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AN EXPLORATION OF PREVENTION PROGRAMMES AIMED AT EDUCATING YOUNG PEOPLE ABOUT DATING AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE

by

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ABSTRACT

The main aim of this thesis was to gain insight into prevention programmes which aim to educate young people in education about healthy and unhealthy relationships. Studies have found such programmes can have a positive impact on knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour (e.g., help seeking and the development of protective skills). Chapter one introduces the thesis and provides a rationale for exploring this topic, highlighting the prevalence of dating and sexual violence amongst young people. Chapter two presents a systematic literature review of fifteen articles evaluating online prevention programmes focused on dating and sexual violence. Ten different programmes are discussed in view of their effectiveness and views about the online delivery format. Chapter three presents an empirical project which utilised focus groups to gather students' views and experiences of attending a Theatre in Education prevention programme about abuse in teenage relationships. Three superordinate themes were generated from the analysis alongside various subthemes. Students spoke about the mode of delivery being realistic and that it facilitated understanding of the plot. The scenarios were discussed in detail and many students thought they were realistic and relatable for the audience. Students reported having taken away key messages about abusive relationships and how to recognise unhealthy behaviours in a relationship. Students also learnt that adults were sources of support and reported that they would seek out help if they witnessed potentially abusive relationship behaviours. Feedback was positive, and students thought the programme taught them how to conduct themselves in relationships, as well as signs to look out for. Comments were made by a minority regarding the appropriateness of the target age for the programme and the cultural relevance of the scenarios. Chapter four presents a critique of the Dating Violence Questionnaire (DVQ;

Rodriquez et al., 2007; 2010). Findings reported good psychometric properties related to reliability and validity. It is recommended for the DVQ to be validated with a UK population to see whether it can be meaningfully applied to the UK. Chapter five provides a summary of the thesis and outlines main implications for practice, strengths and limitations of the thesis, and future directions for research.

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

Relationships and Sex Education (RSE) is a statutory component of the Personal, Social, Health, Economic (PSHE) curriculum in Key Stage 3/4 in England. This aims to build on knowledge learnt in primary school about healthy relationships in general (family, friendships, engaging with people online), and to learn new information about intimate relationships and sexual health. The guidance for effective practice when teaching about sex and relationships includes: adopting a whole school approach; using material that is engaging, participatory and interactive; involving young people in the development of programmes; having programmes that have a clear aim and are delivered by staff who are properly trained and feel comfortable to do so; using material that is inclusive across protective characteristics (e.g., culture, faith, ethnicity, gender identity, sexual orientation); using evidence-based, age appropriate content; ensuring that other relevant agencies are involved (e.g., parents who have the right to withdraw their child from all or part of Relationship and Sex Education); and that the delivery is supported by senior management. (Department for Education, 2021). Furthermore, it is advised that programmes are evaluated, and effectiveness is monitored.

In educating young people about healthy sex and relationships, a range of prevention programmes have been designed and delivered in schools. These programmes focus on reducing victimisation and perpetration by improving/addressing knowledge, attitudes, behaviour, protective skills, as well as advice around help seeking and how to support peers in risky situations (efficacy to intervene) (Fellmeth et al., 2013; Mujal et al., 2014; Piolanti & Foran, 2022a). Programmes can be delivered to the whole school (universal approach) or to groups of at-risk young people (targeted approach) (Werner-Seidler et al., 2017). They can be delivered using a range of delivery modes (e.g., face to face and online). Furthermore, the use of theatre-based components

in such programmes have been associated with positive outcomes. Two topics which form part of such programmes are dating violence and sexual violence. An overview of these topics will be provided below.

Dating Violence

'Dating Violence' includes physical, psychological, and sexual behaviour as well as, stalking behaviours (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; CDC, 2022). Additionally, cyber dating abuse is also included in the concept due to the growing use of technology to coerce and control others (Zweig et al., 2013). Research describes dating violence as taking place between adolescents who are not cohabiting or married (CDC, 2022). Most of the literature describes 'Teen Dating Violence' (TDV) or 'Adolescent Dating Violence' (ADV) which are predominantly North American terms (Wincentak et al., 2017; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008). Some UK literature refers to Adolescent Intimate Partner Violence and Abuse (IPVA) and apply the term to a broader age range up to age of 21 years (Herbert et al., 2021). Other research carried out in the UK adopt the term 'domestic abuse' (Stanley et al., 2015) as well as Dating and Relationship Violence (DRV; Young et al., (2018)). As such, these varying terms pose a difficulty when trying to aggregate the prevalence data.

Prevalence

In a meta-analysis of prevalence rates of Teen Dating Violence (TDV), Wincentak et al. (2017) found that girls reported they perpetrated physical TDV at a higher rate (25%) than boys (13%), however there were no gender differences in relation to victimisation (21% for both genders). In contrast, boy's perpetration rate of sexual TDV was slightly higher (10%) in comparison to girls (3%). Girls (14%) were more likely than boys (8%) to be victims of sexual TDV. Cultural differences were also

indicated with victimisation of physical TDV reported as higher amongst cultural minority girls and young people from poorer socioeconomic neighbourhoods. In relation to sexual TDV, older teens reported proportionally higher rates, however this is likely to be due to sexual expression being incremental with age, i.e., older teens engaging in more sexual relationships (Connolly et al., 2014). Whilst the meta-analysis included a large sample of studies, the data was self-report, therefore caution must be taken when interpreting findings. Self-report can be impacted by social desirability bias; young people may have responded in a way they deemed socially acceptable/appropriate, particularly when reporting on perpetration of TDV (Wincentak et al., 2017).

