drawing upon Nurius and Norris' (1996) cognitive behaviour

approach and developed by Rozee and Koss (2001) and later by Charlene Senn (2011), the goal of AAA programmes is for women to detect threat and use assertive resistance strategies (both verbal and physical). AAA programmes are underpinned by the idea that a decrease in the likelihood of sexual assault and/or a completed attack will be achieved if women:

1. Have the ability to assess situations as dangerous and take action
2. Emotional obstacles to "taking the action necessary to fend off the attack " are reduced
3. Have the "necessary verbal and self-defence knowledge and skills" (Senn, 2011. p.6)

Ullman (2007) argues that the historic classification of rape and sexual assault as crimes perpetrated by strangers has resulted in rape prevention interventions often focusing on the behaviours women should adopt in order to reduce sexual violence (for example: not drinking, avoiding certain areas, wearing non-revealing clothing). As our present study demonstrates, most instances of violence against women, especially rape, are perpetrated by known individuals making these arguments not only inaccurate but somewhat outdated. In addition, police have traditionally warned women not to fight back if attacked but to 'talk their way' out of the non-consensual situation (Storaska, 1975); this approach in particular has been found to be ineffectual (Ullman, 1997). Ullman (2007) emphasises that the harm done to a woman, and society at large (i.e. societal risk), is reduced if a rape is not completed. Therefore prevention programmes should focus on educating women on specific resistance methods and strategies that enable them to protect themselves and potentially avoid rape, once a non-consensual situation has commenced. Indeed, certain active resistance strategies have been found to be effective for this purpose, without increasing the potential for victim physical injury. Forceful or active resistance includes biting, scratching, hitting, using a weapon and physical self-defence techniques (Ullman, 2007). Whilst studies suggest that only around 20-25 percent of women use such forceful physical approaches, reviews of the literature indicate that such acts can prevent a completed rape (Ullman, 1997). As noted in the literature review, studies which have shown that women's assertive physical and verbal responses are related to increased physical injury have typically failed to take into consideration whether the woman was already being attacked when she resisted (Ullman, 1998). In such circumstances, the perpetrator's initial attack may have been the cause of injury. When such sequencing issues are accounted for, studies continue to indicate that overt physical responses result in fewer completed rapes and no increase or decrease in physical injury (Quinsey and Upfold, 1985; Ullman, 1998; Ullman and Knight, 1992). By contrast, non-forceful resistance responses may include verbal pleading, crying, and reasoning with a perpetrator. Ullman (2007) again notes that all of these approaches are related to greater odds of rape completion. It should however be noted that some women are physically unable to resist rape or may 'freeze' during the offence (Petrak, 2002). Whilst a failure to resist is related to a greater potential for rape completion, this should not be taken to indicate that all women can resist, or that they should be held accountable, if they fail to do so.

Programme evaluation

Even though Ullman is a proponent of self defence training, she argues that there has been no experimental test of the effects of self-defence training on women's likelihood

of being raped (Ullman, 1997). "Anecdotal evidence suggests that women trained in self-defence are three times less likely to be raped" (Leland-Young and Nelson, quoted in Sochting *et al.*, 2004. p.78). It is also acknowledged that resisting rape by a known individual or ex or current partner is potentially more problematic. Ullman (2007) specifically argues that additional research is needed into how women avoid rape by known men and whether specific resistance strategies will differ in effectiveness.

It is further noted that teaching women effective resistance techniques, and how to implement them, will not inevitably result in rape avoidance. Multiple barriers prohibit such responses including fear, embarrassment and gender role socialisation (Lees, 1993; Norris *et al.*, 1996; Ullman, 2007), and may also act to inhibit the ability to detect dangerous or risky situations that may culminate in sexual violence. Indeed, Macy *et al* (2006) have suggested that sexual violence intervention should also train women on how to detect risky or dangerous perpetrator tactics (such as isolating women, giving them drinks), as well as effective resistance strategies and helping women to understand how their expectancies and historic victimisation may affect their decisions about resistance. That is, women who have previously experienced sexual violence appear to be more likely to use passive resistance approaches than non-victimised females (Norris *et al.*, 1996).

Self-defence training has been found to have beneficial psychological impacts including increased confidence, assertiveness and perceived control over one's life (Ozer and Bandura, 1990). Teaching women how to defend themselves has long been part of feminists' efforts to empower women to effectively avoid rape. Although no published empirical evaluations of the efficacy of self-defence training exist, data indicate that this type of training helps women to resist assaults. Gidycz *et al* (2006) evaluated a sexual violence programme that included a self-defence module using random participant allocation to the programme or a waiting-list control group. Although those women who undertook the programme had increased protective behaviours during a six month follow-up period, there were no differences between women who received the programme, and control group participants, with regard to subsequent experiences of sexual victimisation. The study authors suggested that the lack of effect may have been due to greater awareness and subsequent labelling of sexual assault by those who completed the programme, sharing of information between women in the two groups and a lack of sufficiently powerful programme. Although additional research is required to evaluate self-defence training, Ullman (2007) still argues that rape intervention programmes should provide access to such approaches given the consistent findings that demonstrate forceful verbal and physical resistance enhances rape avoidance.

Similarly, evaluations of the AAA programmes have led to the conclusions that "compared to women who did not take the programme, women who did" (Senn, 2011. p.13)[16]:

> 1. Hold fewer rape myths and believe less in female provocation or males' uncontrollable sexuality as causes of rape;

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[16]

http://www.sexualviolenceforum.ca/sites/default/files/pdf/Ehanced_AAA_Sexual_Assault_Resistance_Programme.pdf

2. Perceive (more accurately) that they are at some risk of acquaintance sexual assault;
3. Express greater confidence that they could defend themselves against a sexual attack by a stranger or acquaintance and;
4. Know (say they would use) more effective methods of self-defence against a man (they know) who tried to sexually coerce or assault them

As part of this project, the **German team** has developed and evaluated a self-defence and assertiveness training programme offering female students better protection in future from sexual assault and its subsequent impacts (including impaired performance) [17]. The training sessions combine elements of mental and verbal self-assertiveness with specific physical self-defence techniques and are based on the **WenDo** concept developed by Canadian and European feminists. This concept is geared towards women's diverse resources and experiences. It incorporates the factors of age, disability, sexual orientation, and migration experience, which play a role in specific forms of violence on the one hand, but which also bring to the fore women's specific strengths on the other. What appear to be 'weaknesses' are viewed as strengths in this concept and are taken seriously as such. The goal of these training sessions is to enhance women's personal sense of security and, in doing so, to lessen the fears that constrain women's movement and activities in public space. These resource-oriented sessions are focused on an exploration of women's own psychological and physical strengths: being able to experience their own body as an effective tool in successfully resisting attack helps to dismantle self-images of female physical inferiority acquired in the course of socialisation and to replace them with new, more realistic assessments of their own capacities. Women's own physical strength is closely linked here to the psychological power of resistance and the mental determination to defend their own well-being. In the evaluator sessions, the German team measures the (positive) effects of movement on women's gendered self-images (For a detailed discussion, see Schneider and List, 2010).

5.2.2 Overview of criminal justice responses towards gender-based sexual violence

Criminal justice responses towards eradicating gender-based sexual violence have hitherto largely focused on "deterrence through criminal sanctions" (Potter *et al.*, 2000. p.1347) where "fear of punishment" (Gibbs, quoted in Potter *et al.*, 2000. p.1347) is the underlying principle. In the words of John Braithwaite (1989) such an approach is about the *punishin*g or controlling of crime rather than the *regulation* of wrongs. In the United States, Potter *et al* note that a sexual assault prevention strategy, formulated within criminal justice principles, is based on a deterrence model that relies on "fostering the fear of punishment" (Potter *et al.*, 2000. p.1348). This is accomplished by the dissemination of legal information on what constitutes sexual assault, the probability of being apprehended, and the penalties for committing such an act which are all underpinned by statutory reporting requirements.

In the United States, every post-secondary educational institution that receives federal funding is required, by law, to develop a sexual assault intervention, response, and

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[17] For an overview on European women's self-defence programs
download:http://www.cwasu.org/filedown.asp?file=AchievementsAgainsttheGrain.pdf

prevention policy. In keeping with the statutory requirements of the 1992 *Clery Act* amendments to the *Federal Crime Awareness and Campus Security Act*, universities are bound by law to a) promote the awareness of different forms of rape through educational programmes, b) institutionalise formal procedures which are to be followed once a sexual offence has occurred and been formally disclosed, c) have sanctions imposable by the university on the perpetrator including expulsion (For a discussion, see Potter *et al.*, 2000). In 2008, the *Higher Education Opportunity Act* or HEOA (Public Law 110-315) re-authorised and expanded the *Higher Education Act of 1965*, as amended. HEOA amended the *Clery Act* and created additional safety and security-related requirements for institutions and specifically added that **universities must disclose a list of hate crimes occurring on campus premises**; **in US federal law, crimes based on gender are considered hate crimes**. The United States also has the Federal Campus Sex Crimes Prevention Act of 2000 (CSPCA) which provides special requirements relating to the registration and community notification for sex offenders who are enrolled in or work at institutions of Higher Education. Per the *Clery Act*, universities are required to disclose six types of sex offences: forcible (including forcible rape, forcible sodomy, sexual assault with an object, forcible fondling) and non-forcible (including incest and statutory rape). However although the *Clery Act* encourages the development of sexual violence policies and prevention programmes, it does not describe the exact form that a sexual assault prevention programme should take at American universities.

In the 2011 'Handbook for Campus Safety and Security Reporting' published by the US Department of Education, it has been stated that universities should have a checklist to determine if they are meeting the various components of campus safety and security compliance. The US Department of Education routinely updates its 'Handbook for Campus Safety and Security Reporting' which was first published in 2005 in compliance with the *Clery Act*. The handbook suggests that universities should check if their campus sexual assault programmes and procedures to follow when a sex offence occurs specifically include:

1. a description of educational programmes to promote the awareness of rape,
2. acquaintance rape and other forcible and non-forcible sex offences,
3. procedures students should follow if a sex offence occurs, including procedures concerning who should be contacted
4. importance of preserving evidence for the proof of a criminal act
5. information about whom the alleged offence should be reported to (US Department of Education, 2011. p.274).

Furthermore and with regards to the police, many universities in North America have dedicated campus police units and many American states, apart from federal law, have laws that govern the remit and conduct of campus police. Most campus police have their own webpages on institutional websites which provide in-depth information about their activities (for e.g., North Park University campus police http://www.northpark.edu/About/Campus-Safety-and-Security.aspx, Harvard University campus police http://www.hupd.harvard.edu/prevention_hucep.php, etc.).

Beverly A. McPhail *et al* (2007) in their research on ending intimate partner violence point out that although a criminal justice response was one element in the early North American feminist strategy to publicise violence , hitherto seen as a *private* matter, "it

is important not to conflate a reliance on the criminal justice system with the feminist perspective" (McPhail *et al*., 2007. p.819) and that "mandatory arrests and prosecutions" and the power of "mental health professionals and other counsellors to dictate interventions are limiting choices for survivors" (McPhail *et al*., 2007. p.836). McPhail's focus group data (n=32) from representatives of frontline women's organisations in North America show that the victim's responsibility for legal action and ambivalent criminal justice responses ranging from the "overzealous" to the "under-reactive" (p.831) should reorient standard criminal justice responses to intimate partner violence towards ones based on *restorative* or community-based justice. By way of an alternative model, McPhail *et al* (2007) put forward John Braithwaite's (1989; 1999) theory of responsive regulation. Braithwaite's theory argues that responses to crime must be "neither cold and punitive, nor warm and permissive" [but rather warm and firm] (Braithwaite, 1989. p.152). Therefore a "shift away from punitive social control toward moralising social control" (Braithwaite, 1989. p.181) would move the emphasis on punishments for the commission of crimes to the background and not in the foreground (Braithwaite, 1999. p.35) as the foregrounding of punitive measures increases "reactance" (acting contrary to a group norm) and an inability for an offender to be "other-regarding" (Braithwaite, 1999. p.36).

In the UK, 'violence against women' within criminal justice policy was raised in the 1990s through various Home Office initiatives, domestic violence courts, and *Operation Sapphire* at the Metropolitan Police Service. In 1998, the Home Office announced the Crime Reduction Programme (CRP) which aimed to develop and implement a comprehensive approach to reducing crime and making communities safer. As part of this programme, the Violence Against Women Initiative (VAWI) was launched in July 2000 to analyse best practices effective in supporting victims and tackling the issues of domestic violence, rape and sexual assault. "Thirty-four multi-agency victim focused projects were funded and aimed to develop and implement a range of interventions for various population groups in a number of different settings and contexts. The projects were originally funded until the end of March 2002" (Kelly, 2005. p.i). In the early 1990s, SARCs (Sexual Assault Referral Centres) were also established as a way of combining the needs of victims and the needs of the criminal justice system such as the collection of forensic evidence. In April 2008, The Crown Prosecution Service "became the first Whitehall department to publish its 'Violence against Women Strategy and Action Plans'" (Phipps, 2010. p.361) and these 'action plans' positioned criminal justice, support and prevention as equally important for government policy on the issue and it was stated that reducing the prevalence of sexual violence was the ultimate aim of the action plans. The UK has also promulgated numerous laws on gender-based sexual violence. Under the *Sexual Offences Act 2003* in the UK, rape, sexual assault, assault by penetration, causing a person to engage in sexual activity without consent, are all criminal offences [18]. Sexual harassment is also a criminal offence under the *Protection from Harassment Act, 1997* which deals with different forms of harassment including harassment based on race, sex, and disability and defines harassment as a *course of conduct*. Conduct can be physical, verbal, and non-verbal. Stalking can also be prosecuted under this Act and also under *Section 126 of the SOCPA* (Serious Organised Crime and Police Act 2005) which amended the Criminal Justice and Police Act 2001(CJPA) and created a new offence of causing harassment, alarm or distress to a person in his or her home. Restraining orders can also be attached when criminal proceedings have not upheld a

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[18] http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2003/42/contents

conviction. In Spain, the Organic Law 11/2003, of 29 September, of *Concrete Measures in Citizen Security, Domestic Violence and Social Integration of Foreigners* was the first legal measure that dealt with domestic violence; the Organic Law 15/2003 of 25 November that modified the Organic Law 10/1995, of 23 November, of the Penal Code, changed some provisions of the Spanish Penal Code for covering domestic violence crimes; and the Law 27/2003, of 31 July, *regulating the Protection Order for Domestic Violence Victims* unified all protection instruments for the victim foreseen in the legal system (penal, civil, and protection and social assistance). However, it was not until 2004 that a specific legal regulation on the issue of violence against women came into force in Spain. It is called the *Integral Protection Law Against Gender Violence*, Organic Law 1/2004, of 28 December. This law is meant as a step forward in the fight against gender based violence in Spain. In particular, it is important to stress that with this law, the term gender violence is used for the first time within a legal regulation in Spain. With this law, the Spanish State broadens the scope of the matter by recognising that women, as a result of gender inequality, are victims of multiple forms of violence and, therefore, talks about gender violence to capture the multidimensionality of the problem. The law refers to gender violence as any act of physical and psychological violence, including threats to sexual freedom, aggression, coercion or the arbitrary privation of freedom. In Germany, the situation seems somewhat similar to the UK. There is *The National action plan on violence against women* (1999-2006) with legislative reform and governmental funding of research on violence against women. The national action plan is responsbile for the implementation of intervention projects in the field of domestic violence. The First Action Plan to Combat Violence against Women, which lasted from 1999 till 2006, was managed by the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth, who were also in charge of the compilation of the policy measures. Two steering committees were established: the federal working groups 'trafficking in women' and 'domestic violence' composed of representatives of the 'Länder', communities, NGOs, and government policy makers and MPs. In 2002, the German government promulgated the Protection from Violence Act (2002) (domestic violence). The Act empowers the court to issue eviction and barring orders and legally understands domestic violence as a criminal offence. The Act has also intensified cooperation between the police and allied services in Germany.

Scholars have argued that criminal justice responses manifest in the legal protection against gender-based sexual violence reinforces the concept of deterrence by sending the clear message that such acts will not be tolerated by society in general and by the justice system in particular; if "potential perpetrators" are made to realise that unwanted sexual conduct and sexually violent acts will be "reported and that they will be prosecuted", such "a perception might deter them" (WHO, 2007. p.23). However it would seem that many criminal justice system responses to gender-based sexual violence are based on what Braithwaite (1989) would term punitive foregrounding and deterrence does not qualify as primary prevention from a revised criminological and public health perspective. "There is also little evidence regarding the deterrent effect of criminal justice system responses to intimate partner violence and sexual violence, and reporting and conviction rates continue to be minimal, particularly for sexual assault" (WHO, 2007. p.23).

Feminist sociologists in the UK have been critical of the criminal justice responses to gender-based sexual violence. In Liz Kelly's (2005) Home Office partnered study of

rape conviction rates in the UK (i.e. attrition rates) it has been argued that "an over-estimation of the scale of false allegations by both police officers and prosecutors" feeds "into a culture of scepticism" and leads to "poor communication and loss of confidence between complainants and the police". This may explain why formal disclosure rates, in the first instance, and at least in the UK for sexual assault, continue to be low. Kelly further states that "police officers' early assessments of the difficulties of prosecution and conviction may be interpreted by complainants as discouragement to continue, and fear of the court process can also act as a disincentive. There is some evidence of poor investigation and understanding of the law, and in some cases, there has been an emphasis on discrediting features only, by the Police and CPS" (Kelly, 2005. p.xi). Kelly believes that "unlike other crimes, where the status of victim usually confers a sense of deserving sympathy and support, declaring that one has been raped frequently invites judgement, and exacts social and material cost" (Kelly, 2005. p.1). Therefore, despite extensive legal reform in the UK "'*real rapes*' continue to be understood as those committed by strangers, involving weapons and documented injury". Kelly sees this as a systematic "failure of criminal justice systems to address these stereotypes". In turn, the persistence of such stereotypes means that the processes involved in responding to and preventing sexual violence "from early investigation through to court room advocacy" reinforce "narrow understandings of the crime of rape, who it happens to and who perpetrates it". The attrition process, in the case of the UK, "reflects, and reproduces these patterns" (Kelly, 2005. p.2). Furthermore, in the UK, it has been argued that although the numerous laws and government actions promulgated and implemented by the government have been welcomed by practitioners, academics, and front line women's organisations, the epistemology underlying criminal justice policy in the UK is one of retributive justice; sexual violence policy continues to be "developed and delivered by the Home Office rather than the Department of Health or the Department for Children, Schools and Families, despite the fact that intimate relationships are the most common settings for sexual assault and rape" (Myhill and Allen, quoted in Phipps, 2010. p.367). Support for victims and formal prevention and intervention measures are routinely positioned as a "means" by which the goals and objectives of the UK criminal justice system can be realised (Phipps, 2010. p.367). Some authors have noted that in such a policy framing, prevention and support to victims is a means to reduce the social costs of sexual violence and is not a victim-centred perspective.

It should however be noted that innovations in criminology, acknowledging the unsuitability of punitive responses to gender-based sexual violence, have started focusing on the linkages between gender violence as crime and a victim-centred crime prevention strategy towards violence against women (Barberet *et al.*, 2003; Sloan, 2011). With respect to the university setting, these new criminological perspectives have emerged from the standpoint that crime reduction programmes and strategies for reducing sexual violence are not routinely incorporated into university policy in Europe, or indeed data routinely collected around the frequency of such offences (Barberet *et al.*, 2003). Barberet *et al* (2003) specifically draw attention to the usefulness of dedicated university liaison officers who can be based at universities and provide up-to-date information to staff and students around safety and crime prevention. They could also play a meaningful role in actively disseminating information around campus safety, as well as being instrumental in helping to collect standardised crime data across the university. Students should be encouraged to report offences in order to help individuals to access services, but also to help develop

campus crime data sets on the prevalence of assault and harassment which can inform on-going university policy (Barberet *et al.*, 2003; Sloane, 2011). To this end, Sloane (2011) has suggested that students should be given the option of reporting victimisation anonymously, such as via online reporting systems, which would enable the necessary data to be collected without pressure being placed on the student to pursue matters through an official reporting channel.

5.2.3 Health Promotion models of prevention and response

In recent years, early educational (seen to be prescriptive and promoting gendered stereotypes by some authors) and criminal justice system based approaches (seen to be punitive and retributive by some authors) have been challenged by public health perspectives that "promote pro social behaviours" (Potter *et al.*, 2000. p.1348). Public health perspectives have been highlighted as less punitive than deterrence models as well as more effective in the long term prevention and risk-reduction of violence (Mercy and Hammond, 1999). Scholars have highlighted prevention within public health based models as:

1. **Primary prevention**: policies and procedures that decrease the incidence of gender-based sexual violence and to influence individuals and communities before unwanted conduct and violent behaviour occur. These include the identification of 'risk and protective factors' and the provision of education and sensitisation programmes to general populations as well as 'at-risk' groups (Potter *et al.*, 2000).
2. **Secondary prevention** or post incident prevention: policies and procedures that lower the prevalence of gender-based sexual violence. These include targeted media campaigns, counselling for the survivors, and efforts to make "early stage offenders" participate in intervention programmes "in exchange for the non-prosecution of a criminal act" (Potter *et al.*, 2000. p.1350).
3. **Tertiary prevention**: policies and procedures that are aimed at preventing the reoccurrence of violence such as those that "reduce relapse recidivism and include either incarceration and/or probation" for perpetrators (Potter *et al.*, 2000. p.1350) and rape crisis hotlines and counselling for victims and survivors.

The WHO (2007. p.5) who have commissioned a significant body of research on the primary prevention of gender-based sexual violence define primary prevention as:

> "Reducing the number of new instances of intimate partner violence or sexual violence by intervening before any violence occurs. The impact of primary prevention is measured at population level by comparing the frequency with which either victimisation or perpetration occurs. This approach contrasts with other prevention efforts that seek to reduce the harmful consequences of an act of violence after it has occurred, or to prevent further acts of violence from occurring once violence has been identified".

The WHO suggest that approaches to violence prevention should not be limited to "programmes or policies whose stated objective is to reduce these forms of violence". Indeed, "structural and policy approaches to improve gender equality" are likely to have positive effects ending sexual violence, "although their impact is not yet well understood and needs to have stronger scientific evidence" (WHO, 2007. p.6).

Therefore primary prevention must include the implementation of approaches in the plural which examine "factors over the life course, as well as beyond the individual, which can be modified to result in less intimate partner violence and sexual violence" (WHO, 2007. p.6).

The WHO state primary prevention models should be grounded on four principles (WHO, 2007. p.7-8)

1. Models should "define intimate partner violence and sexual violence and document their scope and magnitude".
2. Models should "identify factors that increase the risk of intimate partner violence and sexual violence or have a protective effect".
3. Prevention strategies should be designed "using knowledge of risk and protective factors and grounded in social science theory for modification of those factors". Strategies should be routinely evaluated to assess their impact.
4. Anti violence programmes should include the implementation of "proven and promising strategies on a larger scale, in various settings" where their impacts can be monitored.

Current prevention programmes, implicitly based on the WHO guidelines and explicitly on public health models of primary prevention include:

1. **Early childhood and family-based approaches**- The WHO (2007. p.11) suggest that experiences in early childhood "have a major impact on physical, cognitive, emotional and social development£ throughout the life course of an individual". Young children learn from or emulate their immediate family and community environment in trying to learn how to relate to people and interact with people in society. Therefore targeting young children with the aim of reducing "their exposure to violence has the potential to significantly reduce the prevalence of all forms of violence, including intimate partner violence and sexual violence" (WHO, 2007. p.11).

2. **School-based approaches**- These include educating children and young adults about "different kinds of touch, self-esteem, secrets, and self-protection strategies such as shouting, insisting on being left alone, threatening to tell and telling a trusted adult" (WHO, 2007. p.12). Gibson and Leitenberg (2000) undertook a study to analyse whether sexual victimisation rates were different for female university students who had received child sexual abuse preventive training in school and those who had not. The authors demonstrated that female students who had not participated in child sexual abuse prevention programmes in schools were twice as likely to report that they had been sexually abused as a child.

3. **Interventions to reduce alcohol and substance misuse**- Programmes based on this approach are focused on pricing and taxation, regulating the low cost availability of alcohol and responding to potentially problematic drinking contexts such as binge drinking or at fraternity and initiation parties at universities (WHO, 2006). "Markowitz (2000) has estimated that a one percent

increase in the price of alcohol would decrease intimate partner violence against women by five percent" (WHO, 2007. p.15).

4. Public **information and awareness** campaigns- Social marketing campaigns such as the Potter *et al* (2011) poster campaign.

5. Working with men and boys- Such as the Mentors in Violence programme (Katz, 2006; 1994) and bystander and other 'social norms' programmes.

5.2.4 Understanding the 'best practices' in preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence

Given the plethora of research on preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence at universities and their relatively unevaluated nature, how should European universities respond to the issue of gender-based sexual violence?

We agree that education and sensitisation developed from the public-health, criminological, and feminist perspectives that focus on primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention are the most effective ways to respond to the issue at hand. However, as our literature review has shown, the various educational approaches to the prevention of sexual violence at universities are short term or one-time interventions (Anderson and Whiston, 2005; Townsend and Campbell, 2008) and the efficacy of these to impact positively on the crucial issue of long-term prevention is uncertain given that many have not been empirically evaluated. However, based on the few evaluations that do exist, it seems that education and sensitisation programmes do yield short-term effectiveness in altering violence-supportive attitudes, 'rape myths', and increased knowledge about equality and discrimination though evaluations have also shown that such programmes have little to no impact on a long term robust awareness of violence and its gendered components (Anderson and Whiston, 2005). Authors have also noted that despite years of feminist organising against sexual assault and educational programmes in universities on sexual violence, 'rape myths' abound in campuses; rape myths still seem to be believed by some criminal justice personnel as evidenced by the attrition rates for sexual assault in the US and the UK (Carmody and Washington, 2001; Kelly, 2005). Per Lonsway *et al* (2009), Gidycz *et al* note that "programming efforts have generally not been successful in reducing sexual violence on college campuses" (Gidycz *et al.*, 2011. p.3). Further, sexual assault is disproportionately represented in the preventive work on gender-based sexual violence in North American universities and it is not clear how to tailor educational programmes with respect to the specificities of sexual harassment and stalking. The literature review has also shown that some studies on preventive work do not base their recommendations on data generated by surveys or qualitative research with students, thereby running the risk of being prescriptive.

We do however agree that "it is unrealistic to assume that one programme no matter its length or depth should be expected to take on the full task of preventing sexual violence in the communities; rather...participants should be exposed to prevention messages at multiple points in time" (Borges *et al.*, 2008. p.86). Using a 'best practice' approach, it would seem that **the delivery of high quality prevention education and issue sensitisation and the creation and implementation of clearly articulated post-incident policies and procedures can promote a safer environment for female**

students and contribute to a richer university experience for students. Reworking the best practice standards as developed by Australia's multi-agency National Association of Services against sexual violence (Carmody *et al.*, 2009) which are "designed to be read and applied together in a dynamic and reflective process of prevention work" (Carmody *et al.*, 2009. p.23), we agree that any proposed 'prevention and response model' should be premised on 'best practice' standards which include:

1. "The use of coherent conceptual approaches to programme design".
2. The use of techniques, drawing upon extant best practices, as well as new, emerging techniques of prevention and response.
3. The undertaking of "a comprehensive programme development and delivery" that includes the expertise of a variety of stakeholders.
4. The routine use of "effective evaluation strategies".
5. "Supporting, thorough training and professional development", of academic Faculty, non-academic staff members, and the student body so that prevention and response are community based". (Carmody *et al.*, 2009. p.23)

By way of documented 'best practice' **Southern Illinois University**'s sexual assault prevention programme has recently been highlighted as a model for prevention and response (Meilman and Haygood-Jackson, 1996). The prevention programme includes "educational initiatives, revision of policies and protocols, modification of judicial hearings, and collection of data about incidents of sexual assault" (Meilman and Haygood-Jackson, 1996. p.157). In 1991, Southern Illinois University established a sexual assault task force led by a sexual assault response coordinator. The task force provided educational workshops for students on all aspects of sexual violence and information and the resources that were available both on and off campus for students who had been victimised (Meilman and Haygood-Jackson, 1996). The task force revised existent disciplinary policies and protocols on sexual assault by making policies and procedures more transparent and victim friendly (not offender-oriented). The university also linked the task force with a local women's NGO to provide students with 'sexual assault companions'; this was the main post-incident response of the university. These companions accompanied victimised students to the emergency services and provided post-incident information and assistance. Having such policies and procedures in place helped the task force to improve their reporting system (which US universities are statutorily obliged to have in place) and provide better interventionist care. Two years after the programme was initiated, the reporting rates for sexual assaults for the university went up to 65 incidents, which "is the largest single database yet reported by one campus" (Meilman and Haygood-Jackson, 1996. p.157).

Such a comprehensive and victim-friendly 'prevention and response' model premised on sustained and multi-sited social activism, manifest in better communication and on-going education, initiated and developed by universities in conjunction with various stakeholders and the student body itself, seems to be a valuable model for European universities to build upon in their commitment to prevent gender-based sexual violence in the long term and to effectively respond to any incident of gender-based sexual violence and provide the requisite post-incident care and support.

5.3 Overview of Research Data

5.3.1 Brief methodological and results overview of wave B interviews

During February 2011, project partners re-interviewed key stakeholders after providing them with a 'prevention and response' model based on data generated by the home university's survey, FGDs and individual interviews, and stakeholder interviews. A total of **10 formal and informal interviews**[19] were carried out and stakeholders were asked to comment on what universities have done in response to the measures, policies, and procedures suggested by the project researchers. Below are the data from the interviews:

UK
Number of Stakeholders re-interviewed- two
Questions posed- Discussion of stakeholders' views on model prevention and response and what has the university done during the course of our research.
Proposals made- Routine and robust publicity regarding services /procedures. 'First port of call' information for students. Knowledge sharing networks and mechanisms at university between stakeholders. Better communication. Infrastructural issues such as lighting and transport. Alcohol regulation
What has been done so far? Knowledge sharing networks developed between residence managers and security personnel. Educational programming at freshers' week.

Germany
Number of Stakeholders re-interviewed- two
Questions posed- Which measures have already been implemented. How exactly do these measures work? How can the awareness among students be further raised? How can students' sense of safety be improved? Which of the recommended means have been picked up so far? Which of the recommendations are going to be implemented?
Proposals made- Publicity regarding services /procedures. "Low-threshold" advisory/counselling services. Specific needs of students seeking help . Trusted friends/acquaintances offering support in seeking help. Architectural measures. Information campaigns. Self-assertiveness courses.
What has been done so far? The University has set up a working group called "Fairness at work". Raising students' awareness of the issue of sexualised violence by publicising the Guideline on Protection from Unfair Treatment, Discrimination, Sexualised Violence and Bullying. Tray information inlay in student cafeteria. Stickers in women's toilets. Poster exhibition. Training for course advisers

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[19] Interviews were carried out with 10 stakeholders (one from Jagellonian University- the Spokesman for security, two from Keele University including the Deputy Head of Student Discipline and Residence Manager, four from the University of Bologna including the University Guarantor; President of Equal opportunities office at University; a member of the staff of Women's Advice Centre in Bologna; coordinator of Psychological Help Student Centre at University, two from Ruhr University Bochum including Equal opportunities officer, Representative of psychological advice service and one from the Autonomous University of Barcelona- Director of the Observatory on Equality).

Spain
Number of Stakeholders re-interviewed- one
Questions posed- Questions regarding what the university has done with respect to the team's recommendations.
Proposals made- Education on myths and stereotyping of violence. Communicating to students where to go within and outside the university once an incident has occurred
What has been done so far? Proposals have been collected by the Director of the Observatory of Equality. Despite interest in the issue, the university has decided not to create any specialised agency or instruct any specific member of staff to respond to and prevent gender-based sexual violence.

Poland
Number of Stakeholders re-interviewed- one
Questions posed- Evaluation of the recommendations made by the team. Creating a web of experts and changes in university policy about harassment. Future Plans.
Proposals made- Creating a network of experts. Hiring of a psychologist at university. Establish procedures for reporting of harassment. Self defence classes.
What has been done so far? Rector appointed the Spokesman accordance with the recommendations of the model prevention programme.

Italy
Number of Stakeholders re-interviewed- four
Questions posed- Discussion of data of wave A and on co-operation between university and municipality on the topic of security at university. The better visibility of services. Ethical code for students
Proposals made- Publicity regarding services /procedures. Information campaigns. Proposal of agreement between the University and the Mayor in order to improve the security of the students living in Bologna. Proposal in order to increase the awareness of all students on these topics through the generation of information during courses.
What has been done so far? Starting from the important cooperation with the President of Equal opportunities office at University of Bologna, our project will be taken into consideration for implementing the following: 1) provision of support and guidance to victims of gender violence; 2) the general promotion of public safety and the protection of society. The stakeholders in our university expressed a great interest in the research.

5.3.2 Issues to be addressed in the prevention and response recommendations

In developing our prevention and response recommendations, we have selected to specifically address the issues that have emerged from our qualitative and quantitative data in conjunction with the 'best practice' recommendations of extant

research on the prevention of gender-based sexual violence. The issues that will underpin our 'prevention and response' recommendations, in section five, include:

5.3.2.1 The nature and prevalence of gender-based sexual violence at European universities

Our data show that more than a half of the respondents to the questions on sexual harassment in our national rollout surveys reported having (mean value = 60.7 percent) experienced at least one incident of sexual harassment during their time as a student but that this value is lower than the one referring to the entire life of the respondents (mean value= 77.6 percent).

Prevalence of sexual harassment incidents at the university (based on: at least once incident during time as student)		
Country	Percentage	Total number of respondents to the question
Germany	68 %	n=10189
Italy	47 %	n=2074
Poland	65.8 %	n=3941
UK	68.6 %	n=593
Spain	54.2 %	n=225
These data **confirm our hypothesis** that *female university students are at less risk from sexual harassment whilst at university*.		

With respect to stalking, half of the respondents to the questions on stalking in our national rollout surveys reported having experienced at least one incident of stalking during their time as a student (mean value = 50.5 percent) and this value is higher than the one referring to the entire life of the respondents (mean value= 38.5 percent).

Prevalence of stalking incidents at the university (based on: at least once incident during time as student)		
Country	Percentage	Total number of respondents to the question
Germany	50.8 %	n=297
Italy	41.8 %	n=813
Poland	48.7 %	n=1727
UK	58.3 %	n=297
Spain	52.9 %	n=102
Based on these data, **we cannot confirm our hypothesis that female university students are at less risk from stalking whilst at university**.		

With respect to sexual violence, 35.5 percent of the respondents to the question on sexual violence in the national rollout surveys reported having experienced at least one incident of sexual violence during their time as a student but this value is lower than the one referring to the entire life of the respondents.

Prevalence of sexual violence incidents at the university (based on: at least once incident during time as student)		
Country	Percentage	Total number of respondents to the question
Germany	29.9 %	n=1214
Italy	30.2 %	n=172
Poland	47.3 %	n=334
UK	33.6 %	n=128
Spain	36.7 %	n=30
These data *confirm our hypothesis that female university students are at less risk from sexual violence whilst at university*		

This distribution of frequency for sexual violence presents a very high number of survey respondents who have not answered (i.e. missing cases) the question if they have experienced at least one incident of unwanted or coercive sexual acts during their time at university (mean value of missing cases = **91.3** percent of the total sample, n = 21,516). Therefore our research has once again confirmed, and as the **Italian team** states, "it would be difficult for a woman to report having suffered sexual violence even with her anonymity guaranteed by an Internet based survey".

More descriptively, our data show the following as the 'most severe incident' of sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence as indicated by our respondents:

Most severe incident at university			
Country	Sexual harassment	Stalking	Sexual violence
Germany	"Dirty comments/being whistled at"	"Unwanted calls/letters/SMSs/emails"	"Forced sexual intercourse and penetration against will"
Italy	"Dirty comments/being whistled at"	"Unwanted calls/letters/SMSs/emails"	"Forced intimate touching/caressing petting
Spain	"Dirty comments/being whistled at"	"Unwanted calls/letters/SMSs/emails"	"Forced sexual intercourse and penetration against will
Poland	"Dirty comments/being whistled at"	"Unwanted calls/letters/SMSs/emails"	"Forced sexual intercourse and penetration against will
UK	"Someone groped me/held me against my will"	"Unwanted calls/letters/SMSs/emails"	"Forced intimate touching/caressing petting" **And** "Forced sexual intercourse and penetration against will"

With respect to sense of threat that respondents felt post the most serious incident, European respondents do not seem to be threatened by 'dirty comments', however **Polish** students are most threatened by being whistled at or having dirty comments (42 percent of Polish respondents felt threatened, whereas the mean value is 23.8 percent). With respect to the most serious incident of stalking, European respondents do not seem to be threatened by 'unwanted calls/letters/SMSs/emails'. With respect to sexual violence, the great majority of European respondents **felt threatened** by the situation.

With respect to **multiple victimisation**, filtered through a 'sense of threat', our data show that 1,250 of all the students surveyed have experienced both sexual harassment and stalking (Poland is the country with the most number of students who have been a victim of stalking and of sexual harassment (69.7 percent). Our data show that with regards to sexual harassment and sexual violence there were a total of 325 doubly victimised students (The proportions are especially high in Italy and Poland at 78.6 percent and 75.0 percent respectively). 243 of all the students surveyed have experienced both stalking and sexual violence. 191 students have responded as having experienced threatening situations in all three scenarios (the highest is Italy with 54.8 percent). UK respondents have the lowest multiple victimisation rates - the lowest proportion of triply victimised students is found in the UK (35.1 percent) as well as the lowest percentage of those who have experienced stalking and sexual violence (48.7 percent).

5.3.2.2 The impact of gender-based sexual violence on female university students

Our data show that stalking, harassment, and sexual violence have an impact on the study course, academic performance, and the general well-being of university students. Apart from qualitative questioning in the FGDs and in the in-depth interviews with victimised students on the impact of gender-based sexual violence, female university students were asked in the national rollout surveys to comment on the various impacts of gender-based sexual violence on their well-being and academic life. In our quantitative analysis on assessing impacts, we have selected to focus on the views of survey respondents who have experienced forms of sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence. Further inflecting the data, we have then focused on the views of those who have experienced sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence and have experienced at least one negative impact (as defined by our survey questions on possible impacts) and have consequently felt threatened post the 'most serious' incident of these different forms of gender-based sexual violence.

Based on the reporting of at least one negative impact (such as suicidal thoughts, feeling down or depressed, feeling scared of leaving the house, the delays in study progress, negative impacts on academic performance, and so on) in conjunction with a reported 'sense of threat' the survey respondents felt post incident, we find <u>four impacts</u> of the different forms of gender-based sexual violence on female university students: **general depression symptoms**, **self blaming**, **feelings of fear**, and **proactive reactions**.

Some of the **key psychological impacts** of the most serious incident of sexual harassment are as follows:

Psychological impacts of the most serious incident of sexual harassment (based on: at least one reported negative impact + a reported 'sense of threat')			
Country	**General depression (%)**	**Self-blaming (%)**	**Feelings of fear (%)**
	'Constantly going over the situation'	Guilt and shame	Avoiding certain places
Germany	48.4% (n=2019)	17.6%	54.4%
Poland	41.1% (n=1126)	22.1%	58.2%
Italy	13.3% (=345)	7%	70.7%
UK	63.3% (n=139)	28.8%	63.3%
Spain	42.1% (n=38)	36.8%	36.8%

With respect to **academic impacts**, Our data show that students' academic performance is affected by sexual harassment (28 percent of Polish respondents, n=243; 17.4 percent of German students, n=483) and that they avoid certain courses and lectures (39.8 percent of German respondents) and that the progress of their studies is disrupted and delayed (49.4 percent of Italian respondents, n=85). Surprisingly and in a somewhat positive vein, when a female university student is subject to sexual harassment she does become more aware of gender based discrimination (38.1 percent of UK respondents, 32.1 percent of German respondents, and 32.2 percent of Italian respondents). We term these '**proactive responses**' and believe that such a proactive awareness of gender discrimination, post incident, holds much promise in terms of building prevention and response models at universities that educate and sensitise students, from a gender perspective and premise, on the discriminatory aspects of sexual harassment to counter the negative impacts of general depression, feelings of fear, and self blaming.

Some of the **key psychological impacts** of the most serious incident of stalking are as follows

Psychological impacts of the most serious incident of stalking		
(based on: at least one reported negative impact + a reported 'sense of threat')		
Country	**General depression (%)**	**Self-blaming (%)**	**Feelings of fear (%)**
	'Constantly going over the situation'	Guilt and shame	Avoiding certain places
Germany	67.9% (n=1003)	19.6%	52.8%
Poland	60.8% (n=467)	27%	46.7%
Italy	33.5% (n=155)	12.3%	48.4%
UK	75% (n=76)	42.1%	61.8%
Spain	60% (n=25)	36%	52%

With respect to **academic impacts**, female students have reported (calculated by the inclusion of those responses where at least one negative affect and a sense of threat post incident have been reported) that stalking affects their academic performance (45.7 percent of Polish respondents, n=173; 29.5 percent of German respondents, n=434), delays their study progress (54.8 percent of Italian respondents, n=73; 26.3 percent of German respondents), leads to an interruption of study course (10.2 percent of UK respondents, n=49; 4.1 percent of German respondents) thereby impacting their academic lives. As with sexual harassment, there are a few **proactive reactions** that emerge in the wake of serious incidents of stalking behaviours. These include 'becoming more aware of discrimination against women' and volunteering and/or collaborating with NGOs. 5.3 percent of UK respondents 'decided to do something against gender discrimination' and 27.6 percent became 'more aware about

gender discrimination' (n=76). 7.1 percent of Italian respondents believed that their 'response could help women in the future' (n=155).

Some of the **key psychological impacts** of the most serious incident of sexual violence are as follows

Psychological impacts of the most serious incident of sexual violence (based on: at least one reported negative impact + a reported 'sense of threat')					
Country	Health issues		Self-blaming (%)	General depression	Feelings of fear (%)
	'drug/alcohol abuse'	Eating disorder	Guilt and shame	'constantly went over the situation'	Avoiding certain places
Germany	13.9% (n=238)	17.2%	62.2%	69.7%	46.2%
Poland	12.7% (n=110)	16.4%	61.8%	64.5%	54.5%
Italy	4.9% (n=41)	22%	34.1%	41.5%	48.8%
UK	17.1% (n=35)	11.4%	82.9%	77.1%	62.9%
Spain	14.3% (n=7)	14.3%	100%	100%	71.4%

With respect to sexual violence, academic impacts include 'effects on academic performance' (41.8 of Polish respondents, n=55, 29.9 percent of German respondents, n=127, and 45.8 percent of UK respondents, n=24) and delays in the progress of studies (38.5 percent of Italian respondents, n=26). 18.2 percent of Polish respondents reported to have avoided certain courses and places in university (n=55). Some **proactive reactions** also emerge in the wake of sexual violence. These include 'becoming more aware of discrimination against women' (32.4 percent of German respondents, 24.4. of Italian respondents, and 57.1 percent of Spanish respondents, n=7), 'deciding to do something against gender violence' (14.3 percent of Spanish respondents, n=7) and believing that a personal response can 'help women in the future' (7.3 percent of Italian respondents, n=41 and 2.1 percent of German respondents).

5.3.2.3 How do female students assess the most serious incidents of gender-based sexual violence?

The impact of gender-based sexual violence can also be gauged from survey respondents' assessment of the most serious incidents of sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence. In our national rollout surveys we asked respondents, for all three types of the most serious incidents of gender-based sexual violence, to delineate what they made of the situation post-facto and a posteriori. **36.5 percent of total European**

respondents who had been subjected to the most serious incident of sexual harassment believed that they had suffered to be harassment, 18 percent believed that suffered sexual harassment, however 41.1 percent declared that they had not been subjected to either harassment, sexual harassment, or violence. 82.7 percent of the total European respondents believed that the perpetrator of sexual harassment must be held responsible however 10 percent of UK students do not believe that the perpetrator should be held responsible (again, the sample size is very small. N=38). As to the punishment on the matter, the attitude of our European respondents seems much more cautious than their responses to perpetrator responsibility. In fact, 43.6 percent of the total number of European respondents think that the perpetrator should not be punished and 31.5 percent 'do not know' if the perpetrator should be punished. Barring similar German figures, UK respondents are again different from the total sample in that 51 percent (n=190) do not believe that the perpetrator should be punished. **Italian** respondents are the highest percentage of those who believe that the perpetrator should be punished (33.6 percent. n= 261).

With respect to the most serious incident of stalking, **33.7 percent of the total European respondents who had been subjected to the most serious incident of stalking believed what they had suffered to be harassment and 32.7 percent considered it as psychological blackmail**. In particular Polish respondents assigned greater importance than the other European respondents to the psychological aspect of stalking (47.5 percent, while the mean value is 32.7 percent). 85.2 percent of the total European respondents believed that the perpetrator of stalking must be held responsible. As to the punishment on the matter, the attitude of our European respondents seems much more cautious than their responses to perpetrator responsibility and more cautious than the sexual harassment data. In fact, uncertainty (i.e. 'don't know') in conjunction with not wanting to punish the perpetrator is 66.2 percent of the total sample. Crucially, in comparison to sexual harassment, perhaps because of the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim, in the cases of stalking the percentage of respondents who feel responsible for the incident is higher than it is for sexual harassment (mean value for self responsibility for stalking is 68.4 percent while this is the 80.7 percent for the harassment).

With respect to the most serious incident of sexual violence, **44.4 percent of the total European respondents who had been subjected to the most serious incident of sexual violence believed what they had suffered to be sexual assault, 21.8 percent as rape and 11.1 percent as violence**. In the largest data set, German respondents to this question considered what they have suffered mostly as sexual assault (59.5 percent of German respondents (n=194) while the mean value for sexual assault is 44.4 percent) and in the smallest data set, Spanish respondents considered this as rape (30 percent while the mean value of rape is 21.8 percent. The percentage of the total European respondents who believe that the perpetrator of sexual violence must be held responsible is highest among all three type of gender-based sexual violence with only 3.4 percent of the total European sample respondents stating that they do not consider the perpetrator responsible. 39.7 percent (mean value) of the respondents judged the incident as something they also feel responsible for. As to the punishment on the matter, 46.8 percent (mean value) consider the assault something the person who did it ought to be punished for.

5.3.2.4 Perpetrators

With respect to the most serious incident of sexual harassment, the perpetrators are 'someone outside the university' (60.8 percent of the total European sample), a 'fellow student' (31.7 percent), and 'someone of the University staff' (academic or non-academic: 7.5 percent). **UK** national rollout survey respondents identified, in a percentage higher than the European sample, that the perpetrator of the most serious incident of sexual harassment was a 'fellow student' (UK: 66.7 percent; mean value = 31.7 percent). UK respondents had the lowest score for an academic staff as perpetrator (only in 0.8 percent in comparison with the mean value of 4.2 percent) in cases of sexual harassment. Academic perpetrators of sexual harassment are highest in **Poland** (6.9 percent in comparison to the mean value of 4.2 percent). When sexual harassment was committed by 'someone outside university', the majority of students declared that he was a 'stranger' (69.4 percent).

With respect to the most serious incident of stalking, **the perpetrators are 'someone outside university' (71 percent of the total European sample)**, 'fellow students' (25.6 percent), and 'someone from the university staff' (3.5 percent). The percentage of ex-partners as perpetrators of stalking is highest for **UK** and **Spain** (**43.4** percent and **41.7** percent compared to the mean value of 35.6 percent) but the sample size it should be noted is very small (UK stalking n=36 and Spain stalking n=15). 27 percent (n=455) of the most serious incidents of stalking in the **German** sample are 'stranger stalking'.

With respect to the most serious incident of sexual violence, **68.9 percent of the European perpetrators are 'someone outside University'**, followed by 'fellow students' (26.3 percent) and the university staff (academic and non-academic) are perpetrators in 1.8 percent of the total cases. Once again, **UK** respondents differ from the European sample in that the majority of perpetrators are 'fellow students' (**65.1** percent in comparison to mean value of 26.3 percent) but no perpetrators of sexual violence are members of the academic university staff. However, again the sample size is very small (i.e. n=28). As opposed to sexual harassment and stalking, *the majority of perpetrators of sexual violence are known to the victim* and **45.7** percent of the total European cases of sexual violence are committed by (ex) partners.

5.3.2.5 Campus safety issues

Apart from qualitative questioning in the FGDs on safety and security, in the national rollout surveys female university students were asked about their feeling of safety in select locations at their university. **Results from the national rollout surveys suggest that female students feel rather safe at universities, although there are visible differences in the proportions of how safe they feel between countries.** We have also noted that, after considering answers to all questions regarding the feeling of safety in select places on university premises, **Polish female students feel the safest at university premises followed by UK students**. However, our quantitative data indicate that 44.1 percent (n=11,708) of German students, 61.2 percent of Italian students (n=2,381), 33.8 percent (n=4,096) of Polish students, 44.9 percent (n=256) of Spanish students, and 35.4 percent (n=641) of UK students who responded to our survey do not feel safe whilst alone and in the dark on the university campus.

Data that are of interest to our 'prevention and response' recommendations also include the following- with regards to the **German** national rollout, 46.7 percent of those who have suffered the most serious incident of sexual harassment (n=102) have been subjected to it in the 'outdoor areas of the campus' and 21.5 percent (n=392) have been subjected to the most serious incident of sexual harassment in the 'lecture room/seminar room'. With respect to lecture rooms, 23.7 percent of **Polish** respondents have been subjected to the most serious incident of sexual harassment in that location (n=132). With respect to the UK, 16.2 percent (n=17) of UK respondents to the question on the location of the most serious incident of sexual harassment have suffered incident in 'student union rooms' (in comparison with the mean value of 6.4 percent) and the 31.4 percent (in comparison with the mean value of 9.1 percent) have suffered the most serious incident of sexual harassment 'inside student residences' (n=33). With respect to stalking, the majority of the most serious incidents are outside the university premises and Internet based stalking is an issue as our data demonstrate (14.1 percent of **German** 'most serious' stalking incidents occurred over the Internet, n=341 and 10 percent in the **Polish** case, n=76). The great majority of the most serious incidents of unwanted sexual acts take place outside the university. In particular, the most serious incident of sexual violence (57.9 percent of the total European sample) occurred in a flat/house (either the victim's flat/house or someone else's property) though we do note that in the UK case that 78.4 percent of cases of sexual violence occurred 'inside student residences' (in comparison with the 54.5 percent of the European sample). However the UK is not so much an exception in this case and halls of residence should not be considered 'hot spots' from a criminological perspective. Barring the small sample size for UK responses to the location of the most serious incident of sexual violence, the majority of UK students live in student halls of residence (**46.4** percent of UK respondents to the survey lived in halls of residence) and as such halls of residence are conceptually quite similar to the idea of 'my own house' in the national rollout surveys.

Having said that, and with the exception of Italy and Spain, after empirical testing and subsequent verification we can state that *female students generally feel quite safe at the university – except when walking alone on university premises at night*.

5.3.2.6 Knowledge of university based service providers- Students' views and wishes

Respondents to our national rollout surveys were asked about their knowledge of university service providers. In our quantitative section, we have calculated knowledge of university based service providers by combining the multiple answer sections from the 'know about it' category. We have thus combined the frequencies of the 'know' answers: 'know about it and have already used it'; 'know about it and would use it'; and 'know about it but wouldn't use it' to comment more generally on student knowledge. Given this methodology, our data show that the well known service providers for each country are:

1. Germany- Student union officers (98.2 percent), therapeutic help (94.3 percent), university counseling centre/therapist (88.6 percent)
2. Italy- Doctor (74.4. percent), chaplain/minister/pastor (73.8 percent)
3. Spain- Student union officers (68.6 percent), women's advice centre/helpline and hotline (67.6 percent)

4. Poland- Doctor (87.1 percent), chaplain/minister/pastor (85 percent), therapeutic help (75.6 percent)
5. UK- Doctor (95.2 percent), chaplain/minister/pastor (82.6 percent), university counseling centre/therapist (79.1 percent)

It is important to note that the survey questionnaire was not identical in all countries: in Poland and Italy counseling centres and university therapists were not included as 'service providers' as they do not exist in the university. The Italian questionnaire did not include 'students' union officers' due to the marginal role these officers play within the university structure. The Polish questionnaire did not include questions about the 'Dean' due to the normative position of this office in Poland's university structure.

Our data analyses, in the quantitative section, have also focused on analysing the responses of survey respondents who have used university based service providers as evidenced by the responses to the sub-section 'know about it and have already used it'. The three most frequently mentioned institutions, based on utilization of services, for each country (detailed data in the Appendix, tables 2-12) include:

1. Germany – Therapeutic help (10.8 percent); doctor (10.1 percent); student union officers (8.1 percent)
2. Italy – Doctor (11.1 percent); chaplain/minister/pastor (8.7 percent); therapeutic help (5.3 percent)
3. Poland – Doctor (8.5 percent); minister, pastor (5.8 percent), therapeutic help (5.5 percent)
4. Spain – Therapeutic help (6.7 percent); doctor (6.6 percent); other advisory service (3.3 percent)
5. UK – Doctor (22.6 percent); university counseling centre/ therapist (14.9 percent); therapeutic help (5.3 percent)

With regards to the frequency of utilizing these service providers, UK comes first. Differences between countries are also seen in answers to the question 'know about it and would use it' and we treat this response category as a '***trust variable***'. Apart from university doctors who students placed the highest levels of trust in, across the five countries, as evidenced by the responses to the question 'know about and would use it', the other important data on the 'trust variable' include: **UK** respondents showed the high levels of trust towards university counseling centre/therapist (45.5 percent or 281 respondents); **German** respondents towards therapeutic help (66.6 percent or 7118 respondents) followed by women's advice centre/helpline (63.1 percent or 6843 respondents); and **Polish** students towards therapeutic help (55.2 percent or 2007 respondents) followed by minister/pastor (33.3 percent or 1197 respondents). It is important to also highlight that **UK** respondents used the services of the doctor twice more often than Italian and German students, almost three times more often than Polish students, and four times more often than the Spanish students. Instead of viewing this data negatively, and with respect to the **UK** on the matter, it is positive that UK students are utilizing university based service providers and our data show that UK respondents (and German respondents) have high levels of trust in university service providers.

Given that the largest data sets are from Germany and Poland, we carried out an analysis of these two data sets to examine the dynamics of the attitude of female

students towards university service providers and how attitudes towards them are affected by the passage of time (i.e. time spent at university). In Germany, statistical significance (0,005 level) was observed for all help services with the exception of the minister/pastor (here the level of statistical significance is equal to 006) while in Poland the same level of statistical significance (0,005 level) was observed for students union officers, the Crisis Intervention Centre, and minister/pastor. In **Germany** the percentage of students who know the Dean, for example, grows with the number of years spent at the university. However, while the percentage of students willing to ask the Dean for help also increases with the number of years spent at the university, the percentage of students who do not wish to use the Dean's services in the future also increases. In **Poland**, longer periods of time spent at the university increase the percentage of students who are familiar with the services offered by student governments. However, at the same time, longer periods of time at university decrease the percentage of students who are willing to use their help. The number of Polish respondents who are familiar with the crisis intervention centre also grows with an increase in the number of years spent at the university. For Polish respondents who have spent the longest time at the university (more than three years) the percentage grows for those who wish to use the crisis intervention centre in the future. It is important however to highlight that this institution operates outside the university system and is available to the public. While 33.3 percent of Polish respondents said that they 'know about' and 'would use' the minister/pastor, an analysis of Polish respondents who responded as being familiar with services offered by spiritual leaders reveals an increase in skepticism towards help from them if needed with an increase in time spent at university.

Taking the example of Canadian universities, Senn (2010) writes that during the 1990s, sexual harassment offices were closed or merged with new Human Rights or Equity offices. What has remained in many campus-based Canadian universities since the late 1990s are "mainstream mental and physical health services that lack the participation and input of personnel with particular expertise in sexual violence prevention" (Senn, 2010. p.123). This point seems to be linked with data we have collected where overwhelmingly students have said that they know the doctor and therapist and would use them. However our qualitative data has in turn showed that such service providers do not always have the requisite expertise in dealing with gender specific issues. Therefore a 'prevention and response model' must respond to the training needs of these service providers. Further, given the multicultural makeup of many European universities, according to the **German stakeholders** interviewed, counselling services are very rarely frequented by foreign students. Foreign students turn more frequently to the contact persons more familiar to them, such as the International Office or the pastoral care worker assigned to the student community. This point is corroborated by the UK data where a stakeholder has noted that "obviously there is a cultural issue, there is the religious issue to consider as well. These go a long way in making students not wanting to disclose an incident". As **7.9** percent of UK Survey respondents were non-domestic EU students and **4.9** percent were international students (n=616) and **2.3** percent of German survey respondents were non-domestic EU students (n=10826) targeted intervention for these small but not insignificant communities is a further requirement.

It is important to highlight that most European respondents, both in the national rollout surveys and in the FGDs, expressed the view that the university policies and

responses regarding sexual violence were less than adequate. Students have highlighted their wishes for more robust and effective prevention and response at universities. Students who responded to our survey have highlighted the following as what they would like to receive from university based service providers. Multiple responses were possible to this question in the survey:

Service Requirements from university personnel					
Students' wishes	Germany (n= 10916)	Italy (n=2350)	UK (n=626)	Spain (n=237)	Poland (n=3756)
To be listened to/taken seriously	**78.3%**	**62.2%**	**88.2%**	**66.2%**	**81.8%**
To be advised by a woman	27.4%	25.4%	36.4%	21.9%	21.1%
Free advice	54.6%	49.4%	75.1%	57.4%	46.6%
To be advised without a third party	39.2%	39.6%	34.5%	28.3%	41.7%
Anonymous advice	27.7%	36.8%	43.1%	35.9%	32.8%
To be allocated a particular person	47.2%	42.3%	41.5%	32.5%	7.8%

Our data show that **survey respondents from all five countries regard 'to be listened to and taken seriously' as the most important attribute of university service providers**. The most interesting and perhaps the most significant difference between students from different countries were noted in respondents' answers to the question if they wished 'to be treated with compassion'. In comparison to German, UK, and Italian female students, Polish and Spanish female students chose this answer less frequently. Similarly, 'to get an appointment straight away' was least on Italian students' wishes for service providers and as the **Italian** team notes "this reflects trust issues with university service providers and how they treat potential victims in Italy". Furthermore, as opposed to respondents from other countries, Polish female students rarely selected the answer 'to have a particular person allocated to me'.

5.3.2.7 University stakeholders' knowledge on gender-based sexual violence

The majority of our university based stakeholder interviewees indicated inadequate knowledge on the prevalence and nature of gender-based sexual violence at their university. Data from our stakeholder interviews have shown that responsibility for preventing and responding to sexual violence at universities is typically shared between a variety of university-based and non university-based people and bodies. These diverse offices and their responsibilities are not well coordinated and this varies greatly from one university to another.

Data from our interviews show that while most stakeholders are aware about their individual roles and responsibilities, they are unsure about what to do once an incident is reported by a student. It has also emerged that current violence prevention policies at European universities suffer from loopholes in relation to overlapping roles, lack of formal official policies and pronouncements, and unclear roles and responsibilities for individual service providers. These issues need to be addressed in the 'prevention and response model' as they directly concern the safety of the students. Two stakeholders' views on the issue are of particular relevance on the matter:

> "From my perspective, I'm really not aware that there are specific policies or protocols designed to tackle stalking or sexual violence. Obviously, there are people and systems in place whose role it would be to deal with incidents like this and also the fallout from such incidents. I think **the lack of policy is actually a problem** and I think that there should be **coordination between different parts of the university so that there's a joint-up response** to both the victim and other people who would be affected by an attack, either directly or indirectly." (Stakeholder, Keele University)
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> "I don't think that we at university are plugged in to current knowledge, current research, current thinking from national organisations who would be involved in researching and promoting safety. I think the university can do a lot more of that. I mean we have an anti-discrimination and harassment policy, which comes out of a statutory requirement, and part of that policy covers sexual harassment. But **we don't deal with the issue in a straight forward manner with all parties involved in prevention and intervention and with all parties working together**." (Stakeholder, Keele University)

5.3.2.8 Understanding disclosure

In the case of sexual harassment, European respondents across the sample most often told someone about the most serious incident from the 'fellow students' and 'people outside the university' categories. The most frequently given reason for not telling someone was the feeling that 'what happened had not seemed so bad at that time' and secondly the belief that 'what happened was a one-off event'. Percentages based on 'not being so bad' (filtered through 'sense of threat') and therefore not disclosing the incident are: Germany (52.1 percent, n=482), Poland (53.6 percent, n=526) and UK (45.2 percent, n=42). This is corroborated by our qualitative data where a **German** police expert notes, for example, "that a very high percentage of women who emanate a certain self-confidence in their very manner and way of behaving are much less often victims." **UK** students note "Women must learn to protect themselves and know about risks and be ready to confront this on their own" and "by telling somebody you lose the power"; therefore "I can deal with it myself, I don't need anybody". Some respondents across the European sample did report the most serious incident (i.e. most serious incident in conjunction with a felt 'sense of threat') of sexual harassment to the Police- **7.8** percent in Germany (n=1,976), **5.9** percent in Italy (n=339), **2.9** percent in Poland (n=899), **13.2** percent in Spain (n=38), **7.7** percent in the UK (n=117).

In the case of stalking, European respondents most often told 'someone outside university' about the most serious incident. The most frequently cited reason for not telling someone, in the two largest data sets (Germany and Poland) were 'I just wanted to be left alone and forget about it' and 'I didn't know who to talk to about it' (both filtered by a 'sense of threat'). Instead of calling into question the gravity of the most serious incident of stalking, to understand this statistic, a kind of helplessness appears to be an important reason for students not to disclose incidents: in the two largest data sets 36.9 percent of German respondents to the question of disclosure didn't know who they should talk to and 22.6 percent in Poland reported the same. Some respondents across the European sample did report the most serious incident (i.e. most serious incident in conjunction with a felt 'sense of threat') of stalking to the Police-: Germany: **16.6** percent, Italy – **14.5** percent, Poland **6.2** percent, Spain – **12.5** percent, and UK – **12.1** percent. The most frequently cited reason for not reporting to the Police was 'I did not believe that I had any sufficient evidence'.

In the case of sexual violence, European respondents most frequently spoke about the most serious incidents of sexual violence to people from the 'someone outside the university' category. Only in UK a 'fellow student' was mentioned more often than 'someone outside the university' (75 percent for fellow student, n=20). In all countries respondents informed their friends more frequently than their family members. Nevertheless, it should be remembered that the number of respondents answering this question is very low across our European sample. The national samples for respondents' views on why they did not tell someone (after feeling a 'sense of threat') were very small in the cases of Italy, Spain and UK. The most frequently cited reason for not telling someone in Germany 'was blaming themselves' for having misjudged the situation (57 percent, n=100) and feeling 'ashamed and not finding the words to describe what had happened' in the Polish sample (41.7 percent, n=60). Also respondents noted that sexual violence was 'too intimate to talk about' and cited this as a major reason for not wanting to disclose the incident (48 percent of German respondents and 40 percent of Polish respondents). Some students reported the most serious incident of sexual violence to the Police but samples were in most cases very small; Germany: 11.3 percent, Italy 9.5 percent, Poland 3.9 percent, and in the UK 15 percent. The most frequently cited reason for not reporting the incident to the Police in the German sample was 'not having any sufficient evidence' (37.4 percent, n=99) and the 'fear of the investigation or trial' (34.3 percent). In Poland the most frequently mentioned reasons were 'not having any sufficient evidence' (25.9 percent, n=58) and 'fear that the police would not take the victim seriously or would not believe her' (25.9 percent).

Our data show that students seem to not want to involve formal authorities with respect to gender-based sexual violence. However we cannot deny that many respondents do not know who to disclose incidents to either at the university or within their social environments. In the largest national data set, Germany, 23.4 percent of German students (n=482) did not know who to disclose the most serious incident of sexual harassment to even though they felt a 'sense of threat' post-incident. 36.9 percent of German students (n=122) did not know who to disclose the most serious incident of stalking behaviours to even though they felt a 'sense of threat' post-incident. 43 percent of German students (n=100) did not know who to disclose the most serious incident of sexual violence incidents to even though they felt a 'sense of threat' post-incident. Nonetheless, our data show that overwhelmingly peers, friends,

and family seem to be the first choice for victimised students to disclose incidents of gender-based sexual violence to. Perhaps this reflects the fact that victimised students prefer to tell friends and family about particular incidents of gender-based sexual violence but it is unclear from our data whether disclosure (as understood by the response to the question 'did you tell anybody') to this cohort is necessarily help-seeking behaviour. Our data also show that students prefer to deal with incidents of harassment and stalking on their own but it is unclear to what extent talking to friends and family is a cognitive preference or is impacted by or reflective of other factors such as a lack of available services at the university, students' lack of knowledge of available services at the university, or a preference for not wanting to seek redress from formal university or police/criminal justice channels.

Such lack of conceptual clarity notwithstanding, our quantitative data, by way of hypothesis testing (see **3.3 Further statistical analyses**) has proved the following with respect to disclosure behaviour (both formal and to peers/family/friends)-

1. The likelihood that a student affected by sexual violence will tell someone about it is reduced if she feels partly responsible for the violence she experienced.
2. The likelihood that a student affected by sexual violence will tell someone about it is reduced if she knows the aggressor.
3. The likelihood that a student affected by sexual violence will tell someone about it is reduced if she was under the influence of alcohol or drugs when she experienced the violence.
4. The lowest probability that a student affected by gender-based sexual violence will tell someone about the incident she experienced is 0.25 and is given if the situation occurred in her own home, involved a person she knew, if she felt partly responsible for what happened and was under the influence of alcohol or drugs when it occurred.
5. **The biggest influence on disclosure behaviour is the student's perception of what she experienced and her relationship to the person involved**.

Our qualitative data can shed some further light on the matter of formal disclosure (i.e. to university personnel). We have stressed throughout this section that "in the development of any programme, the way that the focus issue is understood will inform what is done about it" (Carmody *et al.*, 2009. p.30). Through our FGDs and in-depth interviews with students we have learned that formal reporting helps university's to first understand the nature and prevalence of gender-based sexual violence and use that as the premise to create and implement preventive policies and procedures. We must however stress that **formal disclosure should be an advice and not a pressure or mandatory** as disclosure can re-victimise female students (see Senn, 2010). Yet, the probability of formal reporting is linked to concerns about being taken seriously (this is also corroborated by our survey data), confidentiality, and fear of reprisal. The **German** team notes that two important reasons why students who have experienced violence rarely tend to disclose incidents to formal channels and make use of the existing university services are a sense of shame about what they have experienced (this is corroborated by the survey data) along with a lack of information. Data that we have collected from **Poland** point to another issue; students at the FGDs emphasised that they did not believe in the possibility of real intervention at the university. Polish students have highlighted that institutional responses to disclosure include attempts

to cover up the case and ridiculing the person submitting the notification to the secretariat / manager chair / dean. This perhaps contextualises the survey data: Poland has very low disclosure rates to university staff and in some cases the lowest within the European sample. The **UK** team has noted, based on stakeholder interviews, that issues such as shame (also corroborated by UK survey data), fear of being pressured to press for prosecution, fear of negative peer assessment (based on the FGD), alcohol consumption, and familiarity with the perpetrator, are routinely cited as the reasons why incidents are not disclosed to those in formal authority. This lack of disclosure is potentially problematic for service providers as it negatively impacts on their ability to provide effective redress mechanisms. As one UK stakeholder noted "If I don't know what's going on, if no one is coming forward, how do I help in solving the problem? How can I help create effective policies if I do not know the nature of the issues involved?" Surprisingly, our data show that UK respondents have the highest levels, within our total sample, of disclosure to university authorities. Of those who had experienced sexual harassment in the UK and felt threatened by it, 15.4 percent spoke to 'someone at the university' (n=117). The percentages for the same for stalking are 22.4 percent (n=58) and 24.2 percent if it is 'academic and non-academic university staff' and for sexual violence are 15 percent (n=20). The UK also has the highest utilization rates for university based services. Therefore while it is the case that peers and family are the main categories to whom disclosure is being made, university staff are also being told about incidents and thus university staff need to be trained to effectively deal with and respond to the specificities of gender-based violence.

5.3.2.9 Alcohol

Asked whether they were under the influence of alcohol when they experienced sexual violence in the current study, UK respondents were the largest group who answered 'yes' (40.5 percent), while in Spain it was just a third (30 percent), in Germany and Poland under a quarter (24.1 percent and 23.8 percent respectively) and in Italy 9.8 percent. Since the project results indicate that alcohol plays a role, albeit not a key one but one that should still be considered, in four of the five partner countries the relationship between sexual victimisation and the influence of alcohol and drug consumption on student disclosure of sexual violence was examined in the section 'further quantitative analyses'. We will also be touching upon alcohol related issues in our prevention and response model.

5.4 Responding to and preventing gender-based sexual violence in the trans-national European context: Project partners' views on 'best practices'

Before we propose our prevention and response recommendations in part five of this section, we present an overview of all the suggestions which have been made by project partners. When we write 'responding to gender-based sexual violence in the trans-national European context', our aim is to not recommend that all of the suggestions herein are practical and must be prescriptively implemented. We realise that not every 'best practice' tool fits every university. Therefore the rich and detailed information in this section on 'best practices' is meant to provide an overview of the different types of responses that are possible within universities. We are aware of the issue of trans-national comparability and compatibility. Whereas the Equality Act 2010

stipulates that UK universities have a 'specific duty' to publish Gender Equality Schemes, the institutions of Higher Education in the other participating countries are not similarly obliged to implement specific measures and in the UK itself, gender equality schemes do not specifically address, barring sexual harassment, the issue of gender-based sexual violence. Therefore our aim here is to provide a comprehensive outline of recommendations so that universities can, on the basis of their specificities and environmental requirements, have the choice to see which of our suggestions would work best at their institution. In itself, such a broad overview seems to be a 'best practices' approach.

5.4.1 Clear and precise 'post-incident' procedural policy

While we privilege the long-term and primary prevention of gender-based sexual violence we are critically aware of the need to have in place at universities, clear and precise post incident policies and responses. Post-incident response is an essential component to an effective violence prevention strategy. If disclosed and occurring on campus, victimised students should receive (preferably) free, prompt treatment, regardless of the severity of the incident. Universities should also provide transportation to medical and/or therapeutic care if such care is not available on the campus.

Several types of assistance can be incorporated into a post-incident response. For example, trauma-crisis and critical-incident counselling can be provided to assist victims. University based psychologists, university doctors or social workers may provide this counselling or the university may refer victims to an off-campus 24-hour specialist provider. Legal and/or police assistance should also be incorporated into a post incident procedure should victims want to pursue prosecution. The **Italian** team notes that with respect to incidents of sexual assault, first aid post-incident procedures are a must. An Italian stakeholder has noted that universities must offer specialised gynaecological first-aid "in the intense phase, that is to say the moment after which the violence has happened" since "there are specific actions to perform which are very important to the following forensic investigation".
All such assistance needs routine and clear advertising at universities so that students are aware that mechanisms are in place for them. Through our national rollout survey it has emerged that respondents would like to be able to contact and use university-based service providers but many do not know whom to approach at the university once an incident has occurred. Universities need to not only take steps to communicate the official university position but also delineate *first ports of call* for serious incidents of sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual assault. To do this, universities should compassionately and clearly communicate their official stance to students and advertise the current procedures in place to help victims post incident**.**

To this end, the **UK** team suggests that a poster at appropriate places at the university is a good step to communicate to students whom to contact in a time of emergency and what various services are available for victims. The poster was favoured by the UK, Polish, Spanish, and Italian teams.

Gender-based sexual violence against students: Contact persons

ABC University takes a strong institutional stand against all forms of gender-based violence including, sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual assault. We are committed to an environment where gender-based violence is not tolerated or ignored. If you have suffered any form of gender-based violence, we are here for you.

If you would like impartial advice on the options available to you at ABC university, with your anonymity guaranteed, your first port of call at University is the STUDENT SUPPORT OFFICER (for the UK), the OMBUDSMAN (for Italy), the SPOKESMAN for security (for Poland) and the Observatory on Gender equality (for Spain)

If you would like to speak with someone confidentially with your anonymity guaranteed, your first port of call is the STUDENT COUNSELLOR (For UK, Italy, and Spain) and the STUDENT'S GOVERNMENT (For Poland).

If the perpetrator is from the University and if you would like to register a formal complaint, your first port of call is the HEAD OF DISCIPLINE, RECTOR (for Poland), UNIVERSITY GUARANTOR (for Italy), OMBUDSMAN (for Spain) who will guide you through the process. If you would prefer to register a formal complaint through a student body representative, please contact the GENDER OFFICER of the Student's Union/ The Observatory on Gender equality (for Spain).

If you would like to report the incident and initiate a police investigation, please call the POLICE. If you require assistance with reporting, please call the HEAD OF SECURITY (for the UK) if you live off campus. If you live on campus, please call your RESIDENCE MANAGER. They will assist you in liaising with the POLICE.

In case of an emergency, please dial 999 (for the UK), 112 / 113 / 1522 (for Italy)[20], 112 (for Poland) and 112 (for Spain).

The University will regard any incident of gender-based violence as a serious matter and will help you in every possible way, every step of the way.

University Pro Vice-Chancellor/Rector/Dean of Students/ Guarantor

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[20] These are all national helplines but the operators answer on a local basis.

5.4.2 Routine and robust data collection mechanisms initiated by university service providers

The Italian Team has noted that based on the stakeholder interviews, the nature and the extent of the problem of gender-based sexual violence does not clearly emerge. University officials do not possess documentation on the cases occurring within the university and there is no information concerning the requests for help made by female students to those in formal authority. The team has further noted that incidents of stalking which seems to find a fertile environment in the university are hidden and underreported to officials. The **UK team** has noted, based on the stakeholders interviews, that while the problem of gender-based sexual violence might not be extensive, "the possibly is that we [stakeholders] never find out about such incidents". The German, Polish, and Spanish research team have also noted stakeholders' lack of comprehensive knowledge on the nature and prevalence of gender-based sexual violence at universities.

The **Italian, Polish,** and **UK** teams have stressed the vital need to research, collect data, and create of a network among university officals in order to generate knowledge on the real extent of gender-based sexual violence within universities which is the critical prerequisite of effective prevention and response. To this end, the **Italian** and **Polish** teams have suggested that alongside regular anonymous online questions about the prevalence of violence, data could be collected in the following ways:

1. Routine survey of students who drop out of university about their reasons for doing so
2. Routine evaluation of therapeutic and student services personnel by those who make use of them
3. Annual reports compiled by therapeutic and student services personnel (including data on the number of those seeking help and their reasons for doing so)

Some University offices are uniquely placed to carry out such activities. For example, in 2008 at the Ruhr University, the working group '***Fairness at work***' was set up. The group drew up the 'Guideline on Protection from Discrimination, Sexualised Violence and Bullying.' This was adopted by the university Senate and implemented as a service agreement between the staff council and the university management for complaints management. The group, composed of an equal number of women and men, represents a cross-section of the university. The working group is headed by the (female) Equal Opportunities Officer. The task of the working group is to raise awareness specifically around the issue of discrimination, sexualised violence and bullying and to contribute to removing the taboo around these issues at the university. Taking account of people's personal experiences, it develops practical measures in terms of publicity as well as measures aimed at integrating the issue into tutorials and course guidance sessions and into the existing university advanced training programme (especially for management staff). Once a year the group receives a report containing the following information from all those who have registered complaints:

1. status of the person lodging the complaint
2. status of the alleged perpetrator
3. type of incident
4. location where this incident occurred (e.g. lecture theatre, lecturers' room, open space on campus)

Similarly in the UK, most universities have in house 'Anti-Harassment officers' and every UK publicly funded university is required by law to have a gender equity policy. Legal responsibilities with regards to gender equity in the UK mean that every university must:

1. Prepare and publish a gender equality scheme and action plan. Universities need to show they will their general and specific duties and they must set out their gender equality objectives.
2. Gather and use information on how the institution's policies and practices affect gender equality.
3. Consult stakeholders (e.g.: employees, students, trade unions) to determine gender equality objectives.
4. Assess the impact of the university's current / proposed policies /practice on gender equality.
5. Implement the actions set out in the scheme.
6. Report against the scheme every year; review the scheme periodically (at least every three years).

Anti-Harassment officers are usually Faculty and managerial staff members in the UK who have volunteered and been trained to undertake this role. These officers can take the lead in the routine and regular documentation of different forms of gender-based sexual violence in keeping with 'gender equity' principles. **Italian** stakeholders have noted in their interviews that they believe the main responsibility concerning preventive and intervention measures lies within the office of the Ombudsman of the university. Since it is the Ombudsman who is approached by the university population (students, professors, teaching staff) when incidents take place that do not comply with university's moral criteria, the office of the Ombudsman could be charged with undertaking such a role in the Italian context. The **Polish** team suggests that the Rector can collect requisite information on gender-based sexual violence based on compliance with a code of ethics.

Anti-harassment officers, Fairness at work officials, Rectors, and Guarantors at European Universities can take the lead in the routine collection of robust data on the nature and prevalence of gender-based sexual violence. Data could be collected informally and formally using a wide variety of channels and networks within the university and outside it. Data collection must be underpinned by relevant formal and legal protocols that ensure confidentiality for the survivor and the perpetrator during any formal investigation. Furthermore, formal protocols for shared collection and use of information (based on consent) to eliminate the need for the victim to retell the experience multiple times could be put into place if universities decide to routinely collect data on gender-based sexual violence.

5.4.3 Awareness of the issue at universities: Creating and operationalising educational programmes

Based on North American research, it seems that education programmes provide an important preventative and ameliorative function with respect to forms of sexual victimisation and violence perpetration. Targeted educational programmes with groups such as potential (or actual) victims, potential (or actual) perpetrators, and bystanders offer a 'best practices' approach towards long-term prevention. **The Italian and Spanish team** note that universities should invest in programmes that promote peer education and bystander intervention techniques. A combination of educational initiatives should be directed at the student body as a whole with specific educational programmes targeting specific groups. To this end, the **German team** suggests three evaluated initiatives, at universities, to raise students' awareness:

1. **Tray information inlay**

   A tray information inlay is extremely effective in getting messages across, as at many universities students frequent communal spaces such as university cafeterias and bars. Booklets and information can be placed at cafeterias and student union spaces such as sports rooms, bars, and cafés. Since the tray information inlay would be a new feature at universities and would be issued sporadically, it will be even more noticeable due to its novelty.

2. **Stickers in women's toilets**

   Toilets provide an opportunity to direct information about measures against sexual violence to a specific target group: toilet doors and mirrors above wash basins have long been recognised as effective advertising surfaces that attract attention and information. Flyers and stickers can be disseminated here.

3. **Poster exhibitions and consciousness raising**

   In Germany, a poster exhibition undertaken by the German victim protection organisation "The White Ring" on the issue of violence against women is to be shown at Ruhr University, in a place on campus that is frequented by students. Similar poster exhibitions in conjunction with frontline women's organisations and national students unions can be carried out across European universities at appropriate venues.

Safety classes where self-defence training is an option can be provided by the university as part of its 'Duty of Care' towards students and as way to resist violent victimisation. The **Polish team** suggests that safety classes can be offered to students during *juwenelias* or as an on-going activity available throughout the academic year. By way of example, a programme schedule that can be deployed by university officials to this end and as suggested by the **Polish** team includes:

Student Safety: Programme Schedule (Issues to be covered and training provided)

- safety at home and in the city (thefts, burglaries, robberies),
- sexual violence, harassment- stereotypes associated with violence against women, facts, the extent and nature,
- problems for survivors- fear, shame, society,
- how to deal with rape / harassment (maintenance precautions, correct sequence of actions/post-incident policy),
- information on the procedures of the police, hospital, welfare centers
- information on help services at the university
- Self-defence training.

Furthermore, data from our survey show, across European nations, that female students often turn to the peers and family members after incidents of gender-based sexual violence. The **German team** notes that an important milestone on the way towards reducing violence would be reached if peer groups could be made aware of the various dimensions of the issue of gender-based sexual violence. If fellow students who are taken into the confidence of students seeking help are able to respond appropriately *because* they are aware of the existence of the advisory/counselling services available at universities and by supporting the student in taking advantage of professional help, then they can actively help to reduce the large gap in information and trust between those seeking help and the points of contact offering it. Creating a network of support and knowledge exchange between university and non-university points of contact (such as peers) is regarded as promising measure as has been proved in North American research.

The **Italian team** notes that from the stakeholders' interviews it is possible to say that discriminatory behaviours against women and gender imbalance are common in the university environment. Moreover within the university, that is traditionally considered a place of knowledge and learning, a large diffusion of stereotypes against woman (for instance, she is often seen as a sex object, she must limit her movements, dress appropriately, and so forth) seem to be present. Italian stakeholders underline that it would be important step to introduce ad hoc courses in academic programmes aimed at the diffusion of a gender culture that promotes the idea of equal opportunities between male and female students. To this end, they suggest that information campaigns and the improvement of relationship between male and female students through specific seminars and the establishment of offices that deal with gender discriminations can be a critical step in raising the awareness of gender-based sexual violence. The Italian team believe that education is a key preventive step as the problem lies in students' inability to identify what constitutes a violent act. For instance: students don't have the requisite skills to recognise certain forms of violent behaviour as abuse. That is to say that they perceive abuse as one that is only physical and sexual in nature and do not consider other kind of behaviours (such as sending pornographic materials, unwanted gifts, etc.) as gender-based sexual violence. Precisely because of these issues, there is the need for information campaigns and specialised courses on gender violence that clearly identify the different kinds of abuses against women. The **German team** suggests that academic awareness raising by gender studies lecturers seems to be a crucial step in the long term prevention of gender-based sexual violence. Gender research engages with highly topical issues: it

explores the increasing presence of the new media and technologies in our lives, develops concepts for a better work/life balance, and highlights discrimination. In this way gender studies consistently raises awareness of the ever-changing nature of society and social practices. The German team, based on the Berlin communiqué, suggests that while at university students of both genders can learn the impacts of gender-based discrimination:

> "The need to increase competitiveness must be balanced with the objective of improving the social characteristics of the European Higher Education Area, aiming at strengthening social cohesion and reducing social and gender inequalities both at national and at European level." (Berlin Communiqué 2003)

The German team notes that if the Bologna Process is implemented in terms of gender mainstreaming, action can be taken by gender studies lecturers within the framework of the Bologna Process to create gender-balanced degree courses and incorporate violence research within gender studies degrees. In order to educate all students about prevalence and nature of gender-based violence, the following areas could be addressed:

1. Gender Curricula: integrating the contents of (subject-specific) women's and gender studies into degree courses
2. Gender Studies: courses offered by institutions of Higher Education (degree courses, modules, professorships in gender studies) (Gender-Aspekte in der Einführung und Akkreditierung gestufter Studiengänge, 2011).[21]

5.4.4 Encouraging formal disclosure

Our research highlights that female university students are less likely to report incidents of gender-based sexual violence to those in formal authority with the power to create consequences than to peers, friends, and family members. This links up with North American data that show that only two percent of victims of sexual violence in a national study of college women report incidents to police, only four percent disclose to campus authorities while a majority of victims (70 percent) usually tell someone else such as a friend or family member (Fisher *et al.*, 2003). Notwithstanding that peers and family members form the majority of those to whom incidents are disclosed, formal disclosure of incidents of gender-based sexual violence at universities is important because it can help mitigate stress, anxiety, and depression related to sexual assault, harassment, and stalking and engender the creation of a more student centred environment (Shenoy *et al.*, 2010). Formal disclosure is considered "an important help-seeking behaviour that can mitigate some of the repercussions of violence" (Shenoy *et al.*, 2010. p.78).

In **Italy**, it has emerged from stakeholder interviews that female students are hesitant to contact the police in order to report a serious incident of gender-based sexual violence and often ignore the existence of other formal alternatives available at the university. Further, according to a stakeholder from **Italy**, gender-based sexual violence is "*quite wide but absolutely underground*". Such statements may refer to

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[21] http://www.gender-in-gestufte-studiengaenge.de/en_intro.php?lang=en

the hidden unreported nature of the phenomenon. Several Italian interviewees have clearly referenced this point arguing: "on the basis of my experience, the stalking habit is active within the university, among colleagues, students, teaching staff. This type of crime and the reporting of this crime faces a disclosure block by the fear of retaliation (female students don't feel sufficiently safeguarded)". In the case of Italy it has also emerged that formal disclosure is marred by the fact that harassment and stalking are sometimes perpetrated by the university staff who then force the victim to be silent by "*exercising power*". The Italian team was also informed by the police that in Bologna people do not have "the perception of particular problems concerning the female students compared with other social groups. People do not feel that Bologna University is more exposed than the other universities". As there is no evidence of the specificity of the phenomenon, the Italian team notes that formal disclosure to police personnel, an important health seeking behaviour, becomes difficult to operationalise.

The creation of an environment that encourages, and does not pressure, women to disclose incidents of gender-based sexual violence is within universities' 'Duty of Care' towards its student body. Therefore, universities owe to students and staff a duty to take reasonable care for their health and safety. This includes both psychological and physical safety. In keeping with the Duty of Care most European universities have towards their student body (in the UK, Duty of Care towards students is a legal responsibility of the university), principles underlying the policy can be used to encourage formal disclosure of gender-based sexual violence. Routinely advertising gender-based sexual violence as a violation of the rights of students, as a public health issue, and as harm underscored by the principles of 'Duty of Care' and data protection are good mechanisms that may encourage formal disclosure. Taking into account that sexual assault, stalking, and harassment fall within the purview and remit of either criminal or civil law, advertising incidents of gender-based sexual violence as specific legal violations can be helpful in encouraging disclosure as these sensitise students to their legal rights and empower them to seek formal assistance. Advertising this information can make students feel more secure in coming forward and reporting incidents. The **Italian team** suggests that an advertising campaign of gynaecological first aid, including best practices for forensic activity and the reporting of the crime should be also be promoted. Additional information about women's legal services can be given by the strategic advertising of information on posters around the university, the distribution of calling cards in which a woman can find all the information on the service (telephone number, address) can help "promote a consciousness raising of the problem" and lead to formal disclosure which in turn will capture the specificity of the phenomenon.

Formal disclosure process at universities should involve the active participation of university-based professional counsellors, health care providers, tutors or Faculty members, and security and campus law enforcement officials. University personnel who can take a lead in the creation of a social environment that promotes formal disclosure include- Harassment advisors, Student well-being officers, and equal opportunities officers (UK); Equal opportunities officers (Germany); Directors of the Observatory of Equality (Spain); Presidents of Equal Opportunities commissions (Italy), and Student Parliament officers and Rectors (in Poland)

While formal disclosure is relatively small in comparison to disclosure to other sources, our data show that students are reporting incidents to university staff.

Therefore not only are such officials uniquely placed to encourage more formal disclosure (such as to police and law enforcement) but also require education themselves on the issue of gender-based sexual violence so as to offer to students up-to-date, case specific, and tailored advice and guidance.

5.4.5 Plural policing of the serious incidents of gender-based sexual violence

King (2009) highlights that many university campuses worldwide adopt a 'standard model' policing approach which performs similarly to a State police department. Indeed, the standard model of policing uses reactive policing strategies which aim to suppress crime and which typically adopt a 'one size fits all' philosophy. The approach applies generic crime reduction approaches irrespective of crime level or the type of crime perpetrated within a given location. Approaches include increasing the size of police forces, enhanced response to police callouts and the intensive application of enforcement and arrest policies (Weisburd and Eck, 2004). Within this latter approach, 'zero tolerance policing' is often implemented, based on the premise that enforcement strategies applied broadly to offenders committing minor offences, will lead to reductions in serious crime. Amongst others, Goldstein (1979) has criticised the standard model for focusing on the resources of policing, rather than the effectiveness of the approach in reducing crime and fear. The usefulness of the approach on campus has also been questioned in light of the unique university environment which brings together a mix of racial, religious, experiential and age related factors that influence crime rates and fear of crime. This has led to questions regarding whether universities would be better suited to more flexible policing approaches (Johnson and Bromley, 1999).

Policing innovations over the last two decades have moved beyond the standard model, where three dominant trends have emerged. These are: community or plural policing, hot-spot policing and problem-oriented policing. Community policing has been the most widely adopted approach, moving away from the 'police-as-expert' model of public safety towards a response designed to engage the community as an equal partner in the reduction of crime and disorder (Schaefer Morabito, 2008). Although no set criteria dictate the form that community policing should take, there are common practices across the approach. These include working with the wider community as partners in the prevention of crime, implementing organisational structural changes that facilitate community involvement and adopting a proactive problem solving approach. This would involve for example the continuous dialogue between police, security agencies and the members of the public they are responsible for protecting in the defining and resolution of crime problems (Johnson and Bromley, 1999; Schaefer Morabito, 2008). Hot-spot policing by contrast recognises the benefits of focusing crime prevention efforts on specific crime places, crimes and offenders. The approach notes that crime is not spread evenly across communities but exists within 'clusters' or 'crime hot-spots' (Braga, 2005). The approach consequently emphasises the importance of resources being focused on these specific areas in the reduction of crime. Goldstein (1979) used the term 'problem oriented-policing' in his critique of the standard policing model and argued that in order to be effective, police must be proactive in identifying the underlying conditions conducive to crime, thus enabling them to be targeted and eliminated. The approach calls for tailor-made, focused responses that look beyond law enforcement and that involve engaging with community and government agencies to enable effective responses.

Stenning (2009. p.4) has argued that a conceptual shift is required in policing theory that does not reflect stereotypical 'deep seated' dichotomies between the 'public' and 'private' spheres, the assumption being that the 'public' police operate in the public sphere and only encroach, and are only permitted to encroach, on the private sphere either by invitation or when it is essential to do so to protect the public interest (e.g. to arrest an offender on private property). Stenning states that such divisions that underlie what is deemed legitimate police work are ill-suited to deal twentieth and twenty-first century "social organisation, economic life and property relations" (p.4). Making the case for 'plural policing' and 'public policing' and using Stenning's community-oriented approach, "in which the function of policing is performed by an ever-growing variety of state and non-state policing providers" (p.19) seems a valuable tool in policing gender-based sexual violence. This concept of plural policing is touched upon in King's research (2009) on policing campus violence. King (2009) has suggested that universities consider moving towards a community policing approach in the belief that this model will prove more effective in the policing of campus environments. Community-oriented policing on campus would require security measures that consider the different groups, needs and risks of those who comprise the university population and which would vary considerably from one campus to another. Security policy would therefore need to consider the different uses of the campus by its different groups and seek the input of these groups to tailor initiatives to all members of the university community. Such an approach would enable institutions to more effectively address women's enhanced fear of crime by allowing for a detailed exploration of the factors that underpin this fear. King (2009) argues that many American campus security departments are now effectively using community-oriented policing practices; for example, foot patrol, public education around crime, crime prevention programmes and survivor assistance programmes to reduce crime and the fear of crime.

To enable students to feel safer, recommendations were made by the NUS (2010) study including the availability of public transport, especially at night, across campus locations. Barberet *et al* (2003) have recommended 'Preferred Route Schemes' through universities which encourage students to follow a set route around campus where environmental improvements have been made, such as the cutting back of vegetation, improved lighting and use of monitored video surveillance (Sloane, 2011). Such approaches focus on Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) as opposed to prevention through policing. Jeffery's (1977, 1971) first used the phrase CPTED to argue that the physical environment, as understood and negotiated by the human, is a significant factor in the potential for crime. Designers and architects can consequently shape environments to reduce and deter criminal behaviour. A principal component of the approach is that both fear of crime, and the incidence of crime, can be reduced through modifications to the built environment. Principles of the approach include the importance of clearly defined spaces and 'natural' surveillance, recognition and resolution of conflicting space use and the reduction of isolated spaces (Schneider, 2005). Schwartz *et al* (2001) however argue that target hardening techniques that include the removal of vegetation, improved lighting, the provision of escort services and surveillance of public spaces are efforts that again address stranger violence, as opposed to intimate relationship violence which as noted, is the more predominant form on campus (Schwatz and DeKeseredy, 1997). Schwartz *et al* (2001) also argue that it would be helpful to learn whether campuses that have made

such environmental modifications report lower rates of gender-based sexual violence compared to those which have not, statistics that are currently unavailable.

The **UK team** suggests that the application of such a plural, restorative in principle, community based policing approach within the university setting may therefore go some way towards reducing serious incidents of gender-based sexual violence on the campus. If community policing is to be adopted on campus, the evidence suggests that there must be a specific emphasis on ensuring it incorporates problem-oriented components (i.e. responding to 'hot spots') and focuses on specific problems and is not punitive in nature. In keeping with the themes of plural policing and community policing, the **Polish** team suggests the creation of an ***Ambassadors Network*** which can form the basis of an integrated plural policing strategy towards preventing gender-based sexual violence. The Network should be an institution linking cooperation between appropriate university personnel (such as management staff, heads of departments, counselors and therapeutic staff, pastoral workers, and relevant student union members), police, and NGOs in helping survivors and this will ensure that survivors receive assistance and advice from one institution formed by various stakeholders. The **Polish team** recommends that the Ambassadors Network could work in close collaboration with the police and university personnel to whom formal disclosure is being made or be members of formal disclosure networks themselves. We realise this is difficult to operationalise trans-nationally in Europe (For example, in Germany if the police is involved in a case of sexual violence, they have a duty to prosecute rape/attempted rape even if the victim chooses not to go ahead with the judicial process). Therefore in EU member states where the choice to prosecute, once formal disclosure has been made, rests with the victim, the **Polish** team suggests that ambassadors could help the victim with initiating investigation (disciplinary, legal, informal) and could provide clear and concise guidance to the victim on all aspects of the prosecution process.

5.4.6 Regulating alcohol on campus

There are strong associations between the use of alcohol and sexual violence victimisation and perpetration (Babor, 2003). It has been argued that alcohol consumption can increase the risk of perpetration and victimisation and that "it can impair physical and cognitive function, reducing self control and increasing aggressive behaviour". Additionally, those who drink alcohol may be seen as being "easy targets" or more sexually available than those who do not, increasing the likelihood of victimisation" (Wood *et al*., 2010. p.14). Thus "initiatives that reduce levels of alcohol use (e.g. through increasing price or restricting sales times) or encourage sensible drinking within night-time environments have the potential to protect against sexual violence" (Wood *et al*., 2010. p.14).

While it has been highlighted that as many as three-quarters of the sexual assaults that occur on college campuses in North America involve alcohol consumption on the part of the victim, the perpetrator, or both (Abbey *et al*. 1996; Sampson 2002) and enable or contribute to what is termed a 'party rape culture' (Armstrong *et al*, 2006), the role of substance use, particularly alcohol, in relation to gender-based sexual violence is multi-faceted and complex. When substances such as alcohol are used, during sexual assault for example, by both the victim and perpetrator, this pattern makes it very difficult to disentangle the influence of alcohol on sexual violence for either the victim or perpetrator (Ullman, 2003).

In our research, we note that with respect to sexual violence, 40.5 percent of UK and 30 percent of Spanish respondents to the survey question on alcohol/drugs consumption reported that they were under the influence of alcohol and/or drugs during the most serious incident of sexual violence and believed that perpetrators were under the influence as well (50 percent of UK perpetrators, 36.1 percent of Spanish perpetrators and 32.8 percent). Further, the **UK team** notes that participants at the UK FGD spoke of specific socialisation rituals at university which involve alcohol consumption and which cause distress and alarm and heighten female students' levels of anxiety. UK FGD participants described in detail the ways in which women and men are "initiated into university". Seen as a coming of age and rites of passage into manhood and womanhood, participants noted that "boys become men at University" through various forms of peer activity on campus. This "becoming a man" takes the form of a) binge drinking at society/team initiation ceremonies b) drinking games where men are egged on by their peers to go and "kiss a woman" and c) aggressively pursuing female students. One participant noted that when new male students want to join University societies such as the Rugby team or the men's football team, they must partake of acts, fuelled by alcohol, which are women-unfriendly. These include "dressing up as a woman, wearing women's underwear and parading around the campus" and "distributing FHM magazines and other pornographic material to new recruits in their welcome pack". Participants at the UK FGD noted that when a formal complaint was registered with the University Rugby society about the distribution of pornographic material, the response was to "lighten up, learn to have some fun and understand what boys get up to". Indeed as research suggest, "gender neutral expectations to "have fun," lose control, and trust one's party-mates become problematic when combined with gendered interactional expectations" (Armstrong *et al.*, 2006. p.495). Not only do North American Fraternities and UK male sports teams, "with reputations for sexual disrespect" (Armstrong *et al.*, 2006. p.490) contribute to female students' elevated levels of fear of crime on campuses, both "offer the most reliable and private source of alcohol for first-year students excluded from bars and house parties because of age" (Armstrong *et al.*, 2006. p.489).

Our data show that the excessive consumption of alcohol and the relatively low cost of alcohol on campus are of concern to female university students and *elevate* their fear of violence as well as *lower* their sense of on-campus security. The extensive and low cost availability of alcohol during orientation weeks in **UK**, **Germany**, and **Italy**, at society initiations in the **UK**, and at *Juwenalias* in **Poland**, also enable that environment where binge drinking is rife. In such scenarios, we infer that if incidents of gender-based sexual violence were to occur and if women were drinking themselves, they would be hesitant to report incidents and would feel responsible for, what one FGD participant said, "leading up" to it. This is corroborated by our data in the section 'further statistical analyses'.

Excessive alcohol consumption that leads to instances of sexual violence and harassment and under-age drinking at universities is clearly a governance and disciplinary issue for university managements. Yet punitive approaches to binge and/or underage drinking do not seem to work in violence prevention programmes. Armstrong *et al* (2006. p.496) note that "punitive approaches sometimes heighten the symbolic significance of drinking, lead students to drink more hard liquor, and push alcohol consumption to more private and thus more dangerous spaces. Regulation

inconsistently applied—e.g., heavy policing of residence halls and light policing of fraternities—increases the power of those who can secure alcohol and host parties". Therefore using university specific disciplinary policies seems to offer a better mechanism to deal with the issue of alcohol at universities. For example in the UK, student behaviour at universities is subject to university specific 'codes of behaviour'; this however, as the **Italian and Polish teams** note, is not the case for Italy and Poland. The **UK team** learned at the FGD that none of the participants were aware that socialisation rituals such as binge drinking, heckling, drinking games, etc. were against university rules and *contravened* the code of behaviour in specific relation to the practice of initiation ceremonies. The **UK team** notes that using university specific conduct codes to govern alcohol related incidents is a promising primary and secondary prevention step. If codes of conduct that govern student behaviour are not available at universities, working with disciplinary and management personnel to create and implement these seem to be a best practice approach.

It also seems appropriate, from a best practices approach, to recommend the social audit of alcohol policies on campus (as suggested by the **UK** team). The **UK** team believes that this should include an audit of price policies and an audit of incidents of under-age drinking especially at student union spaces and in the campus halls of residence. The cheap availability of alcohol on campuses, often at prices lower than the national average, which promotes a binge-drinking culture, should be a cause for intervention by university management and student unions. The routine advertisement of alcohol related harm by universities and the promotion of policies underpinned by the 'drink-aware' principles could be a best practices approach as would be the utilization of university specific 'codes of conduct' to govern and discipline alcohol related misconduct and violence at universities.

5.5 Recommendations for 'best practices' in preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence at universities

While research on the nature, extent, and prevalence of gender-based sexual violence against female university students is a relatively new area of academic inquiry, originating just over two decades ago, newer yet is research into the creation and development of effective long-term prevention models within a 'best practices' paradigm and their evaluations. Therefore creating a robust, multi-actor, and multi-agency response to gender-based sexual violence at universities presents a complex challenge.

Fortunately, our research demonstrates that majority of incidents of gender-based violence at universities is at the less serious end of the scale and that only a small number of student respondents to our national rollout surveys have reported being victims of the most serious forms of gender-based violence. Simultaneously, it is obvious that female student victims overwhelmingly disclose incidents to family members and friends, rather than to university authorities or police. This seems to point to the fact that victimised female students would rather deal with incidents within their social networks and through informal channels, rather than through more formal university or criminal justice processes. This suggests that heavy-handed, bureaucratic, and punitive criminal justice responses are neither appropriate nor desired by most students who are victims of gender-based sexual violence.

We know from existing prevention and response studies that:

1. A commitment to not tolerating and ending gender-based sexual violence clearly articulated by the highest authority in the university and manifesting in a multi-agency procedural policy assuages female students 'fear of crime' (Rozee and Koss, 2001) and positively impacts on their general well-being and promotes a richer university experience.
2. Gender-specific and targeted educational and sensitising interventions are 'best practice' (Rozee and Koss, 2001; Ullman, 2002).
3. Survivors of sexual assault are at risk for repeat assaults therefore long term 'primary prevention' programmes must be created in conjunction with short-term crisis intervention or what is termed 'secondary prevention' as well as 'tertiary prevention'.
4. Preventive work should focus on developing empowering self-regulatory skills for female students as well as educational and sensitising programmes targeting both female and male students.
5. University service providers need to be trained in all aspects of preventive work.

In keeping with standards of best practices, effective prevention and response at European universities should entail the creation, implementation and delivery of '**model policies**' and '**model programmes and procedures**'. Model policies should include:

1. Policies that raise awareness of the issue of gender-based sexual violence in keeping with 'primary prevention' principles.
2. Policies that raise awareness of the issue of gender-based sexual violence in keeping with 'tertiary prevention' principles.
3. A clear and precise 'post-incident' policy in keeping with 'secondary prevention' principles.
4. Routine and robust data collection mechanisms to understand the issues and 'govern' them in a plural manner (Stenning, 2009).
5. Policies that encourage, but do not mandate, formal disclosure.
6. Policies that regulate alcohol consumption and specifically address underage and binge drinking.
7. Policies based on the expertise of multiple actors within and outside the university
8. Policies that respond to 'hot spot' concerns.
9. Policies that address elements of student culture that encourage aggressive sexual behaviour towards females.
10. Policies that clearly allocate responsibilities within the university community for addressing and responding to gender-based sexual violence, and establish cooperative relationships between those to whom such responsibilities are allocated.

Model programmes and procedures should include:

1. **Enhancing, and improving communication to students about, formal university policies on gender-based violence and gender equality** (and the commitment of universities to reducing the former and fostering the latter)- An integrated policy and a clearly defined institutional procedure based on the expertise and specialist knowledge of different stakeholders engaged in the common campaign against gender-based sexual violence is the most viable model to prevent incidents of sexual harassment, stalking, and sexual violence. We recommend the creation and implementation of a clear and transparent policy on gender-based sexual violence at universities and the integrated service delivery of this policy at universities. University Equal opportunity offices could draft a formal institutional response to gender-based sexual violence clearly highlighting the role of various university stakeholders in preventive work and delineate, clearly, the procedures in place at the university for victim assistance and support. If there are no procedures in place at the university (as is the case in Spain), these offices should take the lead in their creation in close collaboration with authorities within the university and outside it. Further, students should be made aware that the university is a place free from harassment and discrimination and that there are clear procedures in place in the case of gender-based sexual violence for the survivor and clear rules for the perpetrator. Such a policy will allow victims to believe that they are not helpless and the perpetrator will know the consequences of his/her action which will guarantee a smooth and victim-centered investigation should the victim choose to initiate formal investigation.

2. **Enhancing, and informing students better about, services and resources available** (both within and outside the university) to victims should they wish to avail themselves of these and assisting them to do so- The UK team has developed a 'first port of call' poster to highlight this point. The first port of call poster can be strategically placed at university spaces so that students are aware of whom to approach at the university should they wish to disclose an incident and/or seek formal help. Similarly, the German team's evaluated tray-information inlay and other sensitising techniques perform a similar function and convey to the students in a precise manner the availability of resources within the university structure and off campus resources.

3. **Preventive, remedial and informal, rather than more formal, punitive responses, in all but the most serious cases of gender-based sexual violence**- our findings indicate that (a) the great majority of incidents are at the lower end of the seriousness scale, and (b) that our respondents who had been victimised have indicated clearly that in the great majority of cases their preference was/would be to 'deal' with their victimisation informally by calling upon support from friends, family, etc., rather than through more formal university or police/criminal justice channels. While universities should accept that students may legitimately not wish them to be involved in the less serious incidents of gender-based sexual violence that they may experience, there is a need for universities to improve their responses to those students who do choose to involve the university in responding to these incidents. University officials, to whom disclosure is being made, must therefore be trained in all

aspects of gender-based violence preventive work so that they can provide appropriate assistance and guidance to survivors. Our recommendation for 'best practice' therefore is that universities respond to gender-based sexual violence in ways that support and empower victims and respect their preferences, and that this necessarily involves more informal, remedial responses (and facilitating access to these for victims), rather than more formal, punitive responses, in the great majority of cases. This also means that where victims have indicated disclosing incidents to formal authorities, universities should similarly do all they can to support victims and facilitate their access to post incident legal and criminal justice support, if the survivor chooses this.

4. **Educating all students (male and female) about gender-based sexual violence and how to avoid, prevent, and respond to it and support victims of gender-based sexual violence-** Universities should invest in or fund educational and sensitising programmes for targeted communities on the campus based on 'primary', 'secondary' and 'tertiary' prevention principles. These programmes based on 'awareness raising' can be included either in the curricula (as suggested by the German team) or offered by the university in conjunction with third-sector and police personnel. Resistance training, underpinned by risk-management principles, could be offered at campus universities so as to prevent sexual assault and prevent a completed attack. Training on bystander techniques to prevent violence can be offered by student unions, equal opportunities officers, and anti-harassment bodies on the campus. Education on 'rape myths' that counter gender insensitive social norms can be given via social marketing campaigns at the university.

5. **Universities should coordinate**, as best they can, **the efforts of a wide range of people and resources** both within and outside their universities, in preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence at their universities- Universities should consider establishing a multi-disciplinary **task force** composed of student body members, university service providers, security personnel and other stakeholders who will be vested with the authority to co-ordinate the university's policies, procedures and practices in preventing and responding to gender-based violence. A 'best practices' approach would include the integration of available services at universities based on a clear, concise, and transparent policy on gender-based sexual violence.

Therefore a comprehensive institutional policy on gender-based sexual violence that is transparent and concise, the existence and effective implementation of various educational and sensitising programmes and redress procedures that are routinely evaluated for efficiency and are underpinned by the primary, secondary, and tertiary principles of violence prevention are the most effective approaches towards preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence at European universities.

6. Conclusions

6.1 Findings

6.1.1 Prevalence and nature of gender-based sexual violence

The lack of (comparable) data on gender-based sexual violence in European countries along with the fact that stakeholders and authorities possess inadequate knowledge regarding the prevalence and nature of sexual violence made it apparent that research with European student populations would be needed in order to help identify the nature and extent of female students' experiences of sexual harassment, abuse and stalking. Such research can also serve to build up a meaningful evidence base which can be drawn upon to conceptualise and understand the issues and to inform policy. This was the aim of the current research project, which succeeded in gathering more than 21,000 responses by female students from five European countries.

Since the large majority of research addressing students' experiences of sexual victimisation has so far been based in North America, there was an urgent need to gather transnational comparative data for Europe. In addition to data on prevalence, our survey provides qualitative information gathered in interviews with women who have experienced victimisation as well as with those who work within HE institutions and have responsibility for relevant university policy. It also provides information that can enhance quantitative survey methods and can help to build a more comprehensive model of understanding. Valid cross-national research was needed to help understand the situational and socio-cultural factors relating to gender-based sexual violence. This in turn makes it possible to devise tailored programmes of measures on awareness raising and prevention. To this end, the current research project constitutes the first coordinated European study of female students' experiences of gender-based sexual violence, including sexual assault, sexual harassment and stalking, and incorporating both quantitative and qualitative methods. The study also constitutes original work exploring the characteristics associated with such victimisation, thus raising awareness at a European level around its occurrence and the factors associated with gender-based violence.

As presented in the literature review, one of the fundamental problems with quantitative research on violence is often the lack of comparability between different studies on account of their non-standardised methodologies and measurement periods. For this reason the present study was set up as a country comparison with identical data collection methods, for the first time providing completely comparable transnational data on the different forms of sexualised abuse. Despite the study's broad basis, however, the question of whether female students constitute a high risk group cannot be answered with a clear yes or no. Since the study did not additionally address non-student control groups of the same age within the different countries, it is necessary to refer here to the prevalence rates found in American campus research on the one hand and the results from study samples based on national populations on the other – albeit care needs to be taken when comparing each of these with our own results. What we can say given this situation, however, is that the extent to which female students are affected by violence is above average ***due to their age***. Although comparable data based on national populations do not exist for all five partner countries, British and German studies on the prevalence of violence demonstrate this

abundantly clearly. In relation to both sexual harassment and sexual violence – and especially in relation to stalking – women aged between 18 and 24 are those most affected by sexualised violence. The large majority of students in all five partner countries fall within this age group. The data made available by our study reflects this finding: at least half of the female students surveyed had experienced sexual harassment at some point in their lives (51.1 percent), more than a third had been affected by acts typical of stalking (36 percent) and nearly one in ten students had been a victim of criminal sexual assault (8.7 percent). Considering the significant dropout rate and given that respondents were asked about their experiences of sexual assault at a late stage of the questionnaire (when a significant number of respondents had already dropped out), the latter rate may be underestimated. Beyond the age-specific prevalence rates, however, there are no general indications that young women are more at risk of sexual assault *as students* than women of a similar age in the wider community.

One of the initial questions posed by the project was whether or not female students are affected to a greater than average extent by violence. The answer to this is: probably not. Another question that guided the research can be answered more conclusively: the general negative effects of violence experienced by women during their studies are wide-ranging and of considerable significance for HE institutions in Europe. Although it is positive to note that only a small proportion of the violence experienced by female students occurs at the university itself, the university is nonetheless confronted by its impacts. For example, while at least one in four students in the global sample says she has not experienced any negative effects as a result of her experience of sexual harassment, less than one in five students says this of herself in relation to experiences of stalking and only 0.5 percent do so in relation to sexual violence. And although these effects are not always equally as serious or long lasting, they have a marked negative influence on the student's academic performance nonetheless. Of those European students who said that they had felt threatened by incidents of stalking and sexual violence they had experienced, one in three said, in relation to stalking and sexual violence, that her academic performance had been affected. In relation to sexual violence one in four saw the progress of her studies delayed as a result.

6.1.2 Differences within Europe?

When comparing the quantitative and qualitative results from the different countries, the first and most striking impression is how similar they are. Not only the prevalence rates but also the circumstances, effects and students' perceptions of abusive incidents as well as their disclosure behaviour are overwhelmingly similar in the different countries, revealing very few obvious differences. As detailed in the methods section, the national data sets differed so greatly in size that it was not possible to conduct any further statistical analyses taking the country as an influencing factor. Despite this, it is worthwhile to offer a descriptive account of the national differences.

First, it is apparent that, in the overwhelming majority of cases, all three forms of violence are committed by men. In terms of the mean values extracted from the overall European sample, 96.9 percent of those who sexually harassed the respondent and 96.6 percent of those who committed sexual violence were male, while the proportion of men involved in cases of stalking was somewhat lower (91.1 percent). The Spanish data revealed a noticeable deviation in the gender distribution: here, women were the perpetrators in just under a third of incidents of sexual harassment

and stalking and in just under one fifth of incidents of sexual violence. However, given that the Spanish data are based on a very small case number, it is difficult (if not impossible) to offer an accurate interpretation of these results.

In addition to the very similar gender distribution, another characteristic of the data is also striking. Taking the European sample as a whole, a smaller proportion of those involved in abusive incidents is from the university environment – just under a third in the case of stalking and sexual violence and just over a third in the case of sexual harassment. The British data reveal precisely the opposite, however. At least a third of the perpetrators involved in incidents of sexual harassment and sexual violence are from the university environment, while in the case of stalking roughly half the perpetrators were from the university environment. Since this distribution deviates considerably from the European average, it deserves closer attention. With regard to those perpetrators who are from the university environment, the vast majority are male fellow students. Whereas in Europe overall only roughly a quarter of cases of stalking and sexual violence and just under one third of incidents of sexual harassment on average involved other (male) students, the latter are involved more than twice as often in the British case. Correspondingly, far more abusive incidents occur at the university itself in Britain – most often in student residences and student areas, such as the students union bar and other social spaces,– compared with the European average. Nearly three quarters of cases of stalking, just over three quarters of cases of sexual violence, and just under one third of incidents of sexual harassment take place in on-campus halls of residence, whereas in the global sample just over a quarter of cases of stalking, half the incidents of sexual violence, and just one in ten cases of sexual harassment take place there. A comparison with regard to student union areas is difficult to undertake, as such rooms do not exist in every country. However, where they do, far fewer abusive incidents take place in the other countries. In the course of interpreting this specificity of the British situation, other specificities additionally come to light, which are likely to prove significant given this much higher rate of violence committed by male fellow students. For example, more than half of the British female students are aged twenty or younger, while for the five European countries overall, this youngest age group constitutes on average only a quarter of the female students. At the same time, nearly half of the British female students live in a student residence, whereas just under one in six of their counterparts in the other countries do so. We must however note that all three participating universities in the UK are campus universities where students spend the majority of their daily lives on campus and use campus premises for living, leisure activities, as well as academic pursuits. . This social and academic situation also resonates with American campus research: starting out at university coincides with leading an independent, "adult" life for the first time, without parental interference, and this in a community of like-minded peers. While it is characteristic of both genders to enter into sexual contact with others at this age, male society initiation rites in this new "adult" life, quite similar to North American fraternity initiations, include binge drinking and sexually aggressive behaviour towards female fellow students. More often than not such aggressive behaviour is viewed by male students as a form of "dare" or a bit of innocuous "fun". This is confirmed by our UK focus group data and our quantitative data show that the consumption of alcohol and drugs, for example, plays a much greater role in the sexual violence experienced by British students than it does in the other countries. Four out of ten British female students believed that the person who assaulted them sexually had consumed alcohol or drugs, while as many as six out of ten indicated that they themselves had been

under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time. In the global sample only one in three female students said this of herself and only one in four in relation to the person who committed the assault. In line with this, three times as many British female students said that they had been groped and kissed against their will by male fellow students and nearly twice as many had experienced criminal sexual assaults by male fellow students compared with the European average.

However, the specificity of the British situation is not all negative. In the case of sexual violence, the data show that living in proximity to the university also entails certain advantages with regard to disclosure behaviour. British students differ considerably compared with their European fellow students in terms of their disclosure behaviour. While only one in ten European students on average goes to the police if she has experienced a form of criminal sexual assault, in Britain at least one in six does so. In cases of sexual violence, three times as many British students confide in university staff, in cases of sexual harassment four times as many, and in cases of stalking five times as many compared with the other European students, and they confide by far the most in a fellow student if they have experienced an abusive incident. This connection between living in close proximity to the university (e.g. in a student residence) and an increased rate of disclosure within the university structures was explored further in a more detailed analysis of the quantitative data and was thereby confirmed. The fact that British students have slightly fewer experiences of sexual violence during their time at university compared with the average may indicate that the measures implemented in Britain are effective in terms of positively influencing disclosure behaviour and protecting young women from (repeat) victimisation. The psychological and social proximity of students to their university that is characteristic of British campus universities could thus be used to positively influence the students' help-seeking behaviour within the university, given that they place greater trust in the institution's representatives than in non-university support services. This is also significant for students throughout Europe who live predominantly in student residences during their time at university: their disclosure behaviour could possibly be influenced positively via the student residences, for example, by employing – and making the students aware of – full-time contact persons from student organisations and the university administration. If we also consider that student residences are used especially by non-domestic students – who, as the qualitative data show, find it especially difficult to seek help if they have experienced violence due to cultural and language barriers – this aspect becomes even more important.

With regard to criminal sexual assault Italian students (along with the German students) are affected to a slightly below-average extent, relative to both their lifetime as a whole and to their time at university. However, unlike their German fellow students, the Italian students surveyed are affected to a lesser extent than their German fellow students by the negative effects of their experiences, particularly regarding symptoms of depression and lowered self-esteem. This is also revealed in the negative effects which the sexual violence they experienced has had on their studies: although more of them said that their studies had been delayed on account of their experience of sexual violence compared with the other European students, the number who said their experience had hampered their academic performance was the lowest. This perception corresponds to their perception of the sexual violence they experienced. More Italian students than the other European students reject the idea that they share responsibility for what happened to them and insist instead that the

person who assaulted them should be punished for the offence. Our data provide no conclusive evidence to explain either the origins of this much stronger immunity to feelings of shame and guilt among the Italian students or the fewer negative impacts on their self-esteem and academic performance that may result from this. Yet it might be promising to explore this correlation in further research.

To sum up, then, it can be said that in the context of a university community, female students are faced with social and cultural norms that cultivate gender roles in a specific way. The variety of studying and living conditions described above play a part in this, and these need to be considered when devising relevant measures. They thus form part of the conceptual background to the following presentation of recommended measures.

6.2 Recommended improvements to prevention and response

On the basis of the data presented here, we now seek to present and recommend a set of effective and appropriate measures for preventing gender-based sexual violence as well as practical ways of confronting and dealing with incidents of sexual violence at European universities.

The prevention and response model recommended here draws upon the rich sources of information available within feminist, criminological and public-health theory. More important though, as one of the first ever studies of its kind to be conducted, it is strongly grounded empirically. Drawing on the expertise of at least 71 key stakeholders and referring to the wishes expressed by more than 21,000 female students, its focus is heavily oriented towards lived, practical experience and actors' views. In the following we present four key elements which inform our model. These are: feelings of lack of safety, issues of disclosure, students' displeasure with existing university policies and procedures on gender-based sexual violence, and stakeholders' inadequate knowledge of individual and collective responsibilities. These four emerged from the analysis of qualitative and quantitative data and will therefore be presented in terms of how they form the basis for the recommendations presented subsequently. The recommendations are presented in detail in Chapter 5, and so in order to avoid repetition they will not be presented individually or in detail at this stage.

6.2.1 Fear of crime and feelings of lack of safety at universities

Our research has highlighted the fact that universities are environments where female students experience various forms of sexual victimisation and where levels of fear of crime and victimisation are high – often disproportionately higher than actual recorded levels of gender-based sexual violence. In developing a prevention and response model for European universities, the need to address safety and security in conjunction with female students' fear of crime is therefore crucial.

The fact that a very small proportion of the violence experienced by female students takes place on the university campus or in university buildings constitutes only part of students' lived reality. In fact, the majority of violence students experience during their time of study happens outside university. At the same time, half of the students feel unsafe when they walk alone in the dark on the university premises, and many of them constrict their own freedom of movement (in some cases quite considerably) on

account of the fear they feel. This feeling of fear and the places where assaults actually take place exist in a paradoxical relation to one another: it has been shown that female students feel especially unsafe in places where, statistically speaking, the fewest assaults occur. Sexual violence actually takes place much more frequently in places that are not perceived by the students to be scary. This discrepancy between subjective perception and actual experience also exists in the case of sexual harassment and stalking. In order to elucidate this situation more clearly, the students who participated in the focus group interviews were asked about the reasons why they felt unsafe. What emerged from this was the phenomenon of rape myths: contrary to the criminological fact that the overwhelming majority of cases of sexual violence occur within the woman's close circle of family and friends and despite a greater amount of awareness raising in schools, the preconception of a stranger lurking outside in the dark is still firmly embedded in young women's imaginations. The students are aware that this notion is influenced by fear-inducing scenarios involving an unknown attacker lurking behind the bushes:

> "...what pops into your head first, of course, is when you're walking across campus at nine in the evening and then you're dragged into the bushes by some bloke or other". (FGD Ruhr University Bochum)

What also became clear in the interviews, however, was that architectural issues affect the students' feelings of safety. For example, the huge building complexes at campus universities are seen as labyrinthine, containing many small, enclosed spaces that are partially hidden from view and poorly lit. These are perceived as dangerous places, especially during the evenings. Many students are generally reluctant to remain on campus after dark and sometimes avoid going to lectures or seminars that take place at this time of day. Buildings in poor condition are also reported to induce fear.

Thus in order to boost female students' feelings of safety in an effective way, the university management is called upon to take several parallel courses of remedial action. It should ensure that those parts of the existing architecture perceived to be fear inducing should be removed and no such features should be included in future building measures. The management's actions should not be restricted to purely architectural or infrastructural changes, however. Rather, it is also important to provide specific information to help counter common rape myths and their associated assumptions of strangers lurking in dark places and thus to address the causes of women's feelings of lack of safety. Self-defence trainings (see **5.2.1.3 'Resistance strategies'**) can also be a useful addition to this. If this kind of information policy is combined with a commitment articulated clearly by the highest authority in the university to not tolerate gender-based sexual violence but to seek to end it and if such a commitment is manifested in a multi-agency procedural policy response, then – as other studies have shown – female students' "fear of crime" can be assuaged and positive impacts on their general well-being generated, thereby promoting a richer university experience for them.

6.2.2 Issues of disclosure

If we regard speaking about a violent experience as a crucial first step towards seeking help – which ideally leads to being able to cope with the experience and to avoid violence in the future – then disclosure by students affected by gender-based violence

is of special interest in terms of devising recommendations for action and preventive measures as a key objective of the present project. What are the circumstances that prevent students affected by violence from speaking out about the abusive incident they have experienced? What can help them to talk about it?

On a positive note, our study indicated that slightly more female students take advantage of external support services compared with the average among the overall population. However, their rates of disclosure and, in particular, of pressing charges in cases of criminal sexual assault are by far the lowest compared with the other forms of violence we measured, namely, stalking and sexual harassment. This means that the majority of incidents of criminal sexual assault go unreported. Research on gender-specific violence has long shown that there is a close link between women often remaining silent about the violence they have experienced and the circumstances in which the violence occurred. As the figures in our study also confirm, the majority of cases of sexual violence occur within women's close circle of family and friends. As a result, those affected find it extremely difficult to define what they have experienced as definitely constituting violence, and very often they feel partly responsible for what happened to them.

As the qualitative interviews have shown, the widespread preconception that violence tends to happen to under-privileged, uneducated women has particularly negative repercussions for students: their self-image as confident, independent women is difficult to reconcile with the lack of control that accompanies an experience of violence. Accordingly, there is a danger that students, as privileged women, are unable to acknowledge to themselves that what they experienced was violence, and that they suppress it or fail to take it seriously – or, if they do define it as violence, that they find it hard to seek support because they see it as an admission of their inability to look after themselves. As a confident, independent woman (so the reasoning goes), this type of thing shouldn't have happened to them in the first place, and if it did, then they should at least deal with it on their own – this is one way of summing up this view. The question formulated above regarding whether or not female students constitute a high risk group can, on the basis of this observation, be answered again thus: female students may not be more at risk of sexual violence than women of similar ages in the wider community; however, it might be that their self-perception as privileged, independent women constitutes a hindering factor when it comes to taking advantage of the support on offer.

Whereas feelings of shame and guilt in connection with experiences of sexual violence have been the subject of predominantly qualitative research to date, at least the very size of the German data set has made it possible to conduct a statistical study of the widely accepted assumption that such feelings have an adverse impact on disclosure. This revealed that the woman's perception of her experience and her relationship to the person who committed the assault had by far the biggest influence on disclosure. If the person affected knows her aggressor and/or feels partly responsible for the assault she experienced, these circumstances have an especially adverse impact on disclosure. Unexpectedly, by contrast, the place where the victim experienced the assault along with whether or not she was under the influence of alcohol or drugs during the assault have a much smaller influence.

As mentioned above in the context of the students' feelings of safety, information is the primary, crucial means of reducing feelings of shame and guilt and thereby increasing rates of disclosure among students. Exposing commonly held rape myths for what they are by informing women about the actual realities of sexual violence as a phenomenon that takes place predominantly within women's close social circles greatly increases the chances of preventing assaults within this immediate social sphere. This is a form of primary prevention: students are enabled to identify these kinds of situation as a form of assault and to defend themselves before any extreme violence can occur. It also constitutes a secondary form of prevention insofar as assaults do not have to be dismissed as harmless or suppressed and not talked about by the person who experienced them on account of associated feelings of shame and guilt. Instead, they can be understood as a problem rooted structurally in constructions of gender that encourage violence and only to a lesser extent as one to do with the individual behaviour of those affected. Instruments such as awareness-raising programmes, self-assertiveness courses and a general university policy that refuses to tolerate gender-based sexual violence can have an immediate positive impact on disclosure and thus on the victims' ability to process what they have experienced and to avert future violence by enabling them to take a more realistic view of the part they played in the situation – i.e. less encumbered by feelings of shame and guilt – and thus to acquire more options to act. A detailed evaluation of the effectiveness of these measures has not yet been conducted. However, the quantitative data from our study already point in a certain direction: in Britain and Germany – that is, the two countries in which prevention strategies and awareness-raising programmes have already been widely implemented – far more of the students surveyed said they had experienced violent situations in which they did not feel threatened, compared with Spain, Italy and Poland, where there are fewer university and non-university prevention and response measures in place. In other words, it can be assumed that their perception of what counts as an assault is comparatively more pronounced.

Alongside the feeling of being partly responsible, there is another important influence in the institutional context being looked at here that has an adverse influence on the students' disclosure behaviour, especially towards university-based points of contact. This is the power gap that exists between students and teachers in the case of assaults committed by the latter. The quantitative data show that a smaller proportion of assaults are committed by academic and non-academic university staff compared with those committed by (male) fellow students. Nevertheless, such assaults do occur, most often in the form of sexual harassment. The small case numbers mean that it is not possible to study the power gap statistically as an influencing factor, and yet the qualitative data provide important information indicating that the students do not trust the university as an institution. They presume that, when it comes down to the line, the university's reputation carries more weight than an individual student's complaint, and they also worry about being disadvantaged in their further academic or professional career: "*There are structures where you could say, he's a poster boy for the faculty, we can't just suddenly remove him just because a student made a complaint*" (student in interview). Female doctoral candidates are even faced with a double dependency in relation to their boss, who is also their PhD supervisor and on whose goodwill an essential part of their career depends.

In this context it would be a mistake to underestimate the role played by the degree of trust female students have in state-run and public institutions within a country. The data revealed, for example, that fewer than half of the Polish students said they went to the police compared with their fellow students in the other European countries, no matter which form of violence they had experienced. Even if this almost certainly has to do partly with the fact that the forms of assault concerned are not (yet) subject to criminal prosecution, the reasons given for not reporting the incidents show that, in comparison to Germany, the students' concerns about being treated poorly by the police played a much bigger role. It can be assumed that these concerns are a legacy from the totalitarian era. Accordingly, the way prevention and response measures are implemented in countries with a similar history should place special emphasis on ensuring that processes are democratic and structures transparent.

If a university as an institution wishes to combat gender-based sexual violence in the long term, it should create a general awareness of the fact that sexual harassment and violence in particular are neither the personal problem of those individuals affected by them and nor are they tolerated by others. It is only in this kind of atmosphere that individuals who assault others can no longer benefit from the fear, shame and self-blame of their victims. Dealing with this issue as an institution goes much further than optimising the university's counselling services: it constitutes a fundamental task that needs to be tackled across the board by every member of the university. The implementation of programmes and policies that raise awareness and of policies and procedures that encourage, but do not mandate, formal disclosure, is unmistakably a management task which can be implemented effectively over the long term only if it is initiated and financed by the university management and is made subject to long-term evaluation by means of a controlling system.

6.2.3 Students' displeasure with existing university policies

Both the qualitative and quantitative data point towards a negative state of affairs at universities; not least in the interests of its students, the institution itself should see to it that this situation is remedied. Even if – indeed, especially if – assaults occur in the university environment, female students tend not to turn to university-based support services because (as described above) they lack trust in the institution. In addition to long-term information campaigns and a university policy that establishes clear complaint procedures and clear divisions of responsibility to ensure that its attitude towards gender-based sexual violence and its actions to combat it are as transparent as possible, networking among all those involved is also particularly important. Thus the willingness of office holders to play a part in processes of change is very welcome: stakeholders took great interest and invested considerable energy in the process, considering the outcomes of the survey to be very helpful for their work and for future developments at the university. At the same time, one important outcome of the study is that the rates of disclosure by female students affected by sexual violence registered by the university-based support services do not reflect the actual extent of assaults. Moreover, due to a lack of relevant surveys, office holders are not necessarily aware of the problems. In order to counter this imbalance, a clear and precise "post-incident" policy and routine and robust data collection mechanisms are needed in order to understand the issues and to "govern" them in a plural manner. Also needed are policies and programmes based on the expertise of multiple actors and co-ordination between them. Particular attention should be paid to this collaboration between very different departments and services within the university. It

became apparent in the stakeholder interviews and also in the student focus group interviews that "informal" contact persons who initially have nothing to do with the issue – such as study advisors, chaplains, student representatives (e.g. in student unions) and even caretakers and administrators of halls of residence – have been used as the first point of contact because the victims already knew them from another context. Pre-existing personal contacts make it easier for victims to talk about experiences of violence and should therefore be used institutionally. By establishing contact with these informal contacts and encouraging networking and an exchange of information with them, official points of contact can use them as potential door-openers for women affected by violence. Fellow students who have been made aware of the issue of violence and of options for help and intervention could also play a similarly crucial role.

Both the quantitative and the qualitative data indicate that an individual from the victims' circle of friends or family is the first – and often the only – person to be confided in if they have experienced sexual violence. If this happens to be a fellow student – that is, also someone from the university environment – this offers a big opportunity to raise awareness of the issues among students and thereby to ensure that friends who are confided in advise the person to seek professional help from victim support services and to support them and perhaps accompany them when they make contact. Making the broader social setting more aware of gender-based sexual violence could be another key link between victims and support services. At the very least, the university's own support staff could benefit from an exchange of information with external support services such as local counselling services, therapists, doctors, the judiciary, the police, and women's shelters. Responsibility for preventing and responding to sexual violence at universities is typically shared between a variety of university-based and non university-based people and organisations – typically these diverse responsibilities are not well coordinated. Those seeking help could receive the support they need more quickly and effectively beyond mere crisis intervention and would have a direct, visible counselling option if, in any specific case, they didn't have sufficient trust in the university services.

6.2.4 Stakeholders' inadequate knowledge of responsibilities

In the stakeholder interviews at the five partner universities, a divide became apparent which reflects the extent to which different universities in Europe engage actively with the issue of gender-based (sexual) violence. Of the five partner countries, Britain and Germany have the most established and institutionalised measures of prevention and response at HE institutions, while Spain, Italy and Poland have few measures in place and those they have are not specific to this issue. A closer look at this north-south/east divide, however, reveals that these differences are much less serious than one is initially tempted to assume. Although Britain and Germany have established complaint mechanisms and prevention methods, it is not clear how effective these are. In addition, it is clear that in all five partner countries the stakeholders lack knowledge about the actual extent of gender-based sexual violence affecting their female students. Since no surveys have as yet been conducted on experiences of violence, the only indicator remains the students' help-seeking and complaint behaviour. The interpretation of this varies depending on the partner country where the stakeholders are located. Those in positions of responsibility at universities in Spain, Italy and Poland, for example, tend to conclude from the generally low numbers of those seeking help or making complaints that little violence actually occurs, or that, if

students do experience violence, they are not interested in talking to anyone at the university about it. Their counterparts in Britain and Germany, however, are more cautious with the conclusions they draw. Nonetheless, here too it is apparent that there is considerable hesitation in addressing the issue and that the responsibilities of the university in general as well as the division of responsibilities among the various stakeholders are largely unclear. This is confirmed by those stakeholders who act as points of contact for female students. Apart from the lack of clarity over the division of responsibilities, these "practice-based" professionals regard the lack of financial and human resources as well as the low level of coordination within the university and the lack of networking between the university and the local support system as the greatest obstacles to providing optimal support. Whether or not prevention and response measures are implemented, to what extent they are implemented and with what degree of success, often depend, therefore, on the personal commitment of individuals and not necessarily on a set of guidelines that may exist on paper. Thus one of the stakeholders' key demands is a clear political commitment on the part of the university authorities to tackle gender-based violence, rendered visible and transparent by the university management, so that all those involved – both within the university and beyond – are aware of its stance.

6.3 Summary

It is clear from our data that there is a need to establish formal responsibility at the level of university management for addressing the problem of sexual violence within the university community as a whole. This would enable a multifaceted set of prevention and response measures to be funded, implemented and evaluated, based on a long-term commitment. A crucial and yet difficult question in this respect is to what extent and in what ways can universities themselves be held accountable when sexual assaults occur? There is no simple or conclusive answer to this question – not least because the legal situation inside each partner country is highly diverse. Nonetheless all the countries are obliged to incorporate the directives on anti-discrimination issued by the European Council between 2000 and 2004 into their national legislation, especially the so-called Gender Directive, which in turn affects the way employers and educational institutions put their Duty of Care into practice. Basing our model upon these principles of the 'Duty of Care' which most European universities have towards the student body, preventing and responding to gender-based sexual violence will enable university staff to fully and effectively discharge their own duties of care. HE institutions in the different European countries can benefit from each others' experience in developing and implementing specific quality standards and procedures in the provision of adequate support services for female survivors of sexual violence.

Our recommendations focus on enhancing communication to students about university policies on gender-based violence and gender equality (and the commitment of universities to reducing the former and fostering the latter) as well as about services and resources available to victims Where victims have indicated disclosing incidents to formal authorities (which our findings suggest will normally be the case only in the most serious cases, and not even always in those), universities should similarly do all they can to support victims and facilitate their access to post incident legal and criminal justice support. At the same time, victims should not pressure into making formal complaints to their universities. Our "best practice" recommendations therefore focus on:

1) enhancing formal university policies on gender-based violence and gender equality and improving communication to students about these policies (and about the commitment of universities to reducing the former and fostering the latter)

2) enhancing and informing students better about services and resources (both within and outside the university) that are available to victims should they wish to avail themselves of them, and assisting them to do so

3) promoting preventive, remedial and relatively informal – rather than more formal – punitive responses in all but the most serious cases

4) educating all students (male and female) about gender-based violence, about how to avoid, prevent and respond to it, about how to assist its victims, and supporting them to do so

5) co-ordinating, to the best of their capability, the efforts of a wide range of people and resources, both within and outside their universities, in preventing and responding to gender-based violence at these universities.

Implementing the measures suggested herein will enable a prompt, fair, and decisive response to all reports of gender-based sexual violence and will help universities to protect female students by minimising the risks of harm to their welfare while avoiding the pitfalls of regulatory overkill. By providing an environment that ensures both the physical safety and mental well-being of its student community, universities can improve students' overall quality of life on campus and enrich the student experience. We hope that our model helps European universities achieve this objective.

6.4 Strengths and limitations of the study

The present research project began with the aim of gathering information about female students' victimisation due to gender-specific sexual abuse and finding out what their support needs are. We have succeeded in achieving this objective, having gathered a considerable amount of both quantitative and qualitative data about the various issues affecting both female students and stakeholders as target groups. Thus for the first time in Europe we have a more thorough understanding of the extent and the nature of female students' experiences of sexual violence. At the same time, however, this understanding highlights the existence of a rather poorly developed awareness, both among female students and among experts and office holders in HE institutions, concerning one of the key difficulties associated with sexual assaults. The highly subjective and personal mode of interpreting whether or not the incident experienced by the woman was actually an act of sexual violence influences the way it is perceived and dealt with. A whole range of factors are at work in this and mutually influence one another. Internalised societal stereotypes and preconceptions along with their associated attributions and role-dependent behaviours weave a dense web of conscious and unconscious patterns of interpretation that informs the way the act is perceived by those affected – victims and stakeholders alike. The outcome of this is revealed in the thoroughly complex and not always coherent analysis of data on gender-specific sexual violence. An interdisciplinary approach made possible by our multi-professional project team which brings together the tools and methods from a variety of specialist fields was an essential contributory factor in being able to gain a

deeper understanding of the essence of gender-based sexual violence in the university context and of how it is dealt with.

At the same time, this kind of project has certain limits which were set by a variety of factors. For example, the different forms of legislation relating to each form of sexual violence in each of the countries, along with the structurally highly varied systems of support there, make it difficult to gather identical data trans-nationally and to interpret them in a uniform, standardised way. The project team succeeded in meeting these methodological and practical challenges. Other more unforeseen difficulties were much harder to influence, however. These included the difficult social and economic situation currently prevailing with the EU and the different partner countries as well as current educational reforms which constitute a financial challenge for many HE institutions and students alike. These two factors had a highly adverse impact on the willingness of HE institutions in the different countries to cooperate with the project and thus considerably limited the volume of data we had hoped to gather. The fact that the national data sets vary greatly in size is a reflection of the varying degree to which each country is affected by the financial situation. However, it would certainly be too one-sided to mention only economic factors as negative influences. One question that arises, for example, is whether in some of the partner countries there is a more open attitude in society generally towards tackling these kinds of issues than there is in others. This question must remain largely unanswered for now. The fact remains that the data set that forms the basis for this study is still – despite the difficulties described – surprisingly large, even if regrettably uneven. Thus the different partner countries are represented to varying degrees, which limits the comparability of the country data with regard to commonalities and differences, especially regarding the nature of gender-specific violence. In addition, the different forms of violence are – as expected – represented to a varying extent in terms of the amount of data gathered on them. If this is placed in relation to different country data sets, the amount of data that emerges, particularly for sexual violence, is so small that it is often not possible to draw any comparative conclusions. The intended comparability of the countries is therefore not fully given for an important part of the research field. For this reason further research questions will be formulated in the following based on the results of the present study and the unresolved questions emerging from it. These can serve as guidance for research and practice so that, starting out from the results presented here, the unresolved questions can be answered in the future and can thus contribute to a deepening understanding of how best to combat gender-based sexual violence.

6.5 Further research and challenges

6.5.1 Development of adequate data collection

In reviewing the progress and outcomes of the current project, several challenges around methodology and transnational comparison need to be appreciated. To mention just two of the issues that had an impact on deriving comprehensive and comparable results: it was not possible to obtain a representative global sample, and comparisons between the different partner countries were difficult due to differences in legislation on forms of sexual violence and the variety of authorities and services that exist in the various partner countries (and HE institutions).

Future research which, like our project, is to be guided by the standards for violence-related data collection developed by experts in the European network CAHRV needs to

generate additional long-term gender-disaggregated data and statistics on gender-based violence against female students. In doing so, the following issues (among others) should be elucidated further:

1) Research on perpetrators

2) Research on gender-based violence against young men

3) Research on mutual/reciprocal violence by women and men

4) Research on gender-based sexual violence against young women with comparative samples

5) Research on survivors of sexual assault as being at increased risk for repeat assaults

In the course of conducting the current research project, it became apparent in a number of ways that university managers had a generally reserved attitude – albeit to varying degrees – when it came to the research topic. Concerns were expressed (in either subtle or more explicit ways) that raising the topic might alienate students and damage the university's reputation or hinder it in the competition over a good ranking position. In order nonetheless to obtain a clear political commitment on the part of university authorities to combat gender-based violence, what is needed are not just one-off statistics for prevalence and disclosure rates that are hurriedly filed away by alarmed university officials, but rather long-term, continuous statistics that make it possible to observe positive developments and the degree of effectiveness of any measures undertaken. With these tools at their disposal, the issue of gender-based violence can lose its capacity to alarm university managers and instead may even turn into a form of positive publicity for the university: The message the university sends to the outside world then is that it sees its educational role in a holistic light and, as a result, takes the issues of gender justice and equal opportunities seriously. Having more differentiated and more comprehensive data in future will give university managers a better understanding of the incidental costs incurred by university and students alike, enabling them to assess the effectiveness of violence prevention programmes and policies.

6.5.2 Evaluation of practice and policy

Given the fact that research on prevention and response programmes at institutions of higher education is still relatively new, most prevention models are short term ones. While North American universities have implemented various forms of prevention programmes since the late 1980s, few institutions have vigorously pursued an evaluation of their prevention programmes or of the long-term effects of prevention programmes as yet. The task must be to develop prevention and response programmes geared towards the long term at universities and, rather than just implementing them, to conduct long-term evaluations of their effectiveness. This focus on the long term is important not least with regard to preventing the occurrence of repeat victimisation. In other words, the aim is to protect female students who have already fallen victim to violence, as far as is possible, from repeat experiences of such violence. As research has clearly shown, survivors of sexual assault are at increased risk for repeat assaults. Therefore long-term prevention programmes must be created in conjunction with short-term crisis intervention. Future long-term research on the

impacts of changes in the law on victims' disclosure behaviour and on their perceptions of the violence they experience could also generate useful information.

6.5.3 Internet

The standardised data collection tools used in quantitative research on violence have so far paid little attention to the new media as an arena where violence occurs. Especially for a student target group which to a very large extent is part of today's generation of "digital natives", it seemed imperative to include this change in lifestyle and mode of communication and to expand our data collection tools accordingly. In fact, the quantitative data did indeed show that a measurable proportion of stalking incidents in particular took place via internet and telephone. This is reflected in the qualitative results as well: the students refer to the internet as a place where violence takes place and where the anonymity of those involved makes it easier for offenders to behave aggressively; at the same time it encourages potential victims to take greater risks. In addition to unwanted requests for contact, stalking and threatening behaviour in the internet, the medium also makes it easier to access and to disseminate pornographic material, which has a negative influence on female students' self-image and effectively constitutes a re-emergence of gender stereotypes in youth culture which are widely believed to have already been overcome. Thus it is imperative that future research on the dynamics of violence between young men and women in particular includes the new media. Not only has the internet made it much easier to perpetrate violence, as content designed to harass and harm can be disseminated very widely and over a very long time. In addition, communicative and social structures used as a matter of course by today's under-30 year-olds via the new media have developed their own dynamic, one which has long been underestimated by politicians and researchers alike. Despite the disadvantages entailed by the new media, the aim must be simultaneously to make strategic use of its advantages for prevention and response strategies: the anonymity of the internet – the data point to this as well – can be used to provide a more accessible route for those seeking help. One option is for universities to set up anonymous online advice chats or advice services via email for their students.

6.5.4 Violence and ex-partner stalking

The results show that female students, the majority of whom are young women, are especially affected by stalking. One aspect of the stalking data collected deserves particular attention, namely, those students who are affected by ex-partner stalking, which in a significant number of cases involves the use of physical violence. Researchers are generally in agreement that ex-partner stalking can be seen to constitute a continuation of relationship violence. The fact that the (ex-)partners involved were generally together for only a relatively short period of time and – in contrast to a marriage – were not in any formally binding partnership has no bearing on the prevalence of stalking. This assumption is confirmed by looking at the disclosure behaviour of the female students affected: their reluctance to contact existing support services and especially law enforcement agencies indicates that violence committed by an ex-partner is perceived as emotionally loaded and that it is subject to a strong taboo. As such, these incidents are doubly affected by factors that lead to non-reporting. This makes it highly unlikely that even an anonymous victim survey – such as the one undertaken in this study – will be able to encourage disclosure of these kinds of incidents. Young couples have been paid relatively little attention to date in the academic debate on relationship violence. In addition,

relationship violence is a social phenomenon that HE institutions don't usually associate with themselves or with something which impacts on their sphere of responsibility. This much more "public" form of ex-partner stalking makes one of the most hidden and therefore most harmful forms of violence visible in the first place. In order to gain solid knowledge about how men and women in this age group can be made more aware of the issues around relationship violence and whether support services need to be targeted towards this age group and related to place of study (and, if so, how), further target group-based research is required.

6.5.5 Preventing violence prior to tertiary education

Whilst our research focuses on the victimisation of university-based students, it should be noted that research has highlighted the fact that adolescent girls and boys experience acts of sexual victimisation and harassment as early as within the school setting. As in the university context, this school-based victimisation is perpetrated by peers and teachers, has a discriminatory impact on educational attainment, and is even more often responded to in an ineffective way. As mentioned above, the new media play a key role here, in that they have made violent acts much easier to commit and have rendered them much more effective without being directly visible to the outside world. At the same time, the new media enable young people to gain unhindered and unprecedented access to pornographic material, which – as some researchers have noted critically in the last few years – means that, at a sensitive time in their life when they are just beginning to explore and develop their own sexuality, young people are confronted with sexualised, stereotypical and frequently violence-affirming gender constructions. For these reasons, it would be helpful and desirable to include more people within the 13-16 year-old demographic in research on violence as well as to encourage cooperation between HE institutions and secondary schools regarding the issue of violence prevention.

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8. Appendix

8.1 Instruments

Institution of Higher Education
In partner country (Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Poland or Spain)

EC-Project Gender-based Violence, Stalking and Fear of Crime
Funded by the EC-Program "Prevention of and Fight Against Crime"– Direktion – General Justice, Freedom and Security

Dear Sir or Madam,

I am writing to you as the grant holder and principal investigator of the EC-funded project "Gender-based Violence, Stalking and Fear of Crime" at the Ruhr-University in Bochum in Germany. We -act representatively for all partners, who are located in Great Britain (Keele-University), Italy (Bologna University), Poland (Jagiellonski University Craców) and Spain (Universitat Autónoma de Barcelona).

The research goal of this study is an awareness rising of gender based violence against female university students through collection, analysis, and dissemination of transnational comparable data on dimensions and impacts of violence, crime, and the need of help. The intended outcome is the reduction of victimization of female students on campus by developing best practice prevention programs.

During the winter term 2010 an empirical study was conducted at all partner-universities, using an online-questionnaire. We asked all female students at the above mentioned universities about their experiences regarding sexual harassment, stalking and sexual violence. Additionally, some questions referred to self-assessment, confidence to speak about the incident, as well as feelings of safety on and off campus. The data were collected anonymously.
The responses by the students were very positive: They appreciate the sensitive but concurrently comprehensible formulated way the questionnaire was drafted, and they felt that sexual violence was dealt with as a social challenge and not just a personal problem.

In order to have enough data for a really comparable analysis, we intend a rollout of the survey on national levels. To do so, we need ten more institutions of higher education that are willing to implement the tested online-questionnaire at their universities.

The technical part as well as the analysis will be done by the project researchers. The name of your university and the names of the other participating universities won´t be named in the final report, but you will receive your specific results in order to make use of them for your universities´ gender policies.

My request is accompanying the official letter of our partner university. As the beneficiary and the person finally responsible to the European Union I would be very pleased if your university can support this project. More detailed information is provided in the letter of our British/Italian/ Polish/ Spanish partner university.

Thanking you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Prof. Dr. Thomas Feltes M.A.

Ruhr-Universität Bochum
Juristische Fakultät
Lehrstuhl für Kriminologie
Prof. Dr. Thomas Feltes M.A.
Universitätsstraße 150
44780 Bochum

P.S. Please find more information about the project at www.gendercrime.eu

Information about data security

1 General Information

Globalpark attaches great importance to data security and strictly abides by the data protection act. Due to Globalpark's high security standards you can collect sensitive data acquired by staff questioning, banks or medical examinations. Security measures can be tailored exactly to the needs of your company with Globalpark's technology.

This information leaflet deals with the core questions regarding data security and data protection when conducting online surveys with Globalpark's software:

How can the participant be sure that his anonymity is preserved?

Is the survey password protected?

How can you be sure that only members of staff have access to the survey?

How can it be guaranteed that all participants take part in the survey only once?

Globalpark takes special precautions to guarantee data security and the protection of the rights of the participants. Globalpark servers are exclusively operated by the very reliable operating system Linux. Globalpark uses open source components whose source code is checked and released by independent authorities.

2 Address data and result data

Globalpark ensures that personalized data and respondents' data is kept separately. The respondents' data is stored using specific identifying information that is created according to the order of access under a specific code. The access code is not stored in the data set of the survey. Thus it is impossible to assign the survey data to the email address.

3 Passwords und codes

The access to the questionnaire is protected by passwords or integrated codes. All participants get a code which is sent to them via mail and enables the user to access the questionnaire. The codes are recompiled automatically by the internal password module of the survey center. All codes consist of sixteen digits. They are alphanumeric (a-f, 0-9) and of course unique, i.e. the same password can not be generated twice.

2

4 Access to the questionnaire and resumption

As soon as the participant has completed the questionnaire the code will be blocked so that he cannot take part in the survey again. However, participants can break off the operation and resume filling in the questionnaire later on. If required, they can as well change their answers.

5 SSL – Secure data transmission

Optionally, data can be transmitted over the Internet using the secure and reliable encryption method https. All data which is exchanged between the browser and the server is fragmented into indecipherable character strings. Thus it is avoided that a third person is able to read the data.

6 Rights allocation system

Due to our reliable rights administration unauthorized persons do not get access to our survey software. The system is protected by passwords, i.e. you can only access the system by entering a valid user name and the corresponding password.
Seite: 3
Furthermore it is possible to form different teams with the help of the rights administration. Those teams are later able to access the system but can only see and edit specific projects.

3

Questionnaire Wave B english

1 [Seiten-ID: 1362393] [L]

Introduction

Dear student,

thank you very much for being willing to participate in this survey.

Why this survey?
By agreeing to fill in this questionnaire you are helping to ensure that in future better advisory and support services are made available to female students who have been affected by gender-based impingments or assaults.
We are only too aware that we are addressing a highly personal part of your life, and that makes us all the more appreciative of your cooperation.

Who are we?
The project is being carried out by a group of researchers from England, Italy, Poland, Spain and Germany. The aim of this research project is to learn more about female students' experiences of gender-based impingments or assaults, so that we can recommend more appropriate preventative and support measures in response to it. For more information see: www.gendercrime.eu

On data protection
All the data are collected anonymously. It will not be possible to tell from the results which person made which statement. Data protection is fully guaranteed.

On filling in the questionnaire
Filling in the questionnaire takes about 15 minutes: We first ask you about your feelings of savety as well as your experiences you may have had with impingments or assaults. The accompanying questions about these situations (Where did it happen? etc.) will be repeated. At the end we ask you to give a few personal details, and we provide you with information about support services.
Please answer every question as it applies to you personally: there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. You are kindly asked not to use the back-button on your browser while responding to the questionnaire because important data will get lost.

Your Research Team, EU project "Gender-Based Violence, Stalking and Fear of Crime"

Your team/names

Your chair/ faculty, your university

2 [Seiten-ID: 1362394] [L]

Gender

Please tell us your gender.

○ Female ○ Male

3.1 [Seiten-ID: 1362396] [L]

<div align="center">

Male: End of Questionnaire

</div>

This survey is directed at female students only.

4 [Seiten-ID: 1381856] [L]

<div align="center">

Personal details – academic year

</div>

How long have you been at this university?

○ 1 year or less.
○ More than 1 year, up to 2 years.
○ More than 2 years, up to 3 years.
○ More than 3 years, up to 4 years.
○ More than 4 years.

5 [Seiten-ID: 1362463] [L]

<div align="center">

Personal Details – Faculty

</div>

We now have a few questions about you yourself.

Please tell us the faculty in which you are studying your main subject.

Faculty 1
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???

Faculty 2
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???

Faculty 3
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???

Faculty 4
○ Faculty of ???

○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???
○ Faculty of ???

6 [Seiten-ID: 1362400] [L]

Fear of Crime - Feeling of Safety

The next two questions are about your personal feeling of safety at the university.
How safe do you feel in the following places at the university?

	Very safe	More or less safe	Not very safe	Not safe at all	Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
Lecture theatre/ seminar room	○	○	○	○	○
Library	○	○	○	○	○
Staff offices	○	○	○	○	○
Student rooms	○	○	○	○	○
Canteen/ cafeteria	○	○	○	○	○
Sports hall/ changing rooms	○	○	○	○	○
Toilets	○	○	○	○	○
Lift/ stairs/ corridor	○	○	○	○	○
(Multi-storey-)car park	○	○	○	○	○
Outddoor spaces on university premises	○	○	○	○	○

How safe do you feel when you walk alone in the dark on the university premises?

○ Very safe
○ More or less safe
○ Not very safe
○ Not safe at all
○ Doesn't apply to me, as I don't walk alone in the dark on the university campus.

7 [Seiten-ID: 1362401] [L]

Sexual Harassment - opening question

In their everyday lives women sometimes feel sexually pressured or harassed by comments, physical contact or gestures.
This may be on the street or in public places, but it may also be when they are studying, when they are at work, or when they are with their friends, acquaintances or family members.

How often have you personally felt sexually pressured or harassed in the past?

○ Often
○ Occasionally
○ Rarely
○ Never
○ I don't wish to answer.

8 [Seiten-ID: 1362402] [L]

Sexual Harassment - List of Items

We often don't remember these kinds of situations straight away. A variety of such situations are described in the list below.
Have you personally ever experienced this situation?

I experienced the following:
(More than one response possible.)

☐ Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me.
☐ Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by saying things that were indecent or threatening.
☐ I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments directed at me, or being stared at.
☐ Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about my body or my private life, by making sexual innuendos, or by making sexual advances in a pushy way.
☐ Someone got unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me too closely or pressured me into a corner in a way I perceived as pushy.
☐ Someone told me lewd jokes and spoke to me in a way that made me feel pressured sexually.
☐ Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.
☐ Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that I became scared.
☐ Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous for my future or my professional development if I didn't agree to have sex with him/her.
☐ Someone showed me pornographic images or pictures of naked people in inappropriate situations.
☐ I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment.

☐ I haven't experienced any of the situations.

9.1 [Seiten-ID: 1362805] [L]

Incidents during university

You now see again the situation/s which you told us you have experienced.
This survey focuses on your experiences as a student. Please tell us which of

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them you have experienced since you first registered at this university.

(More than one response possible.)

- ☐ Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me.
- ☐ Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by saying things that were indecent or threatening.
- ☐ I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments directed at me, or being stared at.
- ☐ Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about my body or my private life, by making sexual innuendos, or by making sexual advances in a pushy way.
- ☐ Someone got unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me too closely or pressured me into a corner in a way I perceived as pushy.
- ☐ Someone told me lewd jokes and spoke to me in a way that made me feel pressured sexually.
- ☐ Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.
- ☐ Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that I became scared.
- ☐ Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous for my future or my professional development if I didn't agree to have sex with him/her.
- ☐ Someone showed me pornographic images or pictures of naked people in inappropriate situations.
- ☐ I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment.

- ☐ I haven't experienced any of the situations during university.

9.2.1 [Seiten-ID: 1362404] [L]

<div align="center">

most severe incident

</div>

If you have experienced several situations during university, we would now ask you to name the incident which you personally experienced as being the most serious. Please relate your answers to the following questions to this one incident only.

If you have experienced only one situation during university, this is shown again here. Here, too, please click on it to confirm and relate your answers to this incident only.

- ○ Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me.
- ○ Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by saying things that were indecent or threatening.
- ○ I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments directed at me, or being stared at.
- ○ Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about my body or my private life, by making sexual innuendos, or by making sexual advances in a pushy way.
- ○ Someone got unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me too closely or pressured me into a corner in a way I perceived as pushy.
- ○ Someone told me lewd jokes and spoke to me in a way that made me feel pressured sexually.
- ○ Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.
- ○ Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that I became scared.
- ○ Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous for my future or

my professional development if I didn't agree to have sex with him/her.

○ Someone showed me pornographic images or pictures of naked people in inappropriate situations.

○ I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment.

9.2.2 [Seiten-ID: 1362405] [L]

Sense of Threat

We will now ask you a few questions about the incident which you have just indicated.

First: Did you feel seriously threatened in the situation?

○ Yes, very.

○ Yes, quite.

○ No, not very.

○ No, not at all.

○ I don't wish to answer.

9.2.3 [Seiten-ID: 1362407] [L]

Perpetrator

We will now ask you about the person you have experienced the incident with. Please tell us the person's gender.

○ Male

○ Female

Please identify the kind of person you've experienced the situation with.

○ Fellow student

○ Academic staff

○ Non-academic university staff/ other university staff

○ Someone outside university

9.2.4.1 [Seiten-ID: 1491472] [L]

perpetrator outside uni

You've experienced the situation with someone outside university. Please identify this kind of person.

○ Partner

○ Ex-partner

○ Someone in my group of friends (including a friend of a friend)

○ Someone from my family (including distant relative or other related person)

○ Someone from work (e.g. colleague, superior, customer)

○ Someone from my residential environment (e.g. neighbour, room/flat mate, landlord)

○ Professional (e.g. doctor, trainer, policeman)

○ Internet acquaintance

○ Other acquaintance

○ A stranger

○ Someone else

9.2.5 [Seiten-ID: 1491827] [L]

<div align="center">Date</div>

Was the person you've experienced the situation with someone you had a date with?

○ Yes

○ No

Did the situation happen on the occation of a party or some other mass event? (Optional!)

○ Yes

○ No

9.2.6 [Seiten-ID: 1362411] [L]

<div align="center">Context</div>

Please tell us where you have experienced the situation.

University premises

○ Lecture theatre/ seminar room

○ Library

○ Staff offices

○ Student union rooms

○ Canteen/cafeteria

○ students pub (only UK)

○ Sports hall/changing rooms

○ Toilets

○ (Multi-storey) car park

○ Lift/stairs/ corridor

○ Outdoor areas on the university campus

○ Inside student residences

Other places

○ In /in front of my own flat/house

○ In someone else's flat/house

○ At the disco, in a pub, in a café

○ At my work place

○ In a public building (e.g. shop, station, office)

○ At a public place (e.g. on the street, in a park, on a car park)

○ On public transport (bus, train, taxi)

○ In a car

○ In the Internet

○ On the telephone

○ Other

○ I don't wish to answer.

9.2.7 [Seiten-ID: 1362412] [L]

Disclosure

Did you tell anyone about this experience after it happened?

○ Yes

○ No

9.2.8 [Seiten-ID: 1362414] [L]

Disclosure – YES/NO

Who did you tell what happened to you in the situation?
(More than one response possible.)

☐ a fellow student

☐ an academic staff member

☐ a non-academic university employee

☐ someone outside the university

Please let us know why you didn't tell anyone.
(More than one response possible.)

☐ What happened didn't seem so bad at the time; it didn't seem necessary to tell anyone.

☐ I didn't know who I should talk to about it.

☐ I was in a state of shock and couldn't do anything.

☐ I blamed myself for having misjudged the situation and having contributed to it happening.

☐ I just wanted to be left alone and to forget that anything had happened.

☐ I felt ashamed and couldn't find the words to describe what had happened.

☐ It was too intimate a subject; I felt it was something I should keep to myself.

☐ It was a one-off event that was over and done with as far as I was concerned.

☐ I didn't think anyone or anything could help me.

☐ I was scared that the person would take revenge or would harm me in some way.

☐ I was scared of facing unpleasant questions.

☐ I didn't want to put my relationship with the person at risk.

☐ Other reasons.

☐ I don't know.

☐ I don't wish to answer.

9.2.9.1 [Seiten-ID: 1490619] [L]

Disclosure – so outside uni

You talked to someone outside the university. Please specify whom you told what happened to you in the situation?
(More than one response possible.)

- ☐ A friend
- ☐ One of my family
- ☐ Doctor
- ☐ Therapist
- ☐ Advisory service
- ☐ Pastor/priest/church minister
- ☐ Lawyer/solicitor
- ☐ Police
- ☐ Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)
- ☐ IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)
- ☐ Self-help group
- ☐ Internet forum/chat

You talked to an academic staff member. Please specify the kind of staff member.

- ○ option 1
- ○ option 2
- ○ option 3
- ○ option 4

9.2.10 [Seiten-ID: 1362417] [L]

Assessment of Situation

If you were to assess the situation in retrospect:

Would you say that what happened to you was ...

- ○ harassment?
- ○ sexual harassment?
- ○ violence?
- ○ none of the above mentioned assessments?
- ○ I don't wish to answer.

Do you agree that what happened to you was ...

	Yes	No	Don't know
something the person who did it bears responsibility for?	○	○	○
something the person who did it ought to be punished for?	○	○	○

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something
you also feel
responsible
for?

     ○   ○   ○

9.2.11 [Seiten-ID: 1362418] [L]

Impacts – General

The list below describes various things that can occur as a result of such situations.
Please tell us which physical and/or psychological impacts you experienced as a result of the situation.
(More than one response possible.)

☐ Felt down or depressed.

☐ Become more aware of discrimination against women.

☐ Constantly went over the situation in my mind.

☐ Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.

☐ After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, become a volunteer, etc.).

☐ Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.

☐ Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).

☐ Avoided certain places or situations.

☐ I felt angry and/or disappointed.

☐ Had feelings of shame and guilt.

☐ I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.

☐ Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.

☐ Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.

☐ Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.

☐ Developed an eating disorder.

☐ Abused alcohol/drugs.

☐ Other problems.

☐ I experienced no negative effects.

9.2.12 [Seiten-ID: 1362419] [L]

Impacts - Studies

Did the situation have any impact on your studies?

Yes, namely,...

- ○ it affected my performance.
- ○ it delayed the progress of my studies.
- ○ I avoided certain courses/ places.
- ○ I changed study subject.
- ○ I interrupted my studies.
- ○ Other impacts.
- ○ No, it didn't have any impact on my studies.

9.2.13 [Seiten-ID: 1362420] [L]

When Situation occured

At what point in your studies at this university did you experience this situation?

- ○ In my 1st year.
- ○ In my 2nd year.
- ○ In my 3rd year.
- ○ In my 4th year
- ○ In my 5th year or more
- ○ During my doctoral studies.

10 [Seiten-ID: 1362421] [L]

Stalking - Opening Question

Sometimes women are pressured, pursued or even attacked and terrorised by another person. That person may be a chance acquaintance from the Internet, a rejected admirer or even an ex-partner.
How often have you personally ever felt pressured, pursued or terrorised?

- ○ Often
- ○ Occasionally
- ○ Rarely
- ○ Never
- ○ I don't wish to answer.

11 [Seiten-ID: 1362422] [L]

Stalking - List of Items

We often don't remember these kinds of situations straight away. We would like to know whether you have ever experienced one or more of these things.

I experienced the following:
(More than one response possible.)

☐ Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages over an extended period

☐ Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, "gifts", pornographic material)

☐ Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place

☐ Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acquaintances)

☐ Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations

☐ Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours

☐ Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me

☐ Threatened self-harm or suicide.

☐ Deliberately destroyed or damaged things which belong to me or mean something to me

☐ Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me

☐ Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm

☐ Threatened to harm someone close to me (e.g. children, parents, partner).

☐ Attacked or put at risk a person close to me (e.g. children, parents, partner)

☐ Failed to abide by a police restraining order or a court safety order

☐ Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising actions.

☐ I haven't experienced any of the situations.

12.1 [Seiten-ID: 1362424] [L]

Stalking Definition

Have any of the situations led to one or more of the following consequences?

○ Serious and long-lasting anxiety or fear.

○ A well-founded fear for my safety.

○ A change in my lifestyle.

○ The situations had no such consequences for me.

Did you experience any of the situations repeatedly (at least twice) over a period of at least two weeks?

○ Yes

○ No

○ Don't know.

○ Do not wish to answer.

12.2 [Seiten-ID: 1380078] [L]

Incidents during Uni - Stalking

You now see again the situation/s which you told us you have experienced. This survey focuses on your experiences as a student. Please tell us which of

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them you have experienced since you first registered at this university.

(More than one response possible.)

- ☐ Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages over an extended period
- ☐ Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, "gifts", pornographic material)
- ☐ Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place
- ☐ Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acquaintances)
- ☐ Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations
- ☐ Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours
- ☐ Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me
- ☐ Threatened self-harm or suicide.
- ☐ Deliberately destroyed or damaged things which belong to me or mean something to me
- ☐ Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me
- ☐ Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm
- ☐ Threatened to harm someone close to me (e.g. children, parents, partner).
- ☐ Attacked or put at risk a person close to me (e.g. children, parents, partner)
- ☐ Failed to abide by a police restraining order or a court safety order
- ☐ Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising actions

- ☐ I haven't experienced any of the situations during university.

12.3.1 [Seiten-ID: 1380110] [L]

most severe incident

If you have experienced several situations during university, we would now ask you to name the incident which you personally experienced as being the most serious. Please relate your answers to the following questions to this one incident only.

If you have experienced only one situation during university, this is shown again here. Here, too, please click on it to confirm and relate your answers to this incident only.

- ○ Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages over an extended period .
- ○ Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, "gifts", pornographic material)
- ○ Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place
- ○ Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acquaintances)
- ○ Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations
- ○ Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours
- ○ Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me

○ Threatened self-harm or suicide.

○ Deliberately destroyed or damaged things which belong to me or mean something to me

○ Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me

○ Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm

○ Threatened to harm someone close to me (e.g. children, parents, partner).

○ Attacked or put at risk a person close to me (e.g. children, parents, partner)

○ Failed to abide by a police restraining order or a court safety order

○ Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising actions

12.3.2 [Seiten-ID: 1380111] [L]

Sense of Threat

We will now ask you a few questions about the incident which you have just indicated.

First: Did you feel seriously threatened in the situation?

○ Yes, very.

○ Yes, quite.

○ No, not very.

○ No, not at all.

○ I don't wish to answer.

12.3.3 [Seiten-ID: 1380113] [L]

Perpetrator

We will now ask you about the person you have experienced the incident with. Please tell us the person's gender.

○ Male

○ Female

Please identify the kind of person you've experienced the situation with.

○ Fellow student

○ Academic staff

○ Non-academic university staff/ other university staff

○ Someone outside University

12.3.4.1 [Seiten-ID: 1491830] [L]

perpetrator outside uni

You've experienced the situation with someone outside university. Please identify this kind of person.

○ Partner

○ Ex-partner

○ Someone in my group of friends (including a friend of a friend)

○ Someone from my family (including distant relative or other related person)

○ Someone from work (e.g. colleague, superior, customer)

○ Someone from my residential environment (e.g. neighbour, room/flat mate, landlord)

○ Professional (e.g. doctor, trainer, policeman)

○ Internet acquaintance

○ Other acquaintance

○ A stranger

○ Someone else

12.3.5 [Seiten-ID: 1491831] [L]

Date

Was the person you've experienced the situation with someone you had a date with?

○ Yes

○ No

Did the situation happen on the occation of a party or some other mass event? (Optional!)

○ Yes

○ No

12.3.6 [Seiten-ID: 1380117] [L]

Context

Please tell us where you have experienced the situation.

University premises

○ Lecture theatre/ seminar room

○ Library

○ Staff offices

○ Student union rooms

○ Canteen/cafeteria

○ students pub (only UK)

○ Sports hall/changing rooms

○ Toilets

○ (Multi-storey) car park

○ Lift/stairs/ corridor

○ Outdoor areas on the university campus

○ Inside student residences

Other places

○ In /in front of my own flat/house

○ In someone else's flat/house

○ At the disco, in a pub, in a café

○ At my work place

- ○ In a public building (e.g. shop, station, office)
- ○ At a public place (e.g. on the street, in a park, on a car park)
- ○ On public transport (bus, train, taxi)
- ○ In a car
- ○ In the Internet
- ○ On the telephone
- ○ Other
- ○ I don't wish to answer.

12.3.7 [Seiten-ID: 1380118] [L]

Disclosure

Did you tell anyone about this experience after it happened?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

12.3.8 [Seiten-ID: 1380119] [L]

Disclosure - YES/NO

Who did you tell what happened to you in the situation?
(More than one response possible.)

- ☐ a fellow student
- ☐ an academic staff member
- ☐ a non-academic university employee
- ☐ someone outside university

Please let us know why you didn't tell anyone.
(More than one response possible.)

- ☐ What happened didn't seem so bad at the time; it didn't seem necessary to tell anyone.
- ☐ I didn't know who I should talk to about it.
- ☐ I was in a state of shock and couldn't do anything.
- ☐ I blamed myself for having misjudged the situation and having contributed to it happening.
- ☐ I just wanted to be left alone and to forget that anything had happened.
- ☐ I felt ashamed and couldn't find the words to describe what had happened.
- ☐ It was too intimate a subject; I felt it was something I should keep to myself.
- ☐ It was a one-off event that was over and done with as far as I was concerned.
- ☐ I didn't think anyone or anything could help me.
- ☐ I was scared that the person would take revenge or would harm me in some way.
- ☐ I was scared of facing unpleasant questions.
- ☐ I didn't want to put my relationship with the person at risk.
- ☐ Other reasons.
- ☐ I don't know.

☐ I don't wish to answer.

You did not report to the police. On the list you can find possible reasons, why women do not call the police. Please tell us which of the following reasons apply to you.
(More than one response possible)

☐ I was afraid that the police would not take me seriously or would not believe me at all.

☐ I believed not to have any sufficient evidence anyway.

☐ I was afraid of being mistreated by the police or during a trial.

☐ I did not want the person to get arrested and/or sentenced.

☐ I had no faith in the police.

☐ Other reasons.

☐ I don´t know.

☐ I don´t wish to answer.

12.3.9.1 [Seiten-ID: 1490834] [L]

Disclosure - so outside uni

You talked to someone outside the university. Please specify whom you told what happened to you in the situation?
(More than one response possible.)

☐ A friend

☐ One of my family

☐ Doctor

☐ Therapist

☐ Advisory service

☐ Pastor/priest/church minister

☐ Lawyer/solicitor

☐ Police

☐ Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)

☐ IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)

☐ Self-help group

☐ Internet forum/chat

You talked to an academic staff member. Please specify the kind of staff member.

○ option 1

○ option 2

○ option 3

○ option 4

12.3.10 [Seiten-ID: 1380122] [L]

Assessment of Situation

If you were to assess the situation in retrospect:

Would you say that what happened to you was ...

○ harassment?

○ sexual harassment?

○ violence?

○ none of the above mentioned assessments?

○ I don't wish to answer.

Do you agree that what happened to you was ...

	Yes	No	Don't know
something the person who did it bears responsibility for?	○	○	○
something the person who did it ought to be punished for?	○	○	○
something you also feel responsible for?	○	○	○

12.3.11 [Seiten-ID: 1380123] [L]

Impacts - General

The list below describes various things that can occur as a result of such situations.
Please tell us which physical and/or psychological impacts you experienced as a result of the situation.
(More than one response possible.)

☐ Felt down or depressed.

☐ Become more aware of discrimination against women.

☐ Constantly went over the situation in my mind.

☐ Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.

☐ After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, become a volunteer, etc.).

☐ Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.

☐ Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).

☐ Avoided certain places or situations.

☐ I felt angry and/or disappointed.

☐ Had feelings of shame and guilt.

☐ I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.

☐ Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.

☐ Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.

☐ Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.

☐ Developed an eating disorder.

☐ Abused alcohol/drugs.

☐ Other problems.

☐ I experienced no negative effects.

12.3.12 [Seiten-ID: 1380124] [L]

Impacts - Studies

Did the situation have any impact on your studies?

Yes, namely,...

○ it affected my performance.
○ it delayed the progress of my studies.
○ I avoided certain courses/ places.
○ I changed study subject.
○ I interrupted my studies.
○ Other impacts.
○ No, it didn't have any impact on my studies.

12.3.13 [Seiten-ID: 1380125] [L]

When Situation occured

At what point in your studies at this university did you experience this situation?

○ In my 1st year.
○ In my 2nd year.

○ In my 3rd year.

○ In my 4th year

○ In my 5th year or more

○ During my doctoral studies.

13 [Seiten-ID: 1362440] [L]

Unwanted Sexual Acts

The questions that follow are about the unwanted and coercive sexual acts that women may experience during their lives involving individuals either known or unknown to them.

First of all, the focus is on unwanted sexual acts that you have experienced, even if they may not have been (or seemed to be) so bad and did not involve physical force against you..

How often have you experienced unwanted sexual acts that you were forced to engage in or were put under psychological or moral pressure to engage in?

○ Often

○ Occasionally

○ Rarely

○ Never

○ I don't wish to answer.

Was it the case that you didn't dare to say or to show straight away that you didn't want to engage in the act, e.g. for fear of the consequences?

○ Yes

○ No

14 [Seiten-ID: 1362441] [L]

Forced Sexual Acts

In the following the focus is on coercive sexual acts - in other words, acts that you were forced to engage in against your own will due to physical force or threats.
This may have occurred by the person holding you in their grip, twisting your arm, pushing you down, blackmailing or threatening you, or it may have been that you were unable to walk away or to defend yourself, or that you were in a situation of dependency vis-a-vis the other person.
How often have you experienced these kinds of coercive sexual acts?

○ Often

○ Occasionally

○ Rarely

○ Never

○ I don't wish to answer.

15.1 [Seiten-ID: 1381391] [L]

SexViolence List of Items

We often don't remember these kinds of situations straight away. A variety of

such situations are described in the list below.
Have you personally ever experienced this situation?

I experienced the following:
(More than one response possible.)

☐   Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will.

☐   Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen.

☐   Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts.

☐   Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't want to.

☐   I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want.

☐   I haven't experienced any of the situations.

15.2.1   [Seiten-ID: 1381361] [L]

Incidents Uni SexViolence

You now see again the situation/s which you told us you have experienced. This survey focuses on your experiences as a student. Please tell us which of them you have experienced since you first registered at this university.

(More than one response possible.)

☐   Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will.

☐   Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen.

☐   Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts.

☐   Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't want to.

☐   I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want.

☐   I haven't experienced any of the situations during university.

15.2.2.1   [Seiten-ID: 1362444] [L]

most severe incident

If you have experienced several situations during university, we would now ask you to name the incident which you personally experienced as being the most serious. Please relate your answers to the following questions to this one incident only.

If you have experienced only one situation during university, this is shown again here. Here, too, please click on it to confirm and relate your answers to this incident only.

○   Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will.

○   Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen.

○   Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar

acts.

○	Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't want to.
○	I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want.

15.2.2.2 [Seiten-ID: 1362445] [L]

Sense of Threat

We will now ask you a few questions about the incident which you have just indicated.

First: Did you feel seriously threatened in the situation?

○ Yes, very.

○ Yes, quite.

○ No, not very.

○ No, not at all.

○ I don't wish to answer.

15.2.2.3 [Seiten-ID: 1362446] [L]

perpetrator

We will now ask you about the person you have experienced the incident with. Please tell us the person's gender.

○ Male

○ Female

Please identify the kind of person you've experienced the situation with.

○ Fellow student

○ Academic staff

○ Non-academic university staff/ other university staff

○ Someone outside University

15.2.2.4.1 [Seiten-ID: 1491833] [L]

perpetrator outside uni

You've experienced the situation with someone outside university. Please identify this kind of person.

○ Partner

○ Ex-partner

○ Someone in my group of friends (including a friend of a friend)

○ Someone from my family (including distant relative or other related person)

○ Someone from work (e.g. colleague, superior, customer)

○ Someone from my residential environment (e.g. neighbour, room/flat mate, landlord)

○ Professional (e.g. doctor, trainer, policeman)

○ Internet acquaintance

○ Other acquaintance

- ○ A stranger
- ○ Someone else

15.2.2.5 [Seiten-ID: 1491863] [L]

Date

Was the person you've experienced the situation with someone you had a date with?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

15.2.2.6 [Seiten-ID: 1362450] [L]

Drugs

Do you have reason to believe that the person you experienced the incident with was under the influence of alcohol or recreational drugs?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Don't know.
- ○ Don't wish to answer.

At the time of this incident, were you under the influence of alcohol and/or a recreational drug?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Don't wish to answer.

Do you have reason to believe that someone put a 'date rape' drug (e.g. Rohypnol) in your drink, as a result of which you experienced the incident while in a drugged state?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Don't know.
- ○ Don't wish to answer.

Did the situation happen on the occation of a party or some other mass event? (Optional!)

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

15.2.2.7 [Seiten-ID: 1362451] [L]

Context

Please tell us where you have experienced the situation.

University premises
- ○ Lecture theatre/ seminar room
- ○ Library

- ○ Staff offices
- ○ Student union rooms
- ○ Canteen/cafeteria
- ○ students pub (only UK)
- ○ Sports hall/changing rooms
- ○ Toilets
- ○ (Multi-storey) car park
- ○ Lift/stairs/ corridor
- ○ Outdoor areas on the university campus
- ○ Inside student residences

Other places

- ○ In /in front of my own flat/house
- ○ In someone else's flat/house
- ○ At the disco, in a pub, in a café
- ○ At my work place
- ○ In a public building (e.g. shop, station, office)
- ○ At a public place (e.g. on the street, in a park, on a car park)
- ○ On public transport (bus, train, taxi)
- ○ In a car
- ○ In the Internet
- ○ On the telephone
- ○ Other
- ○ I don't wish to answer.

15.2.2.8 [Seiten-ID: 1362452] [L]

Disclosure

Did you tell anyone about this experience after it happened?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

15.2.2.9 [Seiten-ID: 1362453] [L]

Disclosure - YES/NO

Who did you tell what happened to you in the situation?
(More than one response possible.)

- ☐ a fellow student
- ☐ an academic staff member
- ☐ a non-academic university employee
- ☐ someone outside the university

Please let us know why you didn't tell anyone.
(More than one response possible)

- [ ] What happened didn't seem so bad at the time; it didn't seem necessary to tell anyone.
- [ ] I didn't know who I should talk to about it.
- [ ] I was in a state of shock and couldn't do anything.
- [ ] I blamed myself for having misjudged the situation and having contributed to it happening.
- [ ] I just wanted to be left alone and to forget that anything had happened.
- [ ] I felt ashamed and couldn't find the words to describe what had happened.
- [ ] It was too intimate a subject; I felt it was something I should keep to myself.
- [ ] It was a one-off event that was over and done with as far as I was concerned.
- [ ] I didn't think anyone or anything could help me.
- [ ] I was scared that the person would take revenge or would harm me in some way.
- [ ] I was scared of facing unpleasant questions.
- [ ] I didn't want to put my relationship with the person at risk.
- [ ] Other reasons.
- [ ] I don't know.

- [ ] I don't wish to answer.

You did not report to the police. On the list you can find possible reasons why women do not call the police. Please tell us which of the following reasons apply to you.
(More than one response possible)

- [ ] I was afraid that the police would not take me seriously or would not believe me at all.
- [ ] I believed not to have any sufficient evidence anyway.
- [ ] I was afraid of being mistreated by the police or during a trial.
- [ ] I did not feel up to getting through preliminary investigation and/or trial.
- [ ] I did not want the person to get arrested and/or sentenced.
- [ ] I had no faith in the police.
- [ ] Other reasons.
- [ ] I don´t know.

- [ ] I don´t wish to answer.

15.2.2.10.1 [Seiten-ID: 1491332] [L]

Disclosure - so outside uni

You talked to an academic staff member. Please specify the kind of staff member.

- ( ) option 1
- ( ) option 2
- ( ) option 3
- ( ) option 4

You talked to someone outside the university. Please specify whom you told

what happened to you in the situation?
(More than one response possible)

- ☐ A friend
- ☐ One of my family
- ☐ Doctor
- ☐ Therapist
- ☐ Advisory service
- ☐ Pastor
- ☐ Lawyer/solicitor
- ☐ Police
- ☐ Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)
- ☐ IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)
- ☐ Self-help group
- ☐ Internet forum/chat

15.2.2.11 [Seiten-ID: 1362456] [L]

Assessment of Situation

If you were to assess the situation in retrospect:

Would you say that what happened to you was ...

- ○ violence?
- ○ sexual assault?
- ○ rape?
- ○ none of the above mentioned assessments?
- ○ I don't wish to answer.

Do you agree that what happened to you was ...

	Yes	No	Don't know
something the person who did it bears responsibility for?	○	○	○
something the person who did it ought to be punished for?	○	○	○
something you also feel responsible for?	○	○	○

15.2.2.12 [Seiten-ID: 1362457] [L]

Impacts – General

The list below describes various things that can occur as a result of such situations.
Please tell us which physical and/or psychological impacts you experienced as a result of the situation.
(More than one response possible.)

☐ Felt down or depressed.

☐ Become more aware of discrimination against women.

☐ Constantly went over the situation in my mind.

☐ Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.

☐ After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, become a volunteer, etc.).

☐ Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.

☐ Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).

☐ Avoided certain places or situations.

☐ I felt angry and/or disappointed.

☐ Had feelings of shame and guilt.

☐ I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.

☐ Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.

☐ Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.

☐ Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.

☐ Developed an eating disorder.

☐ Abused alcohol/drugs.

☐ Other problems.

☐ I experienced no negative effects.

15.2.2.13 [Seiten-ID: 1362458] [L]

Impacts – Studies

Did the situation have any impact on your studies?

Yes, namely,...

- ○ it affected my performance.
- ○ it delayed the progress of my studies.
- ○ I avoided certain courses/ places.
- ○ I changed study subject.
- ○ I interrupted my studies.
- ○ Other impacts.
- ○ No, it didn't have any impact on my studies.

15.2.2.14 [Seiten-ID: 1362459] [L]

When Situation occured

At what point in your studies at this university did you experience this situation?

- ○ In my 1st year.
- ○ In my 2nd year.
- ○ In my 3rd year.
- ○ In my 4th year
- ○ In my 5th year or more
- ○ During my doctoral studies.

16 [Seiten-ID: 1362460] [L]

Services

This list contains various services offering help.
For each service please tell us whether you...

	Know about it and have already used it	Know about it and would use it	Know about it but wouldn't use it	Don't know about it
University services				
University Equal Opportunities office	○	○	○	○
Department/General Students' committee (UK: students' union)	○	○	○	○
Councelling Centre (if available)	○	○	○	○
Other services				
Self-help group/centre	○	○	○	○
Women's Advice Centre/ Women's Emergency Hotline	○	○	○	○
Other advisory service	○	○	○	○

Therapeutic help	○	○	○	○
Doctor	○	○	○	○
Minister, Pastor	○	○	○	○
Other help	○	○	○	○

17 [Seiten-ID: 1362461] [L]

Services - Requirements

What would you want from a service you seek help from?
(Please indicate the three most important requirements.)

I would want...

☐ to be listened to and taken seriously.

☐ to be treated with compassion.

☐ to be advised by a woman.

☐ to be advised by a man.

☐ to be advised without a third party being present.

☐ to be advised in the company of someone I am close to.

☐ to be advised anonymously.

☐ to get an appointment straight away.

☐ to be advised for free.

☐ to be advised without a lot of bureaucracy being involved.

☐ to be advised and not be pressured (e.g. into making a complaint to the police).

☐ to be able to contact someone 24 hours a day.

☐ to be referred/accompanied to other services (e.g. lawyer, therapist, police) if I so request.

☐ to have a particular person allocated to me.

☐ to be advised by telephone / e-mail only if I want to.

☐ to have an interpreter.

☐ other requirements.

18 [Seiten-ID: 1490998] [L]

Personal Details

What is your year of birth?
Please indicate your year of birth four-digit (e.g. 1990).

[   ]

Are you...

○ a domestic student?

○ a non-domestic EU student?

○ a non-domestic international student?

If you belong to a religious community:
To which do you feel you belong?

○ Christian church

○ Islam

○ Judaism

○ Hinduism

○ Other

○ None

○ I don't wish to answer.

Please tell us where you live mainly during term time.

○ In a student residence.

○ In a shared flat/house.

○ In a flat/house with my partner/children.

○ In a flat/house on my own.

○ At my parents home.

○ Other.

19 [Seiten-ID: 1362462] [L]

<div align="center">Link to Services</div>

Do you require information about potential sources of support?

Below you will find links to advisory services at your University:

name of the service/authority1

name of the service/authority2

Further support services in the locality can be found at:
name of the service/authority3

20 [Seiten-ID: 1362471] [L]

<div align="center">Comments on Questionnaire</div>

How did you get on with filling in the questionnaire?

If you have any comments to make, please put them here:

21 [Seiten-ID: 1362472] [L]

<div align="center">Endseite</div>

Naturally we wish to inform the students at the university about the results of the study.

You can find out about the current progress of the project at

www.gendercrime.eu

Thank you very much indeed for your support!

Youe Research Team of the EU Project "Gender-Based Violence, Stalking and Fear of Crime"

Your team/names

Your faculty/chair, your University

8.2. Analysis of frequencies

8.2.1 Prevalence of violence

Table 1 – Harassment – experienced at least one incident in life

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Yes, at least one incident	N	10207	2114	3969	228	597	17115
	%	80,6%	69%	83,4%	70,6%	84,4%	79,5%
No, any incident	N	2456	950	790	95	110	4401
	%	19,4%	31,0%	16,6%	29,4%	15,6%	20,5%
Total	N	12663	3064	4759	323	707	21516
	%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 2 – Harassment – experienced at least one incident in studies

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Yes, at least one incident	N	6930	965	2592	122	407	11016
	%	68,0%	47%	65,80%	54,2%	68,6%	64,7%
No, any incident	N	3259	1109	1349	103	186	6006
	%	32,0%	53,5%	34,2%	45,8%	31,4%	35,3%
Total	N	10189	2074	3941	225	593	17022
	%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 3 – Harassment – most serious incident

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Most severe incident	Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me.	N	183	60	135	6	7	391
		%	2,7%	6,4%	5,2%	5,1%	1,7%	3,6%
	Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by saying things that were indecent or threatening.	N	508	104	210	16	30	868
		%	7,4%	11,1%	8,1%	13,7%	7,4%	8,0%
	I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments directed to me, or being stared at.	N	2.236	329	899	34	92	3.590
		%	32,5%	35,2%	34,8%	29,1%	22,8%	32,9%
	Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about my body or my private life, by making sexual innuendos, or by making sexual advances in a pushy way.	N	922	72	482	24	64	1.564
		%	13,4%	7,7%	18,6%	20,5%	15,9%	14,3%
	Someone got unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me too closely or pressured me into a corner in a way I perceived as pushy.	N	1.241	64	236	6	45	1.592
		%	18,1%	6,8%	9,1%	5,1%	11,2%	14,6%
	Someone told me lewd jokes and spoke to me in a way that made me feel pressured sexually.	N	146	119	86	7	6	364
		%	2,1%	12,7%	3,3%	6,0%	1,5%	3,3%
	Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.	N	666	43	220	5	117	1.051
		%	9,7%	4,6%	8,5%	4,3%	29,0%	9,6%
	Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that I became scared.	N	745	96	232	10	32	1.115
		%	10,8%	10,3%	9,0%	8,5%	7,9%	10,2%
	Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous for my future or my professional development if I didn't agree to have sex with him/her.	N	32	9	23	2	1	67
		%	0,5%	1,0%	0,9%	1,7%	0,2%	0,6%
	Someone showed me pornographic images or pictures of naked people in inappropriate situations.	N	38	11	18	5	1	73
		%	0,6%	1,2%	0,7%	4,3%	0,2%	0,7%
	I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment.	N	157	28	46	2	8	241
		%	2,3%	3,0%	1,8%	1,7%	2,0%	2,2%
Total		N	6.874	935	2.587	117	403	10.916
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 4 – Harassment (most serious incident)- German students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me	N	72	106	178
	%	40,4%	59,6%	100,0%
Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter	N	241	263	504
	%	47,8%	52,2%	100,0%
I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments	N	1837	377	2214
	%	83%	17%	100,0%
Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments	N	640	272	912
	%	70,2%	29,8%	100,0%
Someone got unnecessarily close to me	N	778	451	1229
	%	63,3%	36,7%	100,0%
Someone told me lewd jokes	N	120	22	142
	%	84,5%	15,5%	100,0%
Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will	N	355	303	658
	%	54,0%	46,0%	100,0%
Someone walked after me, followed me	N	77	660	737
	%	10,4%	89,6%	100,0%
Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous	N	6	24	30
	%	20,0%	80,0%	100,0%
Someone showed me pornographic images	N	20	15	35
	%	57,1%	42,9%	100,0%
I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	N	51	92	143
	%	35,7%	64,3%	100,0%
Total	N	4197	2585	6782
	%	61,9%	38,1%	100,0%

Table 5 – Harassment (most serious incident)- Italian students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me	N	31	26	57
	%	54,4%	45,6%	100,0%
Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter	N	32	71	103
	%	31,1%	68,9%	100,0%
I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments	N	226	97	323
	%	70%	30%	100,0%
Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments	N	45	27	72
	%	62,5%	37,5%	100,0%
Someone got unnecessarily close to me	N	21	42	63
	%	33,3%	66,7%	100,0%
Someone told me lewd jokes	N	75	42	117
	%	64,1%	35,9%	100,0%
Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will	N	18	24	42
	%	42,9%	57,1%	100,0%
Someone walked after me, followed me	N	5	87	92
	%	5,4%	94,6%	100,0%
Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous	N	1	7	8
	%	12,5%	87,5%	100,0%
Someone showed me pornographic images	N	6	5	11
	%	54,5%	45,5%	100,0%
I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	N	9	15	24
	%	37,5%	62,5%	100,0%
Total	N	469	443	912
	%	51,4%	48,6%	100,0%

Table 6 – Harassment (most serious incident)- Polish students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me	N	30	105	135
	%	22,2%	77,8%	100,0%
Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter	N	8	170	208
	%	18,3%	81,7%	100,0%
I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments	N	514	375	889
	%	58%	42%	100,0%
Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments	N	225	247	472
	%	47,7%	52,3%	100,0%
Someone got unnecessarily close to me	N	79	153	232
	%	34,1%	65,9%	100,0%
Someone told me lewd jokes	N	48	37	85
	%	56,5%	43,5%	100,0%
Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will	N	66	151	217
	%	30,4%	69,6%	100,0%
Someone walked after me, followed me	N	3	229	232
	%	1,3%	98,7%	100,0%
Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous	N	1	22	23
	%	4,3%	95,7%	100,0%
Someone showed me pornographic images	N	11	7	18
	%	61,6%	38,9%	
I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	N	10	35	45
	%	22,2%	77,8%	100,0%
Total	N	1025	1531	2556
	%	40,1%	59,9%	100,0%

Table 7 – Harassment (most serious incident)- Spanish students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me	N	0	6	6
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter	N	5	11	16
	%	31,3%	68,8%	100,0%
I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments	N	27	6	33
	%	82%	18%	100,0%
Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments	N	14	9	23
	%	60,9%	39,1%	100,0%
Someone got unnecessarily close to me	N	5	1	6
	%	83,3%	16,7%	100,0%
Someone told me lewd jokes	N	4	2	6
	%	66,7%	33,3%	100,0%
Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will	N	0	5	5
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Someone walked after me, followed me	N	4	6	10
	%	40,0%	60,0%	100,0%
Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous	N	0	2	2
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Someone showed me pornographic images	N	3	2	5
	%	60,0%	40,0%	100,0%
I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	N	1	1	2
	%	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Total	N	63	51	114
	%	55,3%	44,7%	100,0%

Table 8 – Harassment (most serious incident)- UK students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me	N	3	4	7
	%	42,9%	57,1%	100,0%
Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter	N	9	20	29
	%	31,0%	69,0%	100,0%
I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments	N	81	11	92
	%	88%	12%	100,0%
Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments	N	37	25	62
	%	59,7%	40,3%	100,0%
Someone got unnecessarily close to me	N	25	19	44
	%	56,8%	43,2%	100,0%
Someone told me lewd jokes	N	0	4	4
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will	N	58	57	115
	%	50,4%	49,6%	100,0%
Someone walked after me, followed me	N	13	19	32
	%	40,6%	59,4%	100,0%
Someone made it clear to me that it could be disadvantageous	N	0	1	1
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Someone showed me pornographic images	N	0	1	1
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	N	1	6	7
	%	14,3%	85,7%	100,0%
Total	N	232	162	394
	%	58,9%	41,1%	100,0%

Table 9 – Stalking – experienced at least one incident in life

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Yes, at least one incident	N	4927	773	1670	100	294	7764
	%	42,80%	28%	41,30%	35,6%	44,8%	40,3%
No, any incident	N	6587	1973	2377	181	362	11480
	%	57,2%	71,8%	58,7%	64,4%	55,2%	59,7%
Total	N	11514	2746	4047	281	656	19244
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 10 – Stalking – experienced at least one incident in studies

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Yes, at least one incident	N	2627	340	841	54	173	4035
	%	50,8%	41,8%	48,7%	52,9%	58,2%	49,7%
No, any incident	N	2540	473	886	48	124	4071
	%	49,2%	58,2%	51,3%	47,1%	41,8%	50,3%
Total	N	5167	813	1727	102	297	8106
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 11 – Stalking – most serious incident

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
					country			
Most severe incident	Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages over an extended periode.	N	1133	171	383	25	85	1797
		%	43,2%	50,9%	45,6%	48,1%	49,1%	44,7%
	Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, ∧gifts∧, pornographic material).	N	84	4	15	2	6	111
		%	3,2%	1,2%	1,8%	3,8%	3,5%	2,8%
	Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place.	N	351	31	71	6	15	474
		%	13,4%	9,2%	8,5%	11,5%	8,7%	11,8%
	Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acquaintances).	N	180	28	57	2	5	272
		%	6,9%	8,3%	6,8%	3,8%	2,9%	6,8%
	Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthotized access to my e-mail acccount, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations.	N	91	10	30	3	3	137
		%	3,5%	3,0%	3,6%	5,8%	1,7%	3,4%
	Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours.	N	118	2	15	1	6	142
		%	4,5%	0,6%	1,8%	1,9%	3,5%	3,5%
	Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me.	N	92	17	55	2	7	173
		%	3,5%	5,1%	6,5%	3,8%	4,0%	4,3%
	Threatened self-harm or suicide.	N	171	25	86	2	13	297
		%	6,5%	7,4%	10,2%	3,8%	7,5%	7,4%
	Deliberately destroyed or damaged things which belong to me or mean something to me.	N	30	4	16	0	3	53
		%	1,1%	1,2%	1,9%	0,0%	1,7%	1,3%
	Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me.	N	36	3	19	2	2	62
		%	1,4%	0,9%	2,3%	3,8%	1,2%	1,5%
	Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm.	N	81	6	13	2	17	119
		%	3,1%	1,8%	1,5%	3,8%	9,8%	3,0%
	Threatened to harm someone close to me (e.g. children, parents, partner).	N	23	3	7	1	1	35
		%	0,9%	0,9%	0,8%	1,9%	0,6%	0,9%
	Attacked or put at risk a person close to me (e.g. children, parents, partner).	N	16	3	10	0	0	29
		%	0,6%	0,9%	1,2%	0,0%	0,0%	0,7%
	Failed to abide by a police restraining order or a court safety order.	N	7	0	2	0	1	10
		%	0,3%	0,0%	0,2%	0,0%	0,6%	0,2%
	Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising actions.	N	209	29	61	4	9	312
		%	8,0%	8,6%	7,3%	7,7%	5,2%	7,8%
Total		N	2622	336	840	52	173	4023
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 12 – Stalking (most serious incident)- German students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	N	808	306	1114
	%	72,5%	27,5%	100,0%
Sent me things I didn't want	N	68	14	82
	%	82,9%	17,1%	100,0%
Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place	N	143	202	345
	%	41,4%	58,6%	100,0%
Spied up on me	N	105	74	179
	%	59%	41%	100,0%
Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations	N	40	51	91
	%	44,0%	56,0%	100,0%
Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	N	65	48	113
	%	57,5%	42,5%	100,0%
Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me	N	11	80	91
	%	12,1%	87,9%	100,0%
Threatened self-harm or suicide	N	93	66	159
	%	58,5%	41,5%	100,0%
Deliberately destroyed or damaged things which belong to me or mean something to me	N	13	16	29
	%	44,8%	55,2%	100,0%
Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me	N	1	35	26
	%	2,8%	97,2%	100,0%
Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	N	1	80	81
	%	1,2%	9,8%	100,0%
Threatened to harm someone close to me	N	7	16	23
	%	30,4%	69,6%	100,0%
Attacked or put at risk a person close to me	N	4	12	16
	%	25,0%	75,0%	100,0%
Failed to abide by a police restraining order or a court safety order	N	2	5	7
	%	28,6%	71,4%	100,0%
Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	N	76	129	205
	%	37,1%	62,9%	100,0%
Total	N	1437	1134	2571
	%	55,9%	44,1%	100,0%

Table 13 – Stalking (most serious incident)- Italian students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	N	92	74	166
	%	55,4%	44,6%	100,0%
Sent me things I didn't want	N	2	2	4
	%	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place	N	9	22	31
	%	29,0%	71,0%	100,0%
Spied up on me	N	12	14	26
	%	46,20%	53,80%	100,0%
Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations	N	2	8	10
	%	20,0%	80,0%	100,0%
Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	N	1	1	2
	%	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me	N	2	15	17
	%	11,8%	88,2%	100,0%
Threatened self-harm or suicide	N	9	15	24
	%	37,5%	62,2%	100,0%
Deliberately destroyed or damaged things which belong to me or mean something to me	N	1	3	4
	%	25,0%	75,0%	100,0%
Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me	N	1	2	3
	%	33,3%	66,7%	100,0%
Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	N	0	6	6
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Threatened to harm someone close to me	N	0	3	3
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Attacked or put at risk a person close to me	N	1	2	3
	%	33,3%	66,7%	100,0%
Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	N	8	17	25
	%	32,0%	68,0%	100,0%
Total	N	140	184	324
	%	43,2%	56,8%	100,0%

Table 14 – Stalking (most serious incident)- Polish students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	N	169	210	379
	%	44,6%	55,4%	100,0%
Sent me things I didn't want	N	8	7	15
	%	53,3%	46,7%	100,0%
Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place	N	19	50	69
	%	27,5%	72,5%	100,0%
Spied up on me	N	23	33	56
	%	41%	59%	100,0%
Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations	N	8	21	29
	%	27,6%	72,4%	100,0%
Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	N	3	11	14
	%	21,4%	78,6%	100,0%
Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me	N	2	52	54
	%	3,7%	96,3%	100,0%
Threatened self-harm or suicide	N	29	55	84
	%	34,5%	65,5%	100,0%
Deliberately destroyed or damaged things which belong to me or mean something to me	N	2	14	16
	%	12,5%	87,5%	100,0%
Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me	N	2	17	19
	%	10,5%	89,5%	100,0%
Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	N	0	13	13
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Threatened to harm someone close to me	N	0	7	7
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Attacked or put at risk a person close to me	N	2	8	10
	%	20,0%	80,0%	100,0%
Failed to abide by a police restraining order or a court safety order	N	0	2	2
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	N	15	45	60
	%	25,0%	75,0%	100,0%
Total	N	282	545	827
	%	34,1%	65,9%	100,0%

Table 15 – Stalking (most serious incident)- Spanish students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	N	13	11	24
	%	54,2%	45,8%	100,0%
Sent me things I didn't want	N	1	1	2
	%	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place	N	3	3	6
	%	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Spied up on me	N	1	1	2
	%	50%	50%	100,0%
Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations	N	1	2	3
	%	33,3%	66,7%	100,0%
Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	N	0	1	1
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me	N	0	2	2
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Threatened self-harm or suicide	N	0	2	2
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me	N	0	2	2
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	N	1	1	2
	%	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	N	0	3	3
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total	N	20	29	49
	%	40,8%	59,2%	100,0%

Table 16 – Stalking (most serious incident)- UK students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	N	63	22	85
	%	74,1%	25,9%	100,0%
Sent me things I didn't want	N	5	1	6
	%	83,3%	16,7%	100,0%
Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the university, at my work place	N	7	8	15
	%	46,7%	53,3%	100,0%
Spied up on me	N	2	3	5
	%	40%	60%	100,0%
Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unauthorised access to my e-mail account, intercepted my post, listened in to my telephone conversations	N	2	1	3
	%	66,7%	33,3%	100,0%
Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	N	2	4	6
	%	33,3%	66,7%	100,0%
Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to destroy things that belong to me	N	1	6	7
	%	14,3%	85,7%	100,0%
Threatened self-harm or suicide	N	4	8	12
	%	33,3%	66,7%	100,0%
Deliberately destroyed or damaged things which belong to me or mean something to me	N	0	2	2
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Threatened to injure me physically or to kill me	N	1	1	2
	%	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	N	0	17	17
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Threatened to harm someone close to me	N	0	1	1
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Failed to abide by a police restraining order or a court safety order	N	0	1	1
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	N	0	9	9
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total	N	89	83	171
	%	52,0%	48,0%	100,0%

Table 17 – Unwanted sexual acts – experienced at least one incident in life

		country					Total
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Yes, at least one incident	N	1219	172	337	30	128	1886
	%	59,2%	58,3%	71,2%	65,2%	73,1%	61,9%
No, any incident	N	839	123	136	16	47	1161
	%	40,8%	41,7%	28,8%	34,8%	26,9%	38,1%
Total	N	2058	295	473	46	175	3047
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 18 – Unwanted sexual acts – experienced at least one incident in studies

		country					Total
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Yes, at least one incident	N	363	52	158	11	43	627
	%	29,9%	30,2%	47,3%	36,7%	33,6%	33,4%
No, any incident	N	851	120	176	19	85	1251
	%	70,1%	69,8%	52,7%	63,3%	66,4%	66,.6%
Total	N	1214	172	334	30	128	1878
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 19 – Unwanted sexual acts – most serious incident

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
					country			
Most Severe incident	Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will.	N	111	10	53	4	15	193
		%	30,9%	19,2%	33,8%	36,4%	34,9%	31,0%
	Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen.	N	58	6	28	2	9	103
		%	16,2%	11,5%	17,8%	18,2%	20,9%	16,6%
	Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts.	N	97	24	49	3	15	188
		%	27,0%	46,2%	31,2%	27,3%	34,9%	30,2%
	Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't want to.	N	8	0	5	0	1	14
		%	2,2%	0,0%	3,2%	0,0%	2,3%	2,3%
	I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want.	N	85	12	22	2	3	124
		%	23,7%	23,1%	14,0%	18,2%	7,0%	19,9%
Total		N	359	52	157	11	43	622
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 20 – Unwanted sexual acts (most serious incident)- German students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will	N	28	78	106
	%	26,4%	73,6%	100,0%
Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen	N	10	45	55
	%	18,2%	81,8%	100,0%
Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts	N	31	64	95
	%	32,6%	67,4%	100,0%
Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't want to	N	3	3	6
	%	50%	50%	100,0%
I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want	N	24	56	80
	%	30,0%	70,0%	100,0%
Total	N	96	246	342
	%	28,1%	71,9%	100,0%

Table 21 – Unwanted sexual acts (most serious incident)- Italian students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will	N	1	9	10
	%	10,0%	90,0%	100,0%
Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen	N	1	5	6
	%	16,7%	83,3%	100,0%
Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts	N	6	18	24
	%	25,0%	75,0%	100,0%
I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want	N	2	10	12
	%	16,7%	83,3%	100,0%
Total	N	10	42	52
	%	19,2%	80,8%	100,0%

Table 22 – Unwanted sexual acts (most serious incident)- Polish students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will	N	11	41	52
	%	21,2%	78,8%	100,0%
Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen	N	4	24	28
	%	14,3%	85,7%	100,0%
Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts	N	8	37	45
	%	17,8%	82,2%	100,0%
Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't want to	N	1	4	5
	%	20%	80%	100,0%
I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want	N	6	14	20
	%	30,0%	70,0%	100,0%
Total	N	20	120	150
	%	20,0%	80,0%	100,0%

Table 23 – Unwanted sexual acts (most serious incident)- Spanish students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will	N	2	2	4
	%	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen	N	0	2	2
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts	N	0	3	3
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want	N	0	2	2
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total	N	2	9	11
	%	18,2%	81,8%	100,0%

Table 24 – Unwanted sexual acts (most serious incident)- UK students sense of threat

		Not threatened	Threatened	Total
Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will	N	1	14	15
	%	6,7%	93,3%	100,0%
Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen	N	1	8	9
	%	11,1%	88,9%	100,0%
Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts	N	3	12	15
	%	20,0%	80,0%	100,0%
Someone forced me to look at pornographic images or films and to act them out, even though they knew I didn't want to	N	1	0	1
	%	100%	0%	100,0%
I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want	N	0	3	3
	%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total	N	6	37	43
	%	14,0%	86,0%	100,0%

Table 25 - When Situation occurred - Harassment

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
When Situation occurred	In my 1st year.	N	2349	328	1017	31	222	3947
		%	39,5%	42,4%	48,2%	31,6%	59,8%	42,5%
	In my 2nd year.	N	1554	223	569	36	90	2472
		%	26,2%	28,8%	27,0%	36,7%	24,3%	26,6%
	In my 3rd year.	N	965	144	301	16	32	1458
		%	16,2%	18,6%	14,3%	16,3%	8,6%	15,7%
	In my 4th year.	N	519	45	144	7	15	730
		%	8,7%	5,8%	6,8%	7,1%	4,0%	7,9%
	During my Doctoral studies.	N	122	0	9	2	8	141
		%	2,1%	0,0%	0,4%	2,0%	2,2%	1,5%
	In my 5th year or more.	N	433	34	70	6	2	545
		%	7,3%	4,4%	3,3%	6,1%	0,5%	5,9%
	During my Masters Studies.	N	0	0	0	0	2	2
		%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,5%	0,0%
Total		N	5942	774	2110	98	371	9295
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 26 - When Situation occurred – Stalking

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
When Situation occurred	In my 1st year.	N	869	104	309	18	92	1392
		%	36,2%	35,9%	41,6%	39,1%	56,8%	38,2%
	In my 2nd year.	N	573	77	206	13	38	907
		%	23,9%	26,6%	27,8%	28,3%	23,5%	24,9%
	In my 3rd year.	N	397	55	130	6	15	603
		%	16,5%	19,0%	17,5%	13,0%	9,3%	16,6%
	In my 4th year.	N	271	27	64	5	10	377
		%	11,3%	9,3%	8,6%	10,9%	6,2%	10,4%
	During my Doctoral studies.	N	58	0	3	0	6	67
		%	2,4%	0,0%	0,4%	0,0%	3,7%	1,8%
	In my 5th year or more.	N	234	27	30	4	0	295
		%	9,7%	9,3%	4,0%	8,7%	0,0%	8,1%
	During my Masters Studies.	N	0	0	0	0	1	1
		%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,6%	0,0%
Total		N	2402	290	742	46	162	3642
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 27 - When Situation occurred – Sexual violence

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
When Situation occurred	In my 1st year.	N	138	19	65	6	26	254
		%	41,7%	38,8%	46,1%	66,7%	65,0%	44,6%
	In my 2nd year.	N	76	15	32	2	12	137
		%	23,0%	30,6%	22,7%	22,2%	30,0%	24,0%
	In my 3rd year.	N	50	9	27	0	2	88
		%	15,1%	18,4%	19,1%	0,0%	5,0%	15,4%
	In my 4th year.	N	29	3	7	0	0	39
		%	8,8%	6,1%	5,0%	0,0%	0,0%	6,8%
	During my Doctoral studies.	N	7	0	0	0	0	7
		%	2,1%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	1,2%
	In my 5th year or more.	N	31	3	10	1	0	45
		%	9,4%	6,1%	7,1%	11,1%	0,0%	7,9%
Total		N	331	49	141	9	40	570
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.2.2 Where violence happens

Table 28 - Context - Harassment

		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
		country					
University sites	N	1829	218	557	29	202	2835
	%	28,7%	26,0%	23,4%	28,7%	53,2%	28,2%
Outside the university	N	4247	562	1703	54	164	6730
	%	66,7%	67,0%	71,4%	53,5%	43,2%	66,8%
Internet	N	142	16	39	6	5	208
	%	2,2%	1,9%	1,6%	5,9%	1,3%	2,1%
Telephone	N	148	43	86	12	9	298
	%	2,3%	5,1%	3,6%	11,9%	12,4%	3,0%
Total	N	6366	839	2385	101	380	10071
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 29 – Harassment – University sites

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Lecture theatre/ seminar room	N	392	33	132	5	7	569
	%	21,5%	15,1%	23,7%	17,8%	6,7%	20,8%
Library	N	86	5	2	1	2	96
	%	4,7%	2,3%	0,4%	3,6%	1,9%	3,5%
Staff offices	N	124	12	43	1	0	180
	%	6,8%	5,5%	7,7%	3,6%	0,0%	6,6%
Student union rooms/students pub/students union bar	N	86	24	1	0	17	128
	%	4,7%	11,0%	0,2%	0,0%	16,2%	4,7%
Canteen/cafeteria	N	149	6	25	0	1	181
	%	8,1%	2,7%	4,5%	0,0%	0,9%	6,6%
Sports hall/changing rooms	N	21	0	14	1	1	37
	%	1,1%	0,0%	2,5%	3,6%	0,9%	1,3%
Toilets	N	13	4	8	0	0	25
	%	0,7%	1,9%	1,4%	0,0%	0,0%	0,9%
Lift/stairs/ corridor	N	211	10	109	1	3	334
	%	11,6%	4,6%	19,6%	3,6%	2,8%	12,2%
Outdoor areas on the university campus	N	583	102	150	15	36	886
	%	31,9%	46,7%	26,9%	53,5%	34,3%	32,4%
(Multi-storey) car park	N	81	17	31	4	5	138
	%	4,40%	7,90%	5,60%	14,30%	4,80%	5,1%
Inside student residences	N	83	5	42	0	33	163
	%	4,50%	2,30%	7,50%	0,0%	31,40%	5,9%
Total	N	1829	218	557	28	105	2737
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 30 - Stalking – Context

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
University sites	N	313	29	72	4	49	467
	%	12,9%	9,7%	9,4%	9,5%	30,4%	12,6%
Outside the university	N	1461	174	422	19	67	2143
	%	60,2%	58,0%	55,3%	45,2%	41,6%	58,0%
Internet	N	341	15	76	3	13	448
	%	14,1%	5,0%	10,0%	7,1%	8,1%	12,1%
Telephone	N	312	82	193	16	32	635
	%	12,9%	27,3%	25,3%	38,1%	19,9%	17,2%
Total	N	2427	300	763	42	161	3693
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 31 - Stalking – University sites

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Lecture theatre/ seminar room	N	56	5	13	0	1	75
	%	17,9%	17,2%	18,1%	0,0%	2,0%	16,3%
Library	N	24	2	4	1	2	33
	%	7,7%	6,9%	5,6%	25,0%	4,1%	7,2%
Staff offices	N	25	0	8	0	0	33
	%	8,0%	0,0%	11,1%	0,0%	0,0%	7,2%
Student union rooms/students pub/students union bar	N	12	4	0	0	9	18
	%	3,8%	13,8%	0,0%	0,0%	18,4%	3,9%
Canteen/cafeteria	N	32	0	3	0	0	35
	%	10,2%	0,0%	4,2%	0,0%	0,0%	7,6%
Sports hall/changing rooms	N	10	0	1	0	0	11
	%	3,2%	0,0%	1,4%	0,0%	0,0%	2,5%
Toilets	N	3	2	1	1	0	7
	%	1,0%	6,9%	1,4%	25,0%	0,0%	1,5%
Lift/stairs/ corridor	N	17	2	15	0	1	35
	%	5,4%	6,9%	20,8%	0,0%	2,0%	7,6%
Outdoor areas on the university campus	N	62	10	15	1	2	90
	%	19,8%	34,5%	20,8%	25,0%	4,1%	19,5%
(Multi-storey) car park	N	5	0	2	0	0	7
	%	1,6%	0,0%	2,8%	0,0%	0,0%	1,5%
Inside student residences	N	67	4	10	1	34	116
	%	21,4%	13,8%	13,9%	25,0%	69,4%	25,2%
Total	N	313	29	72	4	49	467
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 32 - Unwanted sexual acts

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
University sites	N	32	3	9	2	15	61
	%	9,3%	6,3%	6,3%	20,0%	35,7%	10,4%
Outside the university	N	312	45	133	8	27	525
	%	90,7%	93,7%	93,7%	80,0%	64,3%	89,6%
Total	N	344	48	142	10	42	586
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 33 – Unwanted sexual acts – university sites

		country					
		Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Lecture theatre/ seminar room	N	1	1	2	0	0	4
	%	3,1%	33,3%	22,1%	0,0%	0,0%	6,7%
Staff offices	N	2	0	1	0	0	3
	%	6,2%	0,0%	11,1%	0,0%	0,0%	5,0%
Student union rooms/students pub/students union bar	N	3	0	0	0	2	5
	%	9,4%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	14,4%	8,3%
Canteen/cafeteria	N	1	0	0	0	0	1
	%	3,1%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	1,7%
Lift/stairs/ corridor	N	1	0	0	0	0	1
	%	3,1%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	1,7%
Outdoor areas on the university campus	N	7	1	0	1	1	10
	%	21,9%	33,3%	0,0%	50,0%	7,2%	16,6%
(Multi-storey) car park	N	3	0	0	0	0	3
	%	9,4%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	5,0%
Inside student residences	N	14	1	6	1	11	33
	%	43,8%	33,4%	66,7%	50,0%	78,4%	55,0%
Total	N	32	3	9	2	14	60
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 34 - Germany - unwanted sexual acts – context and feelings of safety at university

		University sites	Outside university	Total
Safe	N	578	2212	2790
	%	71,9%	79,3%	90,4%
Not safe	N	83	212	295
	%	28,2%	20,7%	9,6%
Total	N	661	2424	3085
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 35 - Italy - unwanted sexual acts – context and feelings of safety at university

		University sites	Outside university	Total
Safe	N	14	304	318
	%	51,8%	77,1%	75,5%
Not safe	N	13	90	103
	%	48,1%	22,9	24,5%
Total	N	27	394	421
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 36 - Poland - unwanted sexual acts – context and feelings of safety at university

		University sites	Outside university	Total
Safe	N	48	1030	1078
	%	69,5%	90,8%	89,6%
Not safe	N	21	104	125
	%	30,5%	9,2	10,4%
Total	N	69	1134	1203
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 37 - Spain - unwanted sexual acts – context and feelings of safety at university

		University sites	Outside university	Total
Safe	N	7	62	69
	%	35,0%	88,6%	76,7%
Not safe	N	13	8	21
	%	65,0%	11,4%	23,3%
Total	N	20	70	90
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 38 - UK - unwanted sexual acts – context and feelings of safety at university

		University sites	Outside university	Total
Safe	N	115	222	337
	%	84,0%	92,8%	89,6%
Not safe	N	22	17	39
	%	16,0%	7,2%	10,4%
Total	N	137	239	376
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.2.3 Who are the perpetrators?

Table 39 – Sexual Harassment – Identification of the perpetrator

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
Perpetrator	Fellow student	N	2023	153	523	26	266	2991
		%	30,8%	17,0%	20,6%	23,4%	66,7%	28,5%
	Academic staff	N	239	34	174	7	3	457
		%	3,6%	3,8%	6,9%	6,3%	0,8%	4,3%
	Non-academic university staff/ other university staff	N	205	22	22	9	6	264
		%	3,1%	2,4%	0,9%	8,1%	1,5%	2,5%
	Someone outside university	N	4100	689	1818	69	124	6800
		%	62,4%	76,7%	71,7%	62,2%	31,1%	64,7%
Total		N	6567	898	2537	111	399	10512
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 40 – Sexual harassment – Perpetrator outside the University

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
Perpetrator - someone ouside the univeristy	Partner	N	19	15	12	0	0	46
		%	0,5%	2,3%	0,7%	0,0%	0,0%	0,7%
	Ex-partner	N	82	35	55	7	7	186
		%	2,0%	5,3%	3,1%	10,6%	5,7%	2,8%
	Someone from my family (including distant relative or other related person)	N	33	10	10	1	1	55
		%	0,8%	1,5%	0,6%	1,5%	0,8%	0,8%
	Someone in my group of friends (including a friend of a friend)	N	267	53	118	4	7	449
		%	6,6%	8,1%	6,5%	6,1%	5,7%	6,7%
	Someone from work (e.g. colleague, superior, customer)	N	205	13	49	1	7	275
		%	5,1%	2,0%	2,7%	1,5%	5,7%	4,1%
	A stranger	N	2948	439	1401	41	83	4912
		%	72,8%	66,8%	77,7%	62,1%	67,5%	73,3%
	Internet acquaintance	N	51	11	23	1	2	88
		%	1,3%	1,7%	1,3%	1,5%	1,6%	1,3%
	Other acquaintance	N	203	29	70	9	9	320
		%	5,0%	4,4%	3,9%	13,6%	7,3%	4,8%
	Professional (e.g. doctor, trainer, policeman)	N	19	12	19	0	2	52
		%	0,5%	1,8%	1,1%	0,0%	1,6%	0,8%
	Someone from my residential environment (e.g. neighbour, room/flatmate, landlord	N	97	20	23	1	3	144
		%	2,4%	3,0%	1,3%	1,5%	2,4%	2,1%
	Someone else	N	128	20	23	1	2	174
		%	3,2%	3,0%	1,3%	1,5%	1,6%	2,6%
Total		N	4052	657	1803	66	123	6701
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 41 – Stalking – Identification of the perpetrator

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Perpetrator	Fellow student	N	710	53	142	8	83	996
		%	28,6%	16,4%	17,4%	16,7%	48,8%	25,9%
	Academic staff	N	32	5	24	3	1	65
		%	1,3%	1,5%	2,9%	6,3%	0,6%	1,7%
	Non-academic University staff/ other University staff	N	42	4	2	0	3	51
		%	1,7%	1,2%	0,2%	0,0%	1,8%	1,3%
	Someone outside University	N	1701	262	646	37	83	2729
		%	68,5%	80,9%	79,4%	77,1%	48,8%	71,0%
Total		N	2485	324	814	48	170	3841
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 42 – Stalking – Perpetrator outside the University

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Perpetrator - someone outside the university	Partner	N	52	10	45	2	4	113
		%	3,1%	4,0%	7,1%	5,6%	4,8%	4,2%
	Ex-partner	N	407	93	204	15	36	755
		%	24,2%	36,8%	32,1%	41,7%	43,4%	28,0%
	Someone from my family (including distant relative or other related person)	N	60	10	26	1	3	100
		%	3,6%	4,0%	4,1%	2,8%	3,6%	3,7%
	Someone in my group of friends (including a friend of a friend)	N	190	20	74	2	4	290
		%	11,3%	7,9%	11,7%	5,6%	4,8%	10,8%
	Someone from work (e.g. colleague, superior, customer)	N	56	3	12	1	5	77
		%	3,3%	1,2%	1,9%	2,8%	6,0%	2,9%
	A stranger	N	455	57	152	1	10	675
		%	27,0%	22,5%	23,9%	2,8%	12,0%	25,1%
	Internet acquaintance	N	78	13	29	2	5	127
		%	4,6%	5,1%	4,6%	5,6%	6,0%	4,7%
	Other acquaintance	N	203	21	57	6	10	297
		%	12,0%	8,3%	9,0%	16,7%	12,0%	11,0%
	Professional (e.g. doctor, trainer, policeman)	N	10	2	5	0	1	18
		%	0,6%	0,8%	0,8%	0,0%	1,2%	0,7%
	Someone from my residential environment (e.g. neighbour, room/flatmare, landlord)	N	100	8	15	4	3	130
		%	5,9%	3,2%	2,4%	11,1%	3,6%	4,8%
	Someone else	N	74	16	16	2	2	110
		%	4,4%	6,3%	2,5%	5,6%	2,4%	4,1%
Total		N	1685	253	635	36	83	2692
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 43 – Sexual Violence – Identification of perpetrator

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Perpetrator	Fellow student	N	72	7	33	1	28	141
		%	20,5%	14,3%	21,4%	10,0%	65,1%	23,2%
	Academic staff	N	6	1	8	1	0	16
		%	1,7%	2,0%	5,2%	10,0%	0,0%	2,6%
	Non-academic University staff/ other University staff	N	6	0	2	0	1	9
		%	1,7%	0,0%	1,3%	0,0%	2,3%	1,5%
	Someone outside University	N	267	41	111	8	14	441
		%	76,1%	83,7%	72,1%	80,0%	32,6%	72,7%
Total		N	351	49	154	10	43	607
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table – 44 Sexual Violence – Perpetrator outside the university

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
Perpetrator - someone outside the university	Partner	N	26	7	32	1	1	67
		%	9,8%	17,1%	28,8%	12,5%	7,1%	15,2%
	Ex-partner	N	70	9	29	4	4	116
		%	26,3%	22,0%	26,1%	50,0%	28,6%	26,4%
	Someone from my family (including distant relative or other related person)	N	10	1	6	1	0	18
		%	3,8%	2,4%	5,4%	12,5%	0,0%	4,1%
	Someone in my group of friends (including a friend of a friend)	N	43	3	20	0	3	69
		%	16,2%	7,3%	18,0%	0,0%	21,4%	15,7%
	Someone from work (e.g. colleague, superior, customer)	N	8	2	2	0	0	12
		%	3,0%	4,9%	1,8%	0,0%	0,0%	2,7%
	A stranger	N	44	6	6	2	1	59
		%	16,5%	14,6%	5,4%	25,0%	7,1%	13,4%
	Internet acquaintance	N	4	1	2	0	0	7
		%	1,5%	2,4%	1,8%	0,0%	0,0%	1,6%
	Other acquaintance	N	34	8	9	0	3	54
		%	12,8%	19,5%	8,1%	0,0%	21,4%	12,3%
	Professional (e.g. doctor, trainer, policeman)	N	3	1	1	0	0	5
		%	1,1%	2,4%	0,9%	0,0%	0,0%	1,1%
	Someone from my residential environment (e.g. neighbour, room/flatmate, landlord)	N	13	1	1	0	1	16
		%	4,9%	2,4%	0,9%	0,0%	7,1%	3,6%
	Someone else	N	11	2	3	0	1	17
		%	4,1%	4,9%	2,7%	0,0%	7,1%	3,9%
Total		N	266	41	111	8	14	440
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 45 - Sexual violence – A date

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Date	Yes	N	140	30	85	4	17	276
		%	39,8%	58,8%	55,6%	40,0%	39,5%	45,3%
	No	N	212	21	68	6	26	333
		%	60,2%	41,2%	44,4%	60,0%	60,5%	54,7%
Total		N	352	51	153	10	43	609
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 46 - Sexual Violence – The perpetrator and the influence of alcohol/recreational drug

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Drugs respondend	Yes	N	85	5	35	3	17	145
		%	24,1%	9,8%	23,8%	30,0%	40,5%	24,0%
	No	N	267	46	109	7	25	454
		%	75,6%	90,2%	74,1%	70,0%	59,5%	75,3%
	Don't wish to answer	N	1	0	3	0	0	4
		%	0,3%	0,0%	2,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,7%
Total		N	353	51	147	10	42	603
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 47 - Sexual Violence – The student and the influence of alcohol/recreational drug

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Drugs perpetrator	Yes	N	116	10	53	2	21	202
		%	32,8%	19,6%	36,1%	20,0%	50,0%	33,4%
	No	N	184	33	80	7	14	318
		%	52,0%	64,7%	54,4%	70,0%	33,3%	52,6%
	Don't know	N	51	8	13	1	7	80
		%	14,4%	15,7%	8,8%	10,0%	16,7%	13,2%
	Don't wish to answer	N	3	0	1	0	0	4
		%	0,8%	0,0%	0,7%	0,0%	0,0%	0,7%
Total		N	354	51	147	10	42	604
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 48 – Sexual harassment – Perpetrator gender

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Perpetrator - gender	Male	N	6501	856	2445	91	383	10276
		%	97,5%	94,6%	96,9%	82,0%	96,7%	96,9%
	Female	N	167	49	77	20	13	326
		%	2,5%	5,4%	3,1%	18,0%	3,3%	3,1%
Total		N	6668	905	2522	111	396	10602
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 49 – Sexual harassment – Date

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Date	Yes	N	200	65	125	10	14	414
		%	3,0%	7,5%	4,9%	9,0%	3,5%	3,9%
	No	N	6430	807	2402	101	382	10122
		%	97,0%	92,5%	95,1%	91,0%	96,5%	96,1%
Total		N	6630	872	2527	111	396	10536
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 50 - Stalking – Perpetrator gender

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Perpetrator Gender	Male	N	2250	290	754	37	156	3487
		%	90,9%	90,6%	92,6%	77,1%	92,3%	91,1%
	Female	N	226	30	60	11	13	340
		%	9,1%	9,4%	7,4%	22,9%	7,7%	8,9%
Total		N	2476	320	814	48	169	3827
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 51 - Stalking – Date

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Date	Yes	N	415	58	293	15	69	850
		%	16,4%	18,3%	36,0%	31,9%	40,8%	21,9%
	No	N	2111	259	521	32	100	3023
		%	83,6%	81,7%	64,0%	68,1%	59,2%	78,1%
Total		N	2526	317	814	47	169	3873
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 52 - Sexual violence – Perpetrator gender

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Perpetrator Gender	Male	N	342	48	148	8	43	589
	Male	%	96,6%	96,0%	96,7%	80,0%	100,0%	96,6%
	Female	N	12	2	5	2	0	21
	Female	%	3,4%	4,0%	3,3%	20,0%	0,0%	3,4%
Total		N	354	50	153	10	43	610
Total		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.2.4 Assessment of violence

Table 53 - Sexual harassment - Assessment of situation

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Assessment of Situation	harassment?	N	3342	360	365	35	121	4223
	harassment?	%	52,8%	43,7%	15,7%	33,3%	31,5%	42,4%
	sexual harassment?	N	1381	74	186	21	111	1773
	sexual harassment?	%	21,8%	9,0%	8,0%	20,0%	28,9%	17,8%
	violence?	N	139	25	178	6	8	356
	violence?	%	2,2%	3,0%	7,7%	5,7%	2,1%	3,6%
	I don't wish to answer.	N	100	41	120	2	10	273
	I don't wish to answer.	%	1,6%	5,0%	5,2%	1,9%	2,6%	2,7%
	none of the above mentioned assessments?	N	1364	323	1472	41	134	3334
	none of the above mentioned assessments?	%	21,6%	39,2%	63,4%	39,0%	34,9%	33,5%
Total		N	6326	823	2321	105	384	9959
Total		%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 54 – Sexual harassment – Perception of perpetrator responsability

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
something the person who did it bears responsibility for?	Yes	N	5439	605	2002	83	304	8433
		%	87,3%	74,9%	87,8%	83,0%	80,0%	86,1%
	No	N	244	64	72	7	38	425
		%	3,9%	7,9%	3,2%	7,0%	10,0%	4,3%
	Don't know	N	545	139	206	10	38	938
		%	8,8%	17,2%	9,0%	10,0%	10,0%	9,6%
Total		N	6228	808	2280	100	380	9796
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 55 – Sexual harassment – Perpetrator and punishment

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
something the person who did it ought to be punished for?	Yes	N	796	261	508	32	82	1679
		%	13,3%	33,6%	23,6%	32,0%	22,1%	17,9%
	No	N	3475	250	858	37	190	4810
		%	57,9%	32,2%	39,9%	37,0%	51,2%	51,2%
	Don't know	N	1729	266	787	31	99	2912
		%	28,8%	34,2%	36,6%	31,0%	26,7%	31,0%
Total		N	6000	777	2153	100	371	9401
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 56 – Sexual harassment – Student's feelings of responsability

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
something you also feel responsible for?	Yes	N	533	41	128	8	65	775
		%	8,9%	5,3%	6,0%	8,2%	17,5%	8,3%
	No	N	4943	686	1705	78	270	7682
		%	82,1%	88,9%	80,2%	79,6%	72,8%	81,8%
	Don't know	N	545	45	294	12	36	932
		%	9,1%	5,8%	13,8%	12,2%	9,7%	9,9%
Total		N	6021	772	2127	98	371	9389
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 57 - Stalking - Assessment of situation

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
Assessment of Situation	harassment?	N	1203	95	71	15	68	1452
		%	49,0%	31,6%	9,2%	31,9%	41,2%	38,8%
	psychological blackmail?	N	587	95	353	18	29	1082
		%	23,9%	31,6%	45,7%	38,3%	17,6%	28,9%
	violence?	N	148	23	91	6	15	283
		%	6,0%	7,6%	11,8%	12,8%	9,1%	7,6%
	I don't wish to answer.	N	36	14	29	2	7	88
		%	1,5%	4,7%	3,8%	4,3%	4,2%	2,4%
	none of the above mentioned assessments?	N	482	74	228	6	46	836
		%	19,6%	24,6%	29,5%	12,8%	27,9%	22,3%
Total		N	2456	301	772	47	165	3741
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 58 - Stalking - Perception of perpetrator responsability

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
something the person who did it bears responsibility for?	Yes	N	2133	244	668	38	134	3217
		%	88,1%	82,7%	89,3%	84,4%	81,7%	87%
	No	N	105	19	17	1	14	156
		%	4,3%	6,4%	2,3%	2,2%	8,5%	4,2%
	Don't know	N	184	32	63	6	16	301
		%	7,6%	10,8%	8,4%	13,3%	9,8%	8,2%
Total		N	2422	295	748	45	164	3674
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 59 – Stalking - Perpetrator and punishment

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	
something the person who did it ought to be punished for?	Yes	N	597	131	252	15	44	1039
		%	25,3%	46,0%	34,6%	35,7%	27,7%	29,1%
	No	N	1174	84	246	13	80	1597
		%	49,8%	29,5%	33,7%	31,0%	50,3%	44,7%
	Don't know	N	586	70	231	14	35	936
		%	24,9%	24,6%	31,7%	33,3%	22,0%	26,2%
Total		N	2357	285	729	42	159	3572
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 60 – Stalking - student's feelings of responsibility

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
								country
something you also feel responsible for?	Yes	N	448	32	136	7	40	663
		%	19,0%	11,2%	18,8%	15,9%	25,0%	18,5%
	No	N	1603	220	451	31	103	2408
		%	67,8%	77,2%	62,2%	70,5%	64,4%	67,3%
	Don't know	N	313	33	138	6	17	507
		%	13,2%	11,6%	19,0%	13,6%	10,6%	14,2%
Total		N	2364	285	725	44	160	3578
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 61 - Sexual violence - Assessment of situation

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Assessment of Situation	violence?	N	26	12	28	0	1	67
		%	7,5%	24,0%	19,7%	0,0%	2,4%	11,4%
	sexual assault?	N	194	19	31	5	19	268
		%	55,9%	38,0%	21,8%	50,0%	46,3%	45,4%
	rape?	N	57	5	33	3	10	108
		%	16,4%	10,0%	23,2%	30,0%	24,4%	18,3%
	I don't wish to answer.	N	21	0	8	0	4	33
		%	6,1%	0,0%	5,6%	0,0%	9,8%	5,6%
	none of the above mentioned assessments?	N	49	14	42	2	7	114
		%	14,1%	28,0%	29,6%	20,0%	17,1%	19,3%
Total		N	347	50	142	10	41	590
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 62 – Sexual violence – Perception of perpetrator responsability

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
something the person who did it bears responsibility for?	Yes	N	297	45	107	9	36	494
		%	86,6%	97,8%	82,3%	90,0%	87,8%	86,7%
	No	N	17	0	9	0	2	28
		%	5,0%	0,0%	6,9%	0,0%	4,9%	4,9%
	Don't know	N	29	1	14	1	3	48
		%	8,5%	2,2%	10,8%	10,0%	7,3%	8,4%
Total		N	343	46	130	10	41	570
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 63 – Sexual violence – Perpetrator and punishment

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
something the person who did it ought to be punished for?	Yes	N	135	29	50	5	15	234
		%	39,9%	67,4%	39,1%	50,0%	37,5%	41,9%
	No	N	89	5	39	2	10	145
		%	26,3%	11,6%	30,5%	20,0%	25,0%	25,9%
	Don't know	N	114	9	39	3	15	180
		%	33,7%	20,9%	30,5%	30,0%	37,5%	32,2%
Total		N	338	43	128	10	40	559
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 64 – Sexual violence – Student's feelings of responsability

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
something you also feel responsible for?	Yes	N	154	15	48	3	23	243
		%	44,8%	30,6%	35,8%	30,0%	57,5%	42,1%
	No	N	119	27	49	6	6	207
		%	34,6%	55,1%	36,6%	60,0%	15,0%	35,9%
	Don't know	N	71	7	37	1	11	127
		%	20,6%	14,3%	27,6%	10,0%	27,5%	22,0%
Total		N	344	49	134	10	40	577
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 65 – Sexual harassment – Sense of threat

			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Sense of Threat	Yes, very.	N	742	97	505	9	43	1396
		%	10,9%	10,5%	19,6%	7,8%	10,7%	12,9%
	Yes, quite.	N	1843	346	1026	42	119	3376
		%	27,0%	37,4%	39,9%	36,2%	29,7%	31,1%
	No, not very.	N	3407	431	936	55	197	5026
		%	49,8%	46,6%	36,4%	47,4%	49,1%	46,3%
	No, not at all.	N	791	38	89	8	35	961
		%	11,6%	4,1%	3,5%	6,9%	8,7%	8,9%
	I don't wish to answer.	N	53	12	17	2	7	91
		%	0,8%	1,3%	0,7%	1,7%	1,7%	0,8%
Total		N	6836	924	2573	116	401	10850
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 66 – Stalking – Sense of threat

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Sense of Threat	Yes, very.	N	411	47	200	12	37	707
		%	15,8%	14,2%	24,0%	24,5%	21,5%	17,7%
	Yes, quite.	N	724	137	345	17	45	1268
		%	27,8%	41,4%	41,3%	34,7%	26,2%	31,8%
	No, not very.	N	1044	119	249	17	75	1504
		%	40,1%	36,0%	29,8%	34,7%	43,6%	37,7%
	No, not at all.	N	393	21	33	3	14	464
		%	15,1%	6,3%	4,0%	6,1%	8,1%	11,6%
	I don't wish to answer.	N	33	7	8	0	1	49
		%	1,3%	2,1%	1,0%	0,0%	0,6%	1,2%
Total		N	2605	331	835	49	172	3992
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 67 – Sexual violence – Sense of threat

			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Sense of Threat	Yes, very.	N	123	15	66	4	20	228
		%	34,6%	28,8%	42,9%	36,4%	46,5%	37,0%
	Yes, quite.	N	123	27	54	5	17	226
		%	34,6%	51,9%	35,1%	45,5%	39,5%	36,7%
	No, not very.	N	84	10	26	2	6	128
		%	23,6%	19,2%	16,9%	18,2%	14,0%	20,8%
	No, not at all.	N	12	0	4	0	0	16
		%	3,4%	0,0%	2,6%	0,0%	0,0%	2,6%
	I don't wish to answer.	N	14	0	4	0	0	18
		%	3,9%	0,0%	2,6%	0,0%	0,0%	2,9%
Total		N	356	52	154	11	43	616
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.2.5 Impacts and coping strategies

8.2.5.1 Harassement

Table 68 – Harassment impacts - Germany

Harassment Impacts	Most severe incident									
	Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me.	Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by	was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments	Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about	Someone got unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me too	Someone told me lewd jokes and spoke to me in a way that mad	Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.	Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that	I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	Total
Felt down or depressed.	22,8%	32,9%	22,5%	33,6%	23,0%	17,6%	38,7%	18,0%	47,8%	26,8%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	23,9%	17,9%	33,5%	36,8%	30,6%	17,6%	33,7%	28,6%	38,3%	30,2%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	40,2%	63,8%	31,4%	37,2%	35,9%	47,1%	43,6%	38,6%	66,1%	41,7%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,0%	6,5%	,9%	4,0%	2,4%	,0%	4,3%	2,6%	20,0%	3,8%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,0%	1,6%	2,5%	2,0%	1,2%	,0%	1,8%	1,1%	3,5%	1,6%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	15,2%	20,7%	20,3%	33,2%	15,6%	23,5%	31,2%	10,1%	43,5%	20,5%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	30,4%	57,7%	27,1%	26,5%	22,0%	17,6%	35,5%	52,0%	47,8%	37,9%
Avoided certain places or situations.	34,8%	41,1%	37,8%	43,5%	43,3%	29,4%	45,7%	60,0%	47,8%	46,7%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	20,7%	41,9%	32,6%	43,1%	37,4%	52,9%	48,9%	22,4%	47,0%	35,2%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	10,9%	17,9%	7,4%	17,0%	13,0%	17,6%	27,3%	7,7%	47,8%	15,1%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	12,0%	5,7%	4,0%	3,2%	4,6%	11,8%	5,0%	5,6%	7,0%	5,2%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	3,3%	16,3%	4,3%	7,5%	7,8%	,0%	12,4%	6,2%	35,7%	9,4%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	3,3%	11,8%	3,1%	5,5%	5,1%	,0%	9,9%	5,6%	35,7%	7,7%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	1,1%	4,1%	1,5%	2,0%	1,2%	,0%	3,2%	1,0%	16,5%	2,6%
Developed an eating disorder.	1,1%	3,7%	1,5%	4,7%	1,7%	,0%	5,7%	2,3%	19,1%	3,7%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	2,2%	2,0%	,3%	4,0%	1,7%	,0%	2,1%	7%	10,4%	2,0%
Other problems.	3,3%	7,3%	3,4%	6,7%	4,9%	5,9%	6,4%	6,0%	14,8%	6,0%
I experienced no negative effects.	18,5%	8,5%	16,9%	4,0%	12,7%	,0%	8,9%	12,3%	3,5%	11,0%
Total	92	246	325	253	409	17	282	612	115	2351

Table 69 – Harassment impacts -Italy

Harassment Impacts	Most severe incident									
	Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten	Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by	I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments d	Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about	Someone got unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me too	Someone told me lewd jokes and spoke to me in a way that mad	Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.	Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that	I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	Total
Felt down or depressed.	29,2%	37,9%	17,3%	41,7%	30,8%	16,7%	15,0%	13,9%	56,0%	25,9%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	33,3%	25,8%	45,7%	29,2%	28,2%	38,9%	10,0%	24,1%	36,0%	31,5%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	8,3%	16,7%	3,7%	8,3%	12,8%	11,1%	15,0%	11,4%	28,0%	11,7%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,0%	4,5%	,0%	4,2%	,0%	2,8%	,0%	3,8%	8,0%	2,5%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,0%	3,0%	3,7%	,0%	2,6%	5,6%	,0%	3,8%	,0%	2,8%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	12,5%	16,7%	1,2%	8,3%	7,7%	8,3%	10,0%	2,5%	20,0%	8,1%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	29,2%	39,4%	58,0%	50,0%	38,5%	47,2%	25,0%	70,9%	36,0%	49,2%
Avoided certain places or situations.	79,2%	42,4%	66,7%	70,8%	61,5%	72,2%	70,0%	67,1%	40,0%	62,2%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	33,3%	30,3%	14,8%	41,7%	25,6%	22,2%	30,0%	12,7%	52,0%	24,6%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	8,3%	10,6%	2,5%	4,2%	7,7%	8,3%	5,0%	1,3%	16,0%	6,1%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	8,3%	7,6%	6,2%	8,3%	,0%	8,3%	5,0%	1,3%	12,0%	5,6%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	4,2%	7,6%	2,5%	4,2%	5,1%	2,8%	15,0%	7,6%	20,0%	6,6%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,0%	6,1%	1,2%	20,8%	10,3%	,0%	10,0%	3,8%	12,0%	5,6%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,0%	4,5%	,0%	4,2%	5,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,0%	2,0%
Developed an eating disorder.	,0%	7,6%	,0%	8,3%	2,6%	,0%	5,0%	1,3%	8,0%	3,0%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,0%	,0%	,0%	,3%
Other problems.	4,2%	3,0%	4,9%	,0%	7,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	12,0%	3,3%
I experienced no negative effects.	4,2%	15,2%	8,6%	4,2%	17,9%	8,3%	,0%	7,6%	8,0%	9,4%
Total	24	66	81	24	39	36	20	79	25	394

Table 70 – Harassment impacts -Poland

Harassment Impacts	Most severe incident									
	Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me.	Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by	I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments d	Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about	Someone got unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me too	Someone told me lewd jokes and spoke to me in a way that mad	Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.	Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that	I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	Total
Felt down or depressed.	13,8%	39,1%	6,3%	15,5%	6,9%	15,2%	15,4%	9,4%	43,6%	15,3%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	16,0%	6,6%	26,0%	27,1%	15,4%	45,5%	23,1%	6,4%	23,6%	19,2%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	41,5%	55,0%	23,0%	31,4%	23,8%	36,4%	41,5%	38,9%	61,8%	35,7%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	2,1%	6,0%	1,6%	,5%	1,5%	,0%	1,5%	1,0%	10,9%	2,2%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	3,2%	,7%	,7%	2,4%	,0%	3,0%	1,5%	,0%	1,8%	1,1%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	10,6%	29,8%	20,7%	41,5%	9,2%	27,3%	27,7%	5,4%	41,8%	22,6%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	52,1%	51,0%	31,9%	19,8%	17,7%	12,1%	28,5%	64,5%	40,0%	36,8%
Avoided certain places or situations.	70,2%	41,1%	49,3%	39,1%	42,3%	42,4%	48,5%	68,0%	49,1%	50,2%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	28,7%	47,0%	26,6%	31,9%	30,0%	36,4%	42,3%	15,8%	58,2%	31,8%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	11,7%	22,5%	12,8%	26,6%	12,3%	27,3%	36,2%	5,9%	47,3%	19,1%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	4,3%	2,6%	1,0%	2,9%	3,1%	9,1%	,8%	1,5%	10,9%	2,6%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	8,5%	20,5%	4,9%	9,2%	3,1%	9,1%	6,2%	3,4%	36,4%	8,8%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	1,1%	15,2%	2,6%	3,9%	1,5%	3,0%	4,6%	2,0%	25,5%	5,1%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	1,1%	5,3%	,3%	1,0%	,0%	,0%	,8%	,0%	16,4%	1,7%
Developed an eating disorder.	2,1%	5,3%	2,3%	1,4%	,8%	3,0%	1,5%	1,0%	16,4%	2,7%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	1,1%	5,3%	,7%	2,4%	,8%	,0%	1,5%	1,0%	12,7%	2,1%
Other problems.	3,2%	13,9%	1,3%	4,3%	2,3%	6,1%	3,8%	2,5%	7,3%	4,3%
I experienced no negative effects.	3,2%	7,3%	14,1%	11,6%	29,2%	6,1%	10,8%	9,4%	5,5%	12,0%
Total	94	151	304	207	130	33	130	203	55	1307

Table 71 – Harassment impacts -Spain

Harassment Impacts	Most severe incident								
	Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me.	Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by	I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments d	Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about	Someone told me lewd jokes and spoke to me in a way that mad	Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.	Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that	I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	Total
Felt down or depressed.	33,3%	54,5%	20,0%	25,0%	,0%	25,0%	,0%	60,0%	31,9%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	50,0%	36,4%	60,0%	75,0%	,0%	50,0%	16,7%	20,0%	42,6%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	33,3%	45,5%	40,0%	12,5%	50,0%	,0%	16,7%	80,0%	34,0%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,0%	9,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,1%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	50,0%	36,4%	20,0%	37,5%	50,0%	25,0%	,0%	20,0%	29,8%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	66,7%	36,4%	20,0%	37,5%	,0%	25,0%	66,7%	40,0%	40,4%
Avoided certain places or situations.	83,3%	9,1%	,0%	50,0%	,0%	25,0%	50,0%	40,0%	34,0%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	16,7%	54,5%	20,0%	50,0%	50,0%	50,0%	,0%	20,0%	34,0%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	16,7%	36,4%	,0%	37,5%	100,0%	50,0%	,0%	40,0%	29,8%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,0%	,0%	,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	20,0%	4,3%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	16,7%	36,4%	,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	40,0%	17,0%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,0%	27,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,7%	20,0%	10,6%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,0%	18,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,3%
Developed an eating disorder.	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	20,0%	2,1%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	16,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	40,0%	6,4%
I experienced no negative effects.	,0%	18,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	33,3%	,0%	8,5%
Total	6	11	5	8	2	4	6	5	47

Table 72 – Harassment impacts -UK

Harassment Impacts	Most severe incident								
	Someone exposed themselves to me to harass or frighten me.	Someone harassed me via telephone, SMS, e-mail or letter by	I was harassed by being whistled at, having dirty comments d	Someone made me feel uncomfortable by making comments about	Someone got unnecessarily close to me, e.g. bent over me too	Someone groped me or tried to kiss me against my will.	Someone walked after me, followed me or pressured me so that	I have experienced other situations involving sexual harassment	Total
Felt down or depressed.	25,0%	68,4%	27,3%	58,3%	26,3%	29,6%	15,8%	71,4%	38,2%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	,0%	26,3%	72,7%	45,8%	36,8%	27,8%	26,3%	42,9%	34,4%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	50,0%	78,9%	36,4%	54,2%	47,4%	53,7%	47,4%	100,0%	56,1%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,0%	15,8%	,0%	8,3%	5,3%	7,4%	,0%	14,3%	7,0%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,0%	10,5%	,0%	4,2%	10,5%	1,9%	5,3%	28,6%	5,7%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,0%	42,1%	27,3%	54,2%	5,3%	25,9%	10,5%	57,1%	28,7%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	50,0%	57,9%	54,5%	33,3%	36,8%	20,4%	52,6%	71,4%	38,2%
Avoided certain places or situations.	50,0%	63,2%	54,5%	37,5%	57,9%	50,0%	84,2%	71,4%	56,1%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	25,0%	63,2%	27,3%	50,0%	47,4%	42,6%	31,6%	71,4%	45,2%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	50,0%	42,1%	9,1%	29,2%	10,5%	27,8%	10,5%	57,1%	26,1%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,0%	15,8%	,0%	4,2%	5,3%	3,7%	5,3%	28,6%	6,4%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,0%	26,3%	27,3%	8,3%	5,3%	13,0%	15,8%	42,9%	15,3%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,0%	10,5%	,0%	8,3%	5,3%	3,7%	,0%	57,1%	7,0%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,0%	5,3%	9,1%	4,2%	5,3%	3,7%	,0%	42,9%	5,7%
Developed an eating disorder.	,0%	5,3%	9,1%	4,2%	,0%	1,9%	,0%	,0%	2,5%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	,0%	5,3%	,0%	8,3%	,0%	3,7%	,0%	14,3%	3,8%
Other problems.	,0%	5,3%	9,1%	,0%	5,3%	3,7%	,0%	14,3%	3,8%
I experienced no negative effects.	,0%	,0%	9,1%	4,2%	21,1%	18,5%	5,3%	,0%	10,8%
Total	4	19	11	24	19	54	19	7	157

Table 73 – Harassment impacts – factor analysis

Germany	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,758	,090	-,021	,035
Abused alcohol/drugs.	,678	-,012	-,094	,134
Developed an eating disorder.	,677	,112	-,010	,000
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,527	,354	,257	,051
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,521	,281	,267	,038
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,494	,215	,181	,006
Felt down or depressed.	,156	,678	,178	,010
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,248	,658	,043	,024
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	,244	,623	,019	-,109
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	-,028	,540	-,232	,401
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	-,029	,470	,432	,015
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	,094	,144	,731	,020
Avoided certain places or situations.	,050	-,042	,727	,094
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	-,050	,145	,093	,649
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,017	-,103	,085	,616
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,203	-,011	-,030	,528

Poland	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,703	,037	,022	,132
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,654	,122	,040	,048
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,633	,304	,059	-,005
Abused alcohol/drugs.	,587	,009	-,009	-,006
Developed an eating disorder.	,569	,111	,046	,071
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,418	,342	,284	-,043
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	,163	,682	-,046	-,036
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,235	,680	,003	-,057
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	-,042	,584	-,050	,268
Felt down or depressed.	,397	,448	,239	-,064

Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	,099	,007	,745	-,047
Avoided certain places or situations.	-,027	-,082	,711	,059
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	,112	,458	,491	,016
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	-,136	,231	-,009	,671
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,075	-,027	,057	,636
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,249	-,108	-,049	,605

Italy		Factor		
	1	2	3	4
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	,733	,120	-,030	,073
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,703	,250	,042	,089
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,612	-,036	,015	-,115
Felt down or depressed.	,563	,247	,025	,000
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	,548	-,137	-,210	,227
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	,475	,123	-,019	-,020
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,000	,771	,017	,186
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,312	,596	,179	-,092
Developed an eating disorder.	,113	,549	-,060	-,024
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,247	,400	,173	-,196
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	-,067	,060	,784	-,064
Avoided certain places or situations.	,080	-,107	,714	,114
Abused alcohol/drugs.	-,063	,142	,244	-,067
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	,027	-,288	,143	,711
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	-,183	,169	-,122	,637
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,212	,033	-,037	,460

UK	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Developed an eating disorder.	,816	,012	,036	-,180
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,777	,145	,129	-,041
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,691	-,043	,055	,366

	,626	,158	-,084	,185
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,626	,158	-,084	,185
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,572	,407	,021	,138
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	,120	,777	,162	-,089
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	,104	,719	-,128	,337
Felt down or depressed.	,191	,584	,262	,416
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	,023	-,133	,704	,111
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,012	-,012	,610	,094
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	,275	,307	,445	-,079
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	-,181	,330	,443	,395
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	-,022	,175	,421	-,109
Avoided certain places or situations.	,105	,318	,335	-,094
Abused alcohol/drugs.	,061	,014	-,027	,784
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,345	,401	,051	,500

Table 74 – general depression*country

Harassment			Country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
General depression symptoms (number of experienced symptoms)	0	N	1997	345	1142	37	125	3646
		%	84,7%	87,1%	87,0%	78,7%	79,6%	85,4%
	1	N	217	37	124	6	22	406
		%	9,2%	9,3%	9,4%	12,8%	14,0%	9,5%
	2	N	83	9	26	3	4	125
		%	3,5%	2,3%	2,0%	6,4%	2,5%	2,9%
	3	N	45	5	14	1	4	69
		%	1,9%	1,3%	1,1%	2,1%	2,5%	1,6%
	4	N	15	0	7	0	2	24
		%	,6%	,0%	,5%	,0%	1,3%	,6%
Total		N	2357	396	1313	47	157	4270
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 75 – Self-blaming * country

Harassment			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Self-blaming (number of experienced symptoms)	0	N	1068	232	635	18	53	2006
		%	45,3%	58,6%	48,4%	38,3%	33,8%	47,0%
	1	N	649	106	369	13	46	1183
		%	27,5%	26,8%	28,1%	27,7%	29,3%	27,7%
	2	N	360	35	177	5	20	597
		%	15,3%	8,8%	13,5%	10,6%	12,7%	14,0%
	3	N	191	13	92	8	21	325
		%	8,1%	3,3%	7,0%	17,0%	13,4%	7,6%
	4	N	89	10	40	3	17	159
		%	3,8%	2,5%	3,0%	6,4%	10,8%	3,7%
Total		N	2357	396	1313	47	157	4270
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 76 – Feeling of fear * country

harassment			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Feeling of fear (number of experienced symptoms)	0	N	944	100	489	22	51	1606
		%	40,1%	25,3%	37,2%	46,8%	32,5%	37,6%
	1	N	836	153	511	15	64	1579
		%	35,5%	38,6%	38,9%	31,9%	40,8%	37,0%
	2	N	577	143	313	10	42	1085
		%	24,5%	36,1%	23,8%	21,3%	26,8%	25,4%
Total		N	2357	396	1313	47	157	4270
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 77 – Proactive reaction * country			country						
Harassment			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total	
Proactive reaction (number of experienced symptoms)	0	N	1576	260	1042	26	98	3002	
		%	66,9%	65,7%	79,4%	55,3%	62,4%	70,3%	
	1	N	699	116	246	20	45	1126	
		%	29,7%	29,3%	18,7%	42,6%	28,7%	26,4%	
	2	N	74	19	21	1	14	129	
		%	3,1%	4,8%	1,6%	2,1%	8,9%	3,0%	
	3	N	8	1	4	0	0	13	
		%	,3%	,3%	,3%	,0%	,0%	,3%	
Total		N	2357	396	1313	47	157	4270	
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	

Table 78 – Stalking impacts - Germany

Most severe incident											
Stalking - Impacts	Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, "gifts⁴	Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the uni	Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acqua	Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unautho	Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to de	Threatened self-harm or suicide.	Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	Total
Felt down or depressed.	29,7%	42,9%	34,6%	28,2%	46,9%	47,6%	49,3%	68,2%	66,7%	50,0%	42,3%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	14,5%	14,3%	15,7%	9,9%	14,3%	19,0%	25,3%	4,5%	24,0%	30,5%	18,4%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	62,9%	57,1%	63,4%	56,3%	63,3%	64,3%	68,0%	71,2%	70,7%	62,5%	63,9%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	7,4%	21,4%	14,7%	15,5%	4,1%	11,9%	17,3%	18,2%	16,0%	11,5%	12,2%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,7%	,0%	,5%	4,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,3%	3,0%	1,2%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	18,7%	42,9%	18,8%	14,1%	12,2%	19,0%	38,7%	15,2%	52,0%	26,0%	23,4%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	41,0%	57,1%	59,7%	54,9%	59,2%	50,0%	58,7%	22,7%	58,7%	55,5%	50,8%
Avoided certain places or situations.	40,6%	50,0%	63,4%	52,1%	34,7%	45,2%	61,3%	27,3%	52,0%	55,5%	49,7%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	36,7%	42,9%	43,5%	33,8%	46,9%	52,4%	62,7%	39,4%	64,0%	44,5%	44,3%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	13,1%	42,9%	14,7%	16,9%	6,1%	16,7%	18,7%	37,9%	32,0%	20,5%	18,5%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	4,2%	7,1%	2,6%	4,2%	2,0%	2,4%	1,3%	,0%	5,3%	4,5%	3,5%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	15,5%	21,4%	15,2%	14,1%	20,4%	11,9%	22,7%	19,7%	28,0%	16,5%	17,4%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	10,6%	21,4%	20,4%	11,3%	14,3%	23,8%	24,0%	21,2%	32,0%	21,0%	18,3%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	2,5%	,0%	4,7%	5,6%	6,1%	2,4%	8,0%	12,1%	12,0%	8,0%	5,9%
Developed an eating disorder.	5,3%	14,3%	5,2%	8,5%	4,1%	7,1%	6,7%	7,6%	24,0%	10,0%	8,1%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	3,2%	,0%	3,1%	2,8%	8,2%	2,4%	4,0%	6,1%	13,3%	6,5%	4,9%
Other problems.	5,3%	,0%	5,2%	7,0%	14,3%	11,9%	6,7%	10,6%	12,0%	8,0%	7,4%
I experienced no negative effects.	7,8%	,0%	5,8%	7,0%	10,2%	4,8%	1,3%	6,1%	,0%	4,5%	5,5%
Total	283	14	191	71	49	42	75	66	75	200	1066

Table 79 – Stalking impacts - Italy

Stalking - Impacts	Most severe incident										
	Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, ^gifts^	Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the uni	Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acqua	Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unautho	Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to de	Threatened self-harm or suicide.	Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	Total
Felt down or depressed.	36,9%	,0%	42,9%	30,8%	50,0%	,0%	66,7%	53,8%	83,3%	46,2%	44,0%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	21,5%	50,0%	23,8%	15,4%	16,7%	,0%	26,7%	23,1%	50,0%	30,8%	24,4%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	26,2%	,0%	28,6%	30,8%	33,3%	,0%	40,0%	7,7%	66,7%	46,2%	31,0%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	6,2%	50,0%	4,8%	7,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	7,7%	16,7%	15,4%	7,7%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,7%	,0%	,0%	7,7%	,0%	11,5%	3,0%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	13,8%	,0%	9,5%	23,1%	16,7%	,0%	40,0%	7,7%	50,0%	30,8%	19,6%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	36,9%	50,0%	57,1%	30,8%	50,0%	100,0%	26,7%	15,4%	50,0%	57,7%	41,1%
Avoided certain places or situations.	43,1%	,0%	42,9%	46,2%	16,7%	100,0%	40,0%	30,8%	50,0%	65,4%	44,6%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	30,8%	,0%	33,3%	53,8%	66,7%	100,0%	60,0%	38,5%	66,7%	57,7%	42,9%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	10,8%	,0%	4,8%	7,7%	50,0%	,0%	20,0%	,0%	33,3%	7,7%	11,3%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	1,5%	,0%	9,5%	,0%	16,7%	,0%	13,3%	7,7%	16,7%	11,5%	6,5%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	6,2%	,0%	14,3%	23,1%	33,3%	,0%	13,3%	7,7%	,0%	,0%	8,9%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	9,2%	,0%	,0%	15,4%	16,7%	,0%	6,7%	,0%	16,7%	11,5%	8,3%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	1,5%	,0%	,0%	7,7%	16,7%	,0%	20,0%	,0%	33,3%	,0%	4,8%
Developed an eating disorder.	13,8%	,0%	4,8%	,0%	16,7%	,0%	6,7%	,0%	33,3%	,0%	8,3%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	3,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,8%
Other problems.	1,5%	,0%	9,5%	7,7%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	7,7%	,0%	7,7%	4,8%
I experienced no negative effects.	4,6%	,0%	4,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	6,7%	15,4%	,0%	,0%	4,2%
Total	65	2	21	13	6	1	15	13	6	26	168

Table 80 – Stalking impacts - Poland

Stalking - Impacts	Most severe incident										
	Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, "gifts"^	Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the uni	Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acqua	Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unautho	Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to de	Threatened self-harm or suicide.	Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	Total
Felt down or depressed.	30,6%	14,3%	34,0%	31,3%	38,1%	55,6%	61,7%	61,8%	58,3%	40,5%	40,2%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	7,0%	,0%	12,8%	,0%	4,8%	22,2%	10,6%	,0%	25,0%	10,1%	7,7%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	50,0%	28,6%	53,2%	40,6%	71,4%	55,6%	68,1%	70,9%	75,0%	64,6%	57,4%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	2,2%	,0%	8,5%	,0%	4,8%	,0%	10,6%	5,5%	,0%	6,3%	4,4%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,0%	14,3%	2,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,3%	,0%	,6%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	21,5%	,0%	17,0%	9,4%	19,0%	44,4%	48,9%	12,7%	66,7%	38,0%	25,7%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	37,6%	28,6%	44,7%	37,5%	38,1%	44,4%	31,9%	21,8%	58,3%	35,4%	36,2%
Avoided certain places or situations.	41,9%	28,6%	53,2%	68,8%	38,1%	22,2%	27,7%	25,5%	75,0%	57,0%	44,0%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	38,2%	28,6%	51,1%	40,6%	76,2%	44,4%	57,4%	36,4%	83,3%	54,4%	46,5%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	19,4%	14,3%	19,1%	9,4%	33,3%	33,3%	36,2%	36,4%	50,0%	30,4%	25,5%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	2,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,1%	3,6%	16,7%	,0%	1,8%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	13,4%	14,3%	10,6%	12,5%	9,5%	33,3%	23,4%	20,0%	33,3%	16,5%	16,0%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	9,1%	,0%	10,6%	6,3%	14,3%	,0%	31,9%	10,9%	16,7%	13,9%	12,3%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	1,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	17,0%	5,5%	16,7%	6,3%	4,0%
Developed an eating disorder.	3,2%	,0%	4,3%	,0%	19,0%	11,1%	12,8%	1,8%	8,3%	12,7%	6,3%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	2,7%	,0%	4,3%	9,4%	4,8%	,0%	10,6%	5,5%	8,3%	,0%	4,0%
Other problems.	9,1%	,0%	10,6%	6,3%	9,5%	22,2%	12,8%	20,0%	,0%	7,6%	10,3%
I experienced no negative effects.	5,9%	14,3%	8,5%	6,3%	,0%	11,1%	4,3%	5,5%	,0%	3,8%	5,5%
Total	186	7	47	32	21	9	47	55	12	79	495

Table 81 – Stalking impacts - Spain

Stalking - Impacts	Most severe incident										
	Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, "gifts"	Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the uni	Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acqua	Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unautho	Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to de	Threatened self-harm or suicide.	Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	Total
Felt down or depressed.	60,0%	,0%	66,7%	100,0%	50,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	25,0%	63,0%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	50,0%	,0%	33,3%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	50,0%	,0%	,0%	25,0%	33,3%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	60,0%	,0%	33,3%	100,0%	50,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	,0%	25,0%	55,6%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	50,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	3,7%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	10,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	3,7%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	20,0%	,0%	66,7%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	100,0%	50,0%	100,0%	,0%	33,3%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	20,0%	,0%	66,7%	100,0%	50,0%	100,0%	100,0%	50,0%	,0%	,0%	37,0%
Avoided certain places or situations.	50,0%	,0%	100,0%	100,0%	,0%	100,0%	50,0%	50,0%	,0%	25,0%	48,1%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	30,0%	,0%	66,7%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	100,0%	,0%	25,0%	40,7%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	20,0%	,0%	66,7%	,0%	50,0%	100,0%	50,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	33,3%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	10,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	3,7%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	20,0%	,0%	33,3%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	29,6%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	10,0%	,0%	66,7%	,0%	50,0%	,0%	100,0%	50,0%	,0%	,0%	25,9%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	20,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	22,2%
Developed an eating disorder.	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	50,0%	,0%	,0%	25,0%	11,1%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	10,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	11,1%
Other problems.	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	50,0%	,0%	,0%	3,7%
I experienced no negative effects.	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	25,0%	3,7%
Total	10	1	3	1	2	1	2	2	1	4	27

Table 82 – Stalking impacts - UK

Stalking - Impacts	Most severe incident										
	Unwanted telephone calls, letters, e-mails, SMS or messages	Sent me things I didn't want (e.g. mail order items, gifts)	Visited my home uninvited/lurked outside my home, at the uni	Spied up on me (e.g. via fellow students, neighbours, acqua	Broke in or attempted to break in to my home, gained unautho	Harassed my family, friends, fellow students, neighbours	Threatened to harm me, to break me psychologically, or to de	Threatened self-harm or suicide.	Physically attacked me and committed bodily harm	Other incidents involving harassment, threats or terrorising	Total
Felt down or depressed.	33,3%	100,0%	62,5%	,0%	,0%	50,0%	66,7%	100,0%	73,3%	66,7%	58,2%
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	23,8%	,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	50,0%	16,7%	12,5%	33,3%	50,0%	26,6%
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	66,7%	100,0%	87,5%	100,0%	100,0%	50,0%	50,0%	75,0%	86,7%	58,3%	72,2%
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	14,3%	100,0%	37,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,7%	25,0%	40,0%	16,7%	22,8%
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	12,5%	6,7%	16,7%	5,1%
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	23,8%	100,0%	25,0%	66,7%	,0%	25,0%	33,3%	25,0%	66,7%	16,7%	34,2%
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	52,4%	100,0%	50,0%	,0%	100,0%	25,0%	33,3%	25,0%	53,3%	75,0%	49,4%
Avoided certain places or situations.	71,4%	,0%	62,5%	66,7%	100,0%	50,0%	33,3%	62,5%	53,3%	58,3%	59,5%
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	47,6%	100,0%	62,5%	33,3%	,0%	25,0%	83,3%	50,0%	80,0%	41,7%	55,7%
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	33,3%	100,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	33,3%	75,0%	66,7%	41,7%	40,5%
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	4,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	6,7%	16,7%	5,1%
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	28,6%	,0%	50,0%	,0%	,0%	25,0%	33,3%	25,0%	60,0%	25,0%	34,2%
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	19,0%	100,0%	37,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	33,3%	37,5%	40,0%	16,7%	26,6%
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	14,3%	,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	33,3%	25,0%	13,3%	25,0%	16,5%
Developed an eating disorder.	14,3%	,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,7%	,0%	20,0%	8,3%	11,4%
Abused alcohol/drugs.	4,8%	,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,7%	12,5%	6,7%	8,3%	7,6%
Other problems.	4,8%	,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	12,5%	6,7%	,0%	5,1%
I experienced no negative effects.	,0%	,0%	12,5%	,0%	,0%	25,0%	,0%	,0%	6,7%	,0%	3,8%
Total	21	1	8	3	1	4	6	8	15	12	79

Table 83 – Stalking impacts – factor analysis

Germany	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,755	,127	-,016	,138
Developed an eating disorder.	,720	,055	,050	,050
Abused alcohol/drugs.	,685	-,004	-,041	,131
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,569	,385	,220	-,091
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,551	,260	,240	-,025
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,500	,280	,267	-,220
Felt down or depressed.	,198	,707	,011	-,004
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	,274	,610	-,062	,019
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,400	,583	,052	,082
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	-,076	,556	,337	-,052
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	,009	,538	,111	,228
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	,102	,106	,755	,094
Avoided certain places or situations.	,109	,048	,748	,116
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,255	-,054	-,042	,674
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,007	,003	,181	,609
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	-,096	,308	,042	,584
Italy	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Felt down or depressed.	,739	,006	-,040	-,066
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,657	,098	-,280	,193
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	,632	,274	-,003	-,035
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	,581	,048	,086	,113
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	,499	,109	,369	-,017
Abused alcohol/drugs.	-,007	,820	,000	-,182
Developed an eating disorder.	,065	,667	-,163	,243
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,271	,579	,044	-,074
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,432	,471	-,072	,319
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,090	-,066	,710	-,008
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	,021	-,129	,567	,053

After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	-,096	,043	,534	-,089
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,356	,019	-,362	-,332
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	-,016	-,109	-,152	,755
Avoided certain places or situations.	,087	,022	,212	,618
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,081	,259	-,171	,346
Poland	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,758	,163	,156	-,036
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,740	-,047	-,077	,009
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,596	,028	,035	-,003
Developed an eating disorder.	,431	,179	-,071	,233
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,379	,330	,189	,124
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	,101	,696	-,043	,039
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	,054	,625	,163	,014
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	-,030	,616	,141	,041
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,469	,500	-,004	-,018
Felt down or depressed.	,389	,473	-,135	-,051
Abused alcohol/drugs.	,171	,219	-,211	-,120
Avoided certain places or situations.	,005	,088	,794	,013
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	,092	,119	,719	-,044
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	-,016	-,058	,004	,754
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,024	-,038	,129	,584
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	,071	,139	-,129	,572

Table 84 – General depression*country.

Stalking			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
General depression symptoms (number of experienced symptoms)	0	N	739	124	363	14	45	1285
		%	68,8%	73,4%	73,2%	51,9%	57,0%	69,6%
	1	N	163	33	80	7	12	295
		%	15,2%	19,5%	16,1%	25,9%	15,2%	16,0%
	2	N	83	5	34	2	5	129
		%	7,7%	3,0%	6,9%	7,4%	6,3%	7,0%
	3	N	45	7	14	3	7	76
		%	4,2%	4,1%	2,8%	11,1%	8,9%	4,1%
	4	N	25	0	2	0	5	32
		%	2,3%	,0%	,4%	,0%	6,3%	1,7%
	5	N	19	0	3	1	5	28
		%	1,8%	,0%	,6%	3,7%	6,3%	1,5%
Total		N	1074	169	496	27	79	1845
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 85 – Self-blaming * country

Stalking			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Self-blaming (number of experienced symptoms)	0	N	209	55	88	4	7	363
		%	19,5%	32,5%	17,7%	14,8%	8,9%	19,7%
	1	N	278	38	136	7	17	476
		%	25,9%	22,5%	27,4%	25,9%	21,5%	25,8%
	2	N	234	41	105	4	13	397
		%	21,8%	24,3%	21,2%	14,8%	16,5%	21,5%
	3	N	174	15	87	4	17	297
		%	16,2%	8,9%	17,5%	14,8%	21,5%	16,1%
	4	N	113	15	41	6	13	188
		%	10,5%	8,9%	8,3%	22,2%	16,5%	10,2%
	5	N	66	5	39	2	12	124
		%	6,1%	3,0%	7,9%	7,4%	15,2%	6,7%
Total		N	1074	169	496	27	79	1845
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 86 – Feeling of fear * country

Stalking			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Feeling of fear (number of experienced symptoms)	0	N	358	65	214	12	25	674
		%	33,3%	38,5%	43,1%	44,4%	31,6%	36,5%
	1	N	361	64	167	7	22	621
		%	33,6%	37,9%	33,7%	25,9%	27,8%	33,7%
	2	N	355	40	115	8	32	550
		%	33,1%	23,7%	23,2%	29,6%	40,5%	29,8%
Total		N	1074	169	496	27	79	1845
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 87 – Proactive reaction * country

Stalking			country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Proactive reaction	0	N	855	122	450	18	57	1502
		%	79,6%	72,2%	90,7%	66,7%	72,2%	81,4%
	1	N	196	38	43	7	16	300
		%	18,2%	22,5%	8,7%	25,9%	20,3%	16,3%
	2	N	19	8	2	2	5	36
		%	1,8%	4,7%	,4%	7,4%	6,3%	2,0%
	3	N	4	1	1	0	1	7
		%	,4%	,6%	,2%	,0%	1,3%	,4%
Total		N	1074	169	496	27	79	1845
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.2.5.3 Sexual violence

Table 88 – Sexual violence – factor analysis – Germany.

Germany	factor			
	1	2	3	4
Abused alcohol/drugs.	,747	-,069	-,138	,125
Developed an eating disorder.	,725	,032	,092	-,110
Thought about committing suicide and/or self-harm.	,723	,283	,156	-,001
Became more prone to illness, was frequently absent due to illness.	,640	,141	,180	,073
Developed lack of drive, found it hard to concentrate, my performance generally suffered.	,610	,309	,277	,131
Had difficulties in relationships, developing trust towards other people.	,447	,262	,266	,012
Had feelings of shame and guilt.	,189	,717	-,252	,127
Felt down or depressed.	,200	,704	,153	,083
Developed lower self-esteem, feelings of humiliation.	,150	,701	,275	,017
Felt more scared generally (e.g. of leaving the house/flat, meeting other people).	,306	,033	,743	,013
Avoided certain places or situations.	,165	,061	,742	,227
Constantly went over the situation in my mind.	-,057	,456	,480	-,038
After the incident I decided to do something against gender violence (collaborated with NGOs, became a volunteer, etc.).	,027	,012	,061	,692
I felt my reaction could help other women in the future.	,051	-,111	,131	,647
Become more aware of discrimination against women.	-,035	,112	-,002	,626
I felt angry and/or disappointed.	,080	,281	-,017	,428

Graph 1 – Sexual Violence Incidents – Impacts on Studies – Germany

Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to penetrate my body against my will (N=109)
- It affected my performance: 14,7%
- It delayed the progress of my studies: 21,1%
- I changed my study subject: 0,0%
- No, it didn't have any impact on my studies: 47,7%
- I avoided certain courses/ places: 3,7%
- Other impacts: 6,4%
- I interrupted my studies: 6,4%

Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen (N=55)
- It affected my performance: 7,3%
- It delayed the progress of my studies: 12,7%
- I changed my study subject: 1,8%
- No, it didn't have any impact on my studies: 63,6%
- I avoided certain courses/ places: 3,6%
- Other impacts: 7,3%
- I interrupted my studies: 3,6%

Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts (N=92)
- It affected my performance: 10,9%
- It delayed the progress of my studies: 6,5%
- I changed my study subject: 0,0%
- No, it didn't have any impact on my studies: 60,9%
- I avoided certain courses/ places: 9,8%
- Other impacts: 10,9%
- I interrupted my studies: 1,1%

I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want (N=82)
- It affected my performance: 18,3%
- It delayed the progress of my studies: 11,0%
- I changed my study subject: 0,0%
- No, it didn't have any impact on my studies: 53,7%
- I avoided certain courses/ places: 2,4%
- Other impacts: 12,2%
- I interrupted my studies: 2,4%

Legend:
- It affected my performance.
- It delayed the progress of my studies.
- I changed my study subject.
- No, it didn't have any impact on my studies.
- I avoided certain courses/ places.
- Other impacts.
- I interrupted my studies.

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Graph 2 – Sexual Violence Incidents – Impacts on Studies – Poland

0,0% 20,0% 40,0% 60,0% 80,0%

Someone forced me to engage in sexual intercourse and used their penis or something else to…
- 21,3%
- 4,3%
- 2,1%
- 48,9%
- 6,4%
- 14,9%
- 2,1%

Someone tried, against my will, to penetrate me with their penis or something else, but it didn't happen…
- 7,7%
- 3,8%
- 3,8%
- 65,4%
- 11,5%
- 3,8%
- 3,8%

Someone forced me to engage in intimate touching, caressing, petting and similar acts (N=45)
- 17,8%
- 0,0%
- 2,2%
- 64,4%
- 6,7%
- 8,9%
- 0,0%

I was forced to engage in other sexual acts or practices that I didn't want (N=21)
- 19,0%
- 0,0%
- 0,0%
- 57,1%
- 0,0%
- 19,0%
- 4,8%

Legend:
- It affected my performance.
- It delayed the progress of my studies.
- I changed my study subject.
- No, it didn't have any impact on my studies.
- I avoided certain courses/ places.
- Other impacts.
- I interrupted my studies.

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8.2.6 Feeling of savety

Graph 3 – Feeling of non-safety (base: respondents who go to these places)

Graph 4 – Lecture theatre/ seminar room – feeling of safety

Very safe
- 81,0%
- 73,9%
- 82,9%
- 71,8%
- 86,0%

More or less safe
- 17,4%
- 22,7%
- 16,2%
- 23,6%
- 13,2%

Not very safe
- 1,0%
- 1,7%
- 0,3%
- 1,6%
- 0,1%

Not safe at all
- 0,2%
- 0,2%
- 0,4%
- 0,3%
- 0,1%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- 0,3%
- 1,6%
- 0,2%
- 2,6%
- 0,6%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12583)
- Italy (N=3030)
- Poland (N=4720)
- Spain (N=309)
- UK (N=705)

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Graph 5 – Library – feeling of safety

Very safe
- Germany: 61,3%
- Italy: 52,2%
- Poland: 78,6%
- Spain: 67,5%
- UK: 68,0%

More or less safe
- Germany: 32,0%
- Italy: 28,2%
- Poland: 15,3%
- Spain: 27,1%
- UK: 30,0%

Not very safe
- Germany: 3,5%
- Italy: 2,3%
- Poland: 0,4%
- Spain: 3,2%
- UK: 1,0%

Not safe at all
- Germany: 0,6%
- Italy: 0,3%
- Poland: 0,3%
- Spain: 1,0%
- UK: 0,1%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- Germany: 2,6%
- Italy: 17,0%
- Poland: 5,4%
- Spain: 1,3%
- UK: 0,8%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12539)
- Italy (N=3026)
- Poland (N=4714)
- Spain (N=314)
- UK (N=706)

Graph 6 – Staff offices – feeling of safety

Very safe
- Germany: 58,2%
- Italy: 54,0%
- Poland: 55,0%
- Spain: 55,0%
- UK: 64,3%

More or less safe
- Germany: 28,2%
- Italy: 31,5%
- Poland: 28,8%
- Spain: 26,8%
- UK: 22,7%

Not very safe
- Germany: 2,5%
- Italy: 2,3%
- Poland: 1,4%
- Spain: 6,7%
- UK: 0,7%

Not safe at all
- Germany: 0,2%
- Italy: 0,1%
- Poland: 0,8%
- Spain: 1,9%
- UK: 0

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- Germany: 10,8%
- Italy: 12,0%
- Poland: 14,0%
- Spain: 9,6%
- UK: 12,2%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12484)
- Italy (N=3027)
- Poland (N=4702)
- Spain (N=313)
- UK (N=704)

Graph 7 – Student rooms – feeling of safety

■	Germany (N=12512)	
■	Italy (N=3028)	
■	Spain (N=306)	
■	UK (N=699)	

Very safe
- 49,9%
- 48,3%
- 24,2%
- 44,9%

More or less safe
- 25,6%
- 39,1%
- 11,4%
- 37,9%

Not very safe
- 2,9%
- 5,4%
- 1,6%
- 3,7%

Not safe at all
- 0,4%
- 0,5%
- 0,7%
- 0,6%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- 21,2%
- 6,7%
- 62,1%
- 12,9%

Graph 8 – Canteen/ cafeteria – feeling of safety

Very safe
- Germany: 62,2%
- Italy: 46,2%
- Poland: 62,4%
- Spain: 63,7%
- UK: 59,3%

More or less safe
- Germany: 31,1%
- Italy: 29,9%
- Poland: 29,9%
- Spain: 32,2%
- UK: 30,3%

Not very safe
- Germany: 3,6%
- Italy: 4,1%
- Poland: 1,0%
- Spain: 1,6%
- UK: 0,1%

Not safe at all
- Germany: 0,5%
- Italy: 0,5%
- Poland: 0,5%
- Spain: 1,3%
- UK: 0,1%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- Germany: 2,5%
- Italy: 19,3%
- Poland: 6,2%
- Spain: 1,3%
- UK: 10,1%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12553)
- Italy (N=3021)
- Poland (N=4711)
- Spain (N=314)
- UK (N=702)

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Graph 9 – Sports hall/ changing rooms – feeling of safety

Very safe
- Germany: 18,9%
- Italy: 7,3%
- Poland: 41,3%
- Spain: 22,3%
- UK: 33,6%

More or less safe
- Germany: 25,8%
- Italy: 14,5%
- Poland: 37,8%
- Spain: 16,8%
- UK: 28,8%

Not very safe
- Germany: 10,8%
- Italy: 8,1%
- Poland: 4,9%
- Spain: 5,8%
- UK: 2,3%

Not safe at all
- Germany: 1,9%
- Italy: 1,7%
- Poland: 1,3%
- Spain: 1,9%
- UK: 0,4%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- Germany: 42,6%
- Italy: 68,4%
- Poland: 14,7%
- Spain: 53,2%
- UK: 34,9%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12452)
- Italy (N=2983)
- Poland (N=4687)
- Spain (N=310)
- UK (N=699)

Graph 10 – Toilets – feeling of safety

Very safe
- Germany: 38,9%
- Italy: 33,5%
- Poland: 57,6%
- Spain: 50,2%
- UK: 53,3%

More or less safe
- Germany: 45,5%
- Italy: 45,1%
- Poland: 38,2%
- Spain: 36,5%
- UK: 41,6%

Not very safe
- Germany: 12,7%
- Italy: 15,2%
- Poland: 2,8%
- Spain: 11,1%
- UK: 3,3%

Not safe at all
- Germany: 2,5%
- Italy: 3,6%
- Poland: 1,0%
- Spain: 1,3%
- UK: 0,3%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- Germany: 0,4%
- Italy: 2,6%
- Poland: 0,3%
- Spain: 1,0%
- UK: 1,6%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12499)
- Italy (N=3018)
- Poland (N=4688)
- Spain (N=307)
- UK (N=704)

Graph 11 – Lift/ stairs/ corridor – feeling of safety

	0,0%	20,0%	40,0%	60,0%	80,0%	100,0%

Very safe
- 33,8%
- 38,1%
- 55,4%
- 51,3%
- 48,2%

More or less safe
- 48,1%
- 45,4%
- 39,2%
- 35,3%
- 45,2%

Not very safe
- 15,0%
- 11,7%
- 3,9%
- 9,3%
- 5,2%

Not safe at all
- 2,6%
- 2,5%
- 1,2%
- 2,9%
- 0,9%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- 0,5%
- 2,3%
- 0,3%
- 1,3%
- 0,6%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12461)
- Italy (N=3025)
- Poland (N=4708)
- Spain (N=312)
- UK (N=699)

Graph 12 – (Multi-storey-)car park – feeling of safety

Very safe
- 8,3%
- 13,3%
- 38,1%
- 24,4%
- 20,7%

More or less safe
- 23,1%
- 30,9%
- 43,6%
- 29,0%
- 44,5%

Not very safe
- 24,0%
- 25,9%
- 7,8%
- 19,2%
- 13,6%

Not safe at all
- 11,2%
- 12,1%
- 2,5%
- 9,4%
- 3,3%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- 33,4%
- 17,7%
- 8,1%
- 17,9%
- 18,0%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12500)
- Italy (N=3027)
- Poland (N=4693)
- Spain (N=307)
- UK (N=701)

Graph 13 – Outdoor spaces on university premises – feeling of safety

Very safe
- Germany: 20,5%
- Italy: 21,3%
- Poland: 32,3%
- Spain: 43,6%
- UK: 26,5%

More or less safe
- Germany: 46,1%
- Italy: 45,5%
- Poland: 51,3%
- Spain: 41,4%
- UK: 57,2%

Not very safe
- Germany: 18,7%
- Italy: 17,5%
- Poland: 9,2%
- Spain: 9,9%
- UK: 11,7%

Not safe at all
- Germany: 5,7%
- Italy: 5,2%
- Poland: 2,8%
- Spain: 2,9%
- UK: 2,7%

Doesn't apply to me (I don't go there)
- Germany: 9,0%
- Italy: 10,5%
- Poland: 4,4%
- Spain: 2,2%
- UK: 2,0%

Legend:
- Germany (N=12507)
- Italy (N=3017)
- Poland (N=4672)
- Spain (N=314)
- UK (N=703)

Table 89 – Feeling of safety: bases (number of cases) for the graph 1 in the report. Respondents who go to the places.

Bases (N)	Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Lecture theatre/ seminar room	12541	2983	4709	301	701	21235
Library	12211	2511	4459	310	700	20191
Staff offices	11134	2663	4044	283	618	18742
Student rooms	9858	2825		116	609	13408
Canteen/ cafeteria	12240	2437	4417	310	631	20035
Sports hall/ changing rooms	7145	942	3998	145	455	12685
Toilets	12455	2940	4673	304	693	21065
Lift/ stairs/ corridor	12400	2956	4695	308	695	21054
(Multi-storey-)car park	8328	2490	4313	252	575	15958
Outdoor spaces on university premises	11377	2700	4468	307	689	19541
Feeling of safety - University	11708	2381	4096	256	641	19082

8.2.7 Support services

Table 90 – Institutions know by the students

Bases (N)	Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Dean of Students	10871	2470		246	616	14117
Students Union Officers	10858		3176	245	619	14812
Counselling Centre /University Therapist	10877			245	618	11655
Self-help group/centre	10724	2431	3601	241	614	17525
Women's Advice Centre/ Women's Emergency Hotline	10848	2414	3308	244	618	14038
Other advisory service	10580	2400	3272	242	612	13749
Therapeutic help	10785	2394	3634	240	607	17576
Doctor	10771	2379	3630	243	619	17557
Minister, Pastor	10750	2413	3599	241	619	17536
Other help	9358	2066	3295	216	559	15418

Table 91 – Dean of Students * country

			country				Total
			Germany	Italy	Spain	UK	
Dean of Students	Know about it and have already used it	N	101	13	4	11	129
		%	,9%	,5%	1,6%	1,8%	,9%
	Know about it and would use it	N	4126	145	20	109	4400
		%	38,0%	5,9%	8,1%	17,7%	31,0%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	2998	518	55	87	3658
		%	27,6%	21,0%	22,4%	14,1%	25,8%
	Don't know about it	N	3646	1794	167	409	6016
		%	33,5%	72,6%	67,9%	66,4%	42,4%
Total		N	10871	2470	246	616	14203
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 92 – Students Union Officers * country

			Country				
			Germany	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Students Union Officers	Know about it and have already used it	N	882	29	4	30	945
		%	8,1%	,9%	1,6%	4,8%	6,3%
	Know about it and would use it	N	4161	652	28	217	5058
		%	38,3%	20,5%	11,4%	35,1%	34,0%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	5621	1672	136	184	7613
		%	51,8%	52,6%	55,5%	29,7%	51,1%
	Don't know about it	N	194	823	77	188	1282
		%	1,8%	25,9%	31,4%	30,4%	8,6%
Total		N	10858	3176	245	619	14898
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 93 – Counseling Centre /University Therapist * country

			country			
			Germany	Spain	UK	Total
Counselling Centre /University Therapist	Know about it and have already used it	N	669	6	92	767
		%	6,2%	2,4%	14,9%	6,5%
	Know about it and would use it	N	6577	21	281	6879
		%	60,5%	8,6%	45,5%	58,6%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	1750	41	116	1907
		%	16,1%	16,7%	18,8%	16,2%
	Don't know about it	N	1881	177	129	2187
		%	17,3%	72,2%	20,9%	18,6%
Total		N	10877	245	618	11740
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 94 – Self-help group/centre * country

			Country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Self-help group/centre	Know about it and have already used it	N	129	19	12	4	7	171
		%	1,2%	,8%	,3%	1,7%	1,1%	1,0%
	Know about it and would use it	N	3689	51	504	11	135	4390
		%	34,4%	2,1%	14,0%	4,6%	22,0%	24,9%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	5686	467	346	63	144	6706
		%	53,0%	19,2%	9,6%	26,1%	23,5%	38,1%
	Don't know about it	N	1220	1894	2739	163	328	6344
		%	11,4%	77,9%	76,1%	67,6%	53,4%	36,0%
Total		N	10724	2431	3601	241	614	17611
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 95 – Women's Advice Centre/ Women's Emergency Hotline * country

			country				Total
			Germany	Italy	Spain	UK	Total
Women's Advice Centre/ Women's Emergency Hotline	Know about it and have already used it	N	128	28	6	4	166
		%	1,2%	1,2%	2,5%	,6%	1,2%
	Know about it and would use it	N	6843	193	35	159	7230
		%	63,1%	8,0%	14,3%	25,7%	51,2%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	2189	716	124	107	3136
		%	20,2%	29,7%	50,8%	17,3%	22,2%
	Don't know about it	N	1688	1477	79	348	3592
		%	15,6%	61,2%	32,4%	56,3%	25,4%
Total		N	10848	2414	244	618	14124
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 96 – Other advisory service * country

			Country				Total
			Germany	Italy	Spain	UK	Total
Other advisory service	Know about it and have already used it	N	253	33	8	10	304
		%	2,4%	1,4%	3,3%	1,6%	2,2%
	Know about it and would use it	N	5023	78	25	186	5312
		%	47,5%	3,3%	10,3%	30,4%	38,4%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	2121	759	75	114	3069
		%	20,0%	31,6%	31,0%	18,6%	22,2%
	Don't know about it	N	3183	1530	134	302	5149
		%	30,1%	63,8%	55,4%	49,3%	37,2%
Total		N	10580	2400	242	612	13834

Table 97 – Therapeutic help * country

			Country					Total
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Therapeutic help	Know about it and have already used it	N	1168	128	196	16	32	1540
		%	10,8%	5,3%	5,4%	6,7%	5,3%	8,7%
	Know about it and would use it	N	7118	138	2007	25	183	9471
		%	66,0%	5,8%	55,2%	10,4%	30,1%	53,6%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	1888	1014	544	94	155	3695
		%	17,5%	42,4%	15,0%	39,2%	25,5%	20,9%
	Don't know about it	N	611	1114	887	105	237	2954
		%	5,7%	46,5%	24,4%	43,8%	39,0%	16,7%
Total		N	10785	2394	3634	240	607	17660

Table 98 – Doctor * country

			Country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Doctor	Know about it and have already used it	N	1090	263	309	16	140	1818
		%	10,1%	11,1%	8,5%	6,6%	22,6%	10,3%
	Know about it and would use it	N	7151	228	2226	47	344	9996
		%	66,4%	9,6%	61,3%	19,3%	55,6%	56,7%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	2224	1286	626	103	105	4344
		%	20,6%	54,1%	17,2%	42,4%	17,0%	24,6%
	Don't know about it	N	306	602	469	77	30	1484
		%	2,8%	25,3%	12,9%	31,7%	4,8%	8,4%
Total		N	10771	2379	3630	243	619	17642
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 99 – Minister, Pastor * country

			Country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Minister, Pastor	Know about it and have already used it	N	223	209	210	3	24	669
		%	2,1%	8,7%	5,8%	1,2%	3,9%	3,8%
	Know about it and would use it	N	2432	102	1197	3	107	3841
		%	22,6%	4,2%	33,3%	1,2%	17,3%	21,8%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	7370	1470	1651	141	380	11012
		%	68,6%	60,9%	45,9%	58,5%	61,4%	62,5%
	Don't know about it	N	725	632	541	94	108	2100
		%	6,7%	26,2%	15,0%	39,0%	17,4%	11,9%
Total		N	10750	2413	3599	241	619	17622
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 100 – Other help * country

			country					
			Germany	Italy	Poland	Spain	UK	Total
Other help	Know about it and have already used it	N	345	99	48	3	16	511
		%	3,7%	4,8%	1,5%	1,4%	2,9%	3,3%
	Know about it and would use it	N	3849	63	729	17	162	4820
		%	41,1%	3,0%	22,1%	7,9%	29,0%	31,1%
	Know about it but wouldn't use it	N	1450	595	410	54	69	2578
		%	15,5%	28,8%	12,4%	25,0%	12,3%	16,6%
	Don't know about it	N	3714	1309	2108	142	312	7585
		%	39,7%	63,4%	64,0%	65,7%	55,8%	49,0%
Total		N	9358	2066	3295	216	559	15494
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 101 – Wishes for counseling – Germany

Requirements	academic year					
	1 year or less.	More than 1 year, up to 2 years.	More than 2 years, up to 3 years.	More than 3 years, up to 4 years.	More than 4 years.	total
to be listened to and taken seriously.	75,7%	78,7%	77,9%	79,1%	79,8%	78,3%
to be treated with compassion.	44,6%	47,0%	47,6%	49,2%	49,7%	47,7%
to be advised by a woman.	29,1%	27,7%	29,2%	25,4%	26,0%	27,4%
to be advised without a third party being present.	41,1%	42,9%	37,8%	38,5%	36,6%	39,2%
to be advised anonymously.	26,6%	28,6%	26,7%	28,4%	28,1%	27,7%
to get an appointment straight away.	46,8%	48,5%	50,8%	55,2%	55,9%	51,6%
to be advised for free.	54,8%	55,8%	55,4%	54,4%	53,2%	54,6%
to be advised without a lot of bureaucracy being involved.	34,9%	36,3%	37,7%	39,1%	42,6%	38,4%
to be advised and not be pressured (e.g. into making a complaint to the police).	37,8%	38,7%	35,6%	38,9%	37,4%	37,7%
to be able to contact someone 24 hours a day.	32,4%	30,4%	30,2%	29,3%	29,4%	30,4%
to be referred/accompanied to other services (e.g. lawyer, therapist, police) if I so request.	22,3%	24,2%	23,7%	25,1%	27,0%	24,6%
to have a particular person allocated to me.	47,6%	48,9%	48,0%	45,6%	46,3%	47,2%
to be advised by telephone / e-mail only if I want to.	18,9%	18,5%	17,8%	18,4%	17,9%	18,3%
other requirements[*].	12,1%	11,9%	10,9%	12,0%	10,7%	11,5%
Total	2345	1977	1848	1651	3081	10902

"Other requirements" include: to be advised by a man to be referred/accompanied to other services (e.g. lawyer, therapist, police) to be advised in the company of someone I am close to have an interpreter, other requirements.

Table 102 – Wishes for counseling – Poland.

Requirements	academic year					
	1 year or less.	More than 1 year, up to 2 years.	More than 2 years, up to 3 years.	More than 3 years, up to 4 years.	More than 4 years.	total
to be listened to and taken seriously.	81,2%	82,7%	81,3%	82,4%	81,5%	81,8%
to be treated with compassion.	8,4%	8,9%	8,6%	8,4%	11,0%	9,0%
to be advised by a woman.	23,5%	21,9%	22,0%	20,2%	15,3%	21,1%
to be advised without a third party being present.	42,8%	40,3%	41,9%	46,1%	37,8%	41,6%
to be advised anonymously.	34,4%	31,6%	33,8%	31,1%	32,0%	32,7%
to get an appointment straight away.	34,2%	39,0%	38,4%	40,7%	43,4%	38,5%
to be advised for free.	45,0%	46,3%	48,4%	49,7%	45,3%	46,6%
to be advised without a lot of bureaucracy being involved.	41,5%	40,2%	41,2%	40,5%	43,1%	41,2%
to be advised and not be pressured (e.g. into making a complaint to the police).	45,7%	43,8%	44,6%	40,5%	43,6%	44,0%
to be able to contact someone 24 hours a day.	27,6%	26,9%	26,2%	27,1%	23,9%	26,5%
to be referred/accompanied to other services (e.g. lawyer, therapist, police) if I so request.	18,9%	20,1%	17,5%	21,6%	23,2%	20,0%
to have a particular person allocated to me.	6,2%	7,2%	9,3%	8,8%	7,6%	7,6%
to be advised by telephone / e-mail only if I want to.	16,2%	16,4%	16,8%	17,4%	18,0%	16,8%
other requirements[*].	12,5%	14,4%	12,8%	13,6%	13,1%	13,3%
Total	983	958	690	499	590	3720

* Other requirements include: to be advised by a man, to have an interpreter, to be advised in the company of someone I am close to other requirements.

Table 103 – Wishing for counseling -factor analyse

Germany
Factor 1

• to be referred/accompanied to other services (e.g. lawyer, therapist, police) if I so request.
• to be advised without a lot of bureaucracy being involved.
• to be advised and not be pressured (e.g. into making a complaint to the police).
• to be treated with compassion.
• to get an appointment straight away.
• to have a particular person allocated to me.
• to be listened to and taken seriously.
• to be advised for free.
• to be able to contact someone 24 hours a day.
• to be advised by telephone / e-mail only if I want to.

Factor 2

• to be advised by a woman.
• to be advised without a third party being present.

Factor 3

• to be advised by a man.
• to have an interpreter.
• to be advised anonymously.

Factor 4

• to be advised in the company of someone I am close to.

Italy
Factor 1

• to get an appointment straight away.
• to be referred/accompanied to other services (e.g. lawyer, therapist, police) if I so request.
• to be listened to and taken seriously.
• to be advised without a lot of bureaucracy being involved.
• to be able to contact someone 24 hours a day.
• to be advised by telephone / e-mail only if I want to.

Factor 2

• to be advised anonymously.
• to be advised and not be pressured (e.g. into making a complaint to the police).
• to be advised for free.

Factor 3

• to be advised by a woman.
• to have a particular person allocated to me.

Factor 4

• to be advised in the company of someone I am close to.
• to be treated with compassion.
• (NOT) to be advised without a third party being present.

Factor 5

• to be advised by a man.
• to have an interpreter.

Poland
Factor 1

• to be referred/accompanied to other services (e.g. lawyer, therapist, police) if I so request.
• to be able to contact someone 24 hours a day.
• to get an appointment straight away.
• to have a particular person allocated to me.
• to have an interpreter.

Factor 2

• to be advised anonymously.
• to be advised by telephone / e-mail only if I want to.
• to be advised for free.

Factor 3

• to be listened to and taken seriously.
• to be advised and not be pressured (e.g. into making a complaint to the police).
• to be advised without a lot of bureaucracy being involved.
• to be advised without a third party being present.

Factor 4

• to be advised by a man.
• to be advised by a woman.

Factor 5

• to be advised in the company of someone I am close to.
• to be treated with compassion.

8.2.8 Disclosure behaviour

Table 104 – Harassement -- Who did you tell?

All (regardless threatening)	Germany		Italy		Poland		Spain		UK		Total	
Harassement – disclosure	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
a fellow student	2859	62,4%	297	45,1%	852	61,9%	48	61,5%	208	84,2%	4264	61,4%
an academic staff member	56	1,2%	1	0,2%	23	1,7%	1	1,3%	7	2,8%	88	1,3%
a non-academic university employee	100	2,2%	8	1,2%	9	0,7%	0	0,0%	13	5,3%	130	1,9%
someone outside the university	3272	71,4%	498	75,6%	904	65,7%	49	62,8%	80	32,4%	4803	69,2%
A friend	2975	65,0%	415	63,0%	742	53,9%	39	50,0%	67	27,1%	4238	61,1%
One of my family	1506	32,9%	220	33,4%	445	32,3%	27	34,6%	28	11,3%	2226	32,1%
Doctor	26	0,6%	8	1,2%	9	0,7%	1	1,3%	3	1,2%	47	0,7%
Therapist	105	2,3%	10	1,5%	11	0,8%	2	2,6%	1	0,4%	129	1,9%
Advisory service	34	0,7%	2	0,3%	4	0,3%	1	1,3%	2	0,8%	43	0,6%
Pastor/priest/church minister	9	0,2%	6	0,9%	6	0,4%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	21	0,3%
Lawyer/solicitor	27	0,6%	8	1,2%	7	0,5%	1	1,3%	0	0,0%	43	0,6%
Police	172	3,8%	24	3,6%	26	1,9%	5	6,4%	9	3,6%	236	3,4%
Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)	10	0,2%	6	0,9%	11	0,8%	2	2,6%	2	0,8%	31	0,4%
IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)	12	0,3%	3	0,5%	3	0,2%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	18	0,3%
Self-help group	4	0,1%	2	0,3%	5	0,4%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	11	0,2%
Internet forum/chat	27	0,6%	1	0,2%	4	0,3%	2	2,6%	1	0,4%	35	0,5%
Total	4580	100,0%	659	100,0%	1376	100,0%	78	100,0%	247	100,0%	6940	100,0%

Only those threatened	Germany		Italy		Poland		Spain		UK		Total	
Harassement – disclosure	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
a fellow student	1195	60,5%	152	44,8%	541	60,2%	25	65,8%	91	77,8%	2004	59,5%
an academic staff member	33	1,7%	0	0,0%	18	2,0%	1	2,6%	7	6,0%	59	1,8%
a non-academic university employee	59	3,0%	5	1,5%	7	0,8%	0	0,0%	12	10,3%	83	2,5%
someone outside the university	1551	78,5%	269	79,4%	622	69,2%	25	65,8%	50	42,7%	2517	74,7%
A friend	1383	70,0%	220	64,9%	498	55,4%	19	50,0%	42	35,9%	2162	64,2%
One of my family	812	41,1%	132	38,9%	325	36,2%	16	42,1%	18	15,4%	1303	38,7%
Doctor	24	1,2%	5	1,5%	8	0,9%	1	2,6%	3	2,6%	41	1,2%
Therapist	83	4,2%	8	2,4%	10	1,1%	1	2,6%	1	0,9%	103	3,1%
Advisory service	29	1,5%	1	0,3%	4	0,4%	1	2,6%	2	1,7%	37	1,1%
Pastor/priest/church minister	6	0,3%	2	0,6%	6	0,7%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	14	0,4%
Lawyer/solicitor	24	1,2%	6	1,8%	7	0,8%	1	2,6%	0	0,0%	38	1,1%
Police	155	7,8%	20	5,9%	26	2,9%	5	13,2%	9	7,7%	215	6,4%
Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)	7	0,4%	4	1,2%	10	1,1%	0	0,0%	1	0,9%	22	0,7%
IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)	10	0,5%	3	0,9%	3	0,3%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	16	0,5%
Self-help group	3	0,2%	2	0,6%	5	0,6%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	10	0,3%
Internet forum/chat	15	0,8%	1	0,3%	4	0,4%	1	2,6%	0	0,0%	21	0,6%
Total	1976	100,0%	339	100,0%	899	100,0%	38	100,0%	117	100,0%	3369	100,0%

Table 105 – Stalking – Who did you tell?

All (regardless threatening)	Germany		Italy		Poland		Spain		UK		Total	
Stalking - disclosure	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
a fellow student	1175	55,2%	100	36,2%	339	55,8%	19	47,5%	90	73,2%	1723	54,3%
an academic staff member	24	1,1%	3	1,1%	6	1,0%	1	2,5%	12	9,8%	46	1,4%
a non-academic University employee/Other University Employee	46	2,2%	7	2,5%	2	0,3%	1	2,5%	8	6,5%	64	2,0%
someone outside University	1720	80,8%	232	84,1%	447	73,6%	30	75,0%	57	46,3%	2486	78,3%
A friend	1566	73,6%	184	66,7%	353	58,2%	26	65,0%	48	39,0%	2177	68,6%
One of my family members (including distant relatives)	964	45,3%	136	49,3%	271	44,6%	16	40,0%	32	26,0%	1419	44,7%
Doctor	38	1,8%	3	1,1%	8	1,3%	1	2,5%	3	2,4%	53	1,7%
Therapist	84	3,9%	12	4,3%	14	2,3%	2	5,0%	1	0,8%	113	3,6%
Advisory service	40	1,9%	3	1,1%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	1	0,8%	44	1,4%
Pastor/priest/church minister	15	0,7%	4	1,4%	6	1,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	25	0,8%
Lawyer/solicitor	52	2,4%	8	2,9%	4	0,7%	1	2,5%	1	0,8%	66	2,1%
Police	183	8,6%	27	9,8%	27	4,4%	3	7,5%	7	5,7%	247	7,8%
Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)	26	1,2%	7	2,5%	6	1,0%	1	2,5%	1	0,8%	41	1,3%
IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)	13	0,6%	2	0,7%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	15	0,5%
Self-help group	3	0,1%	1	0,4%	1	0,2%	0	0,0%	1	0,8%	6	0,2%
Internet forum/chat	33	1,6%	0	0,0%	2	0,3%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	35	1,1%
Total	2129	100,0%	276	100,0%	607	100,0%	40	100,0%	123	100,0%	3175	100,0%

Only those threatened	Germany		Italy		Poland		Spain		UK		Total	
Stalking - disclosure	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
a fellow student	522	54,4%	62	39,0%	216	53,7%	9	37,5%	37	63,8%	846	52,8%
an academic staff member	18	1,9%	1	0,6%	6	1,5%	1	4,2%	8	13,8%	34	2,1%
a non-academic University employee/Other University Employee	27	2,8%	3	1,9%	2	0,5%	1	4,2%	7	12,1%	40	2,5%
someone outside University	806	84,0%	133	83,6%	309	76,9%	20	83,3%	33	56,9%	1301	81,2%
A friend	729	75,9%	98	61,6%	242	60,2%	18	75,0%	28	48,3%	1115	69,6%
One of my family members (including distant relatives)	495	51,6%	81	50,9%	193	48,0%	11	45,8%	15	25,9%	795	49,6%
Doctor	33	3,4%	3	1,9%	8	2,0%	1	4,2%	3	5,2%	48	3,0%
Therapist	67	7,0%	7	4,4%	12	3,0%	2	8,3%	1	1,7%	89	5,6%
Advisory service	38	4,0%	1	0,6%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	1	1,7%	40	2,5%
Pastor/priest/church minister	12	1,3%	3	1,9%	1	0,2%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	16	1,0%
Lawyer/solicitor	49	5,1%	6	3,8%	2	0,5%	1	4,2%	1	1,7%	59	3,7%
Police	159	16,6%	23	14,5%	25	6,2%	3	12,5%	7	12,1%	217	13,5%
Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)	16	1,7%	6	3,8%	5	1,2%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	27	1,7%
IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)	7	0,7%	1	0,6%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	8	0,5%
Self-help group	3	0,3%	1	0,6%	1	0,2%	0	0,0%	1	1,7%	6	0,4%
Internet forum/chat	20	2,1%	0	0,0%	1	0,2%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	21	1,3%
Total	960	100,0%	159	100,0%	402	100,0%	24	100,0%	58	100,0%	1603	100,0%

Table 106 – Sexual violence – Who did you tell?

Sex violence - disclosure	Germany N	Germany %	Italy N	Italy %	Poland N	Poland %	Spain N	Spain %	UK N	UK %	Total N	Total %
a fellow student	71	38,6%	8	29,6%	27	42,9%	1	25,0%	17	73,9%	124	41,2%
an academic staff member	5	2,7%	0	0,0%	3	4,8%	0	0,0%	2	8,7%	10	3,3%
a non-academic university employee	2	1,1%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	1	4,3%	3	1,0%
someone outside the university	157	85,3%	22	81,5%	46	73,0%	4	100,0%	12	52,2%	241	80,1%
A friend	133	72,3%	15	55,6%	36	57,1%	3	75,0%	11	47,8%	198	65,8%
One of my family members (including distant relatives)	45	24,5%	8	29,6%	12	19,0%	0	0,0%	2	8,7%	67	22,3%
Doctor	14	7,6%	1	3,7%	6	9,5%	0	0,0%	1	4,3%	22	7,3%
Therapist	33	17,9%	0	0,0%	3	4,8%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	36	12,0%
Advisory service	8	4,3%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	1	4,3%	9	3,0%
Pastor	1	0,5%	1	3,7%	3	4,8%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	5	1,7%
Lawyer/solicitor	6	3,3%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	6	2,0%
Police	19	10,3%	2	7,4%	2	3,2%	0	0,0%	3	13,0%	26	8,6%
Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%
IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%
Self-help group	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%
Internet forum/chat	6	3,3%	1	3,7%	1	1,6%	1	25,0%	0	0,0%	9	3,0%
Total	184	100,0%	27	100,0%	63	100,0%	4	100,0%	23	100,0%	301	100,0%

Only those threatened — Sex violence - disclosure	Germany N	Germany %	Italy N	Italy %	Poland N	Poland %	Spain N	Spain %	UK N	UK %	Total N	Total %
a fellow student	56	39,4%	8	38,1%	22	43,1%	1	50,0%	15	75,0%	102	43,2%
an academic staff member	5	3,5%	0	0,0%	3	5,9%	0	0,0%	2	10,0%	10	4,2%
a non-academic university employee	2	1,4%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	1	5,0%	3	1,3%
someone outside the university	118	83,1%	16	76,2%	37	72,5%	2	100,0%	10	50,0%	183	77,5%
A friend	94	66,2%	9	42,9%	28	54,9%	2	100,0%	10	50,0%	143	60,6%
One of my family members (including distant relatives)	40	28,2%	7	33,3%	11	21,6%	0	0,0%	2	10,0%	60	25,4%
Doctor	13	9,2%	1	4,8%	6	11,8%	0	0,0%	1	5,0%	21	8,9%
Therapist	29	20,4%	0	0,0%	3	5,9%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	32	13,6%
Advisory service	8	5,6%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	8	3,4%
Pastor	1	0,7%	1	4,8%	3	5,9%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	5	2,1%
Lawyer/solicitor	5	3,5%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	5	2,1%
Police	16	11,3%	2	9,5%	2	3,9%	0	0,0%	3	15,0%	23	9,7%
Telephone company (in the case of nuisance calls/ SMS)	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%
IT staff (in the case of harassment via the Internet)	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%
Self-help group	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%
Internet forum/chat	6	4,2%	1	4,8%	1	2,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	8	3,4%
Total	142	100,0%	21	100,0%	51	100,0%	2	100,0%	20	100,0%	236	100,0%