Young et al. (2018) conducted research on victimisation rates of Dating and Relationship Violence (DRV) amongst 16-19 year olds in England and Wales who attended further education provision. They found a similar reporting rate of any form of DRV across genders (55.1% for males and 53.5% for females), with the most common type being controlling behaviours. There was also a higher association between sending a sexually explicit image and being a victim of DRV, however causality could not be inferred. The study also found that DRV victimisation was higher for females in non-heterosexual relationships which is in line with earlier longitudinal studies (Barter et al., 2009; Hipwell et al., 2013). Conversely, Halpern et al. (2004) reported that rates for DRV were lower or equal between same sex and opposite sex partners. Despite the DRV definition encompassing psychological, physical, sexual, and verbal abuse between dating, casual and steady partners, it did not include specific stalking or cyber dating abuse. This supports the view that aggregating prevalence data in this area can be challenging in research due to the varying definitions used (Young et al., 2018).

More recently, Tomaszewska and Schuster (2021) conducted a systematic review of 24 studies examining the prevalence rates of TDV in European samples from 2010. Researchers utilised the broad CDC definition of TDV and included samples aged between 10-20 years. This was based on previous assertions that adolescence can be divided into an early stage (10 years) and late stage (20 years) and romantic relationships in adolescence are established between 10-13 years (Collins et al., 2009; Smetana et al., 2006). The review found that psychological TDV was found to have the greatest variability in terms of both perpetration and victimisation across genders in comparison to physical and sexual TDV (Tomaszewska & Schuster, 2021). UK females reported a higher victimisation rate of psychological violence than their male counterparts (Barter et al., 2017). There were significantly higher gender differences in relation to sexual violence victimisation than other forms of violence, with adolescent females from the UK reporting the highest victimisation rate (41%) than any other country (Stanley et al., 2018). Furthermore, considering cyber dating violence, the highest perpetration rate for both females and males was reported in Spain (Cava et al., 2020). The highest victimisation rate was found for females in the UK, and for males in Italy (Barter et al., 2017).

In relation to the prevalence of stalking abuse towards a dating partner, a recent study by Rothman et al. (2020) found a prevalence rate of 48% for being a victim of stalking and harassment by a dating partner amongst a sample of 12-18 year olds in the US. Niolon et al. (2015) in their study of 1673 middle school pupils who reported having dated before, found 6% of individuals had perpetrated stalking behaviours towards a partner.

In relation to cyber dating abuse, Stonard (2018) carried out a study focused on Technology-Assisted Adolescent Dating Violence (TAADV) with a sample of 12-18 years old in England. It was reported that close to 75% of 469 adolescents reported experiencing any form of TAADV within the previous 12 months. Rates were similar for males (between 11%-54%) and females (between 12%-57%) in relation to experiencing any form of TAADV at least once or more. The most common form (reported by over 50%) was being contacted by their partner to monitor their whereabouts. Moreover, in their systematic review, Caridade et al. (2019) identified prevalence rates for perpetration of cyber dating abuse between 8.1% in the past 12 months in one US study and as large as 93.7% over a lifetime in a Spanish study. In terms of victimisation, prevalence of cyber dating abuse ranged from 5.8% in a study where students were asked to report on experiences of "cyber aggression" in the past week to 92% in another study where students were asked to report on experiences of 'electronic victimisation' in the past year. These findings indicate rates are varying which appear attributable to differences in how cyber dating abuse is operationalised and the time periods in which prevalence is studied.

Sexual Violence

Sexual violence does not exclusively take place between young people who are dating. It can also occur outside of the dating dynamic, e.g., between peers at school, college, university (may be referred to as acquaintances) as well as taking place between strangers (DfE, 2021; ONS, 2023). According to UK education guidelines, sexual violence between peers (under 18) can include sexual assault, rape by penetration, attempted rape or causing someone to partake in non-consensual sexual activity (DfE, 2021). These behaviours can also constitute 'Harmful Sexual Behaviour'

which refers to sexually harmful/abusive behaviour that is developmentally inappropriate (Department of Education; Welsh Government, 2020). Furthermore, the above behaviours also constitute sexual violence under the Sexual Offences Act (2003; Statute Law Database, n.d.) and are punishable by law.

Prevalence

In relation to the prevalence of sexual violence between children in school and colleges, a 2021 OFSTED review outlined that nearly 90% of girls and 50% of boys reported they, or their peers were sent sexually explicit pictures without their consent, were pressured to send nude pictures, and were sent material they did not want to see by other children. Qualitative data also found that children reported sexual violence typically took place outside of school in unsupervised locations such as parks and parties. However, some incidents of unwanted sexual contact also took place on school premises, e.g., sexual touching in corridors (Review of Sexual Abuse in Schools and Colleges, 2021). A 2018 consultation between Revolt Sexual Assault and the Student Room reported 62% of students had experienced sexual violence (sexual harassment, sexual assault), with a higher proportion being female victims. The majority of all sexual violence incidents (75%) were perpetrated by another student. Furthermore, 31% of students reported they witnessed sexual assault or harassment whilst at university (Revolt Sexual Assault, 2018).

In 2019, the National Union of Students (NUS) carried out a study of 544 further education students' experiences of sexual violence, mostly aged 22 years or younger. They found 12% had been the victim of rape and 14% of students reported being the victim of unwanted (unsuccessful) attempts at sex. Previous romantic partners were the most responsible (46%) for incidents of attempted rape, with platonic partners

being the second most responsible group. Acquaintances accounted for 27% of perpetrators of unwanted sexual intercourse and strangers accounted for 21% of cases. In relation to sexual assault, one in five students reported being kissed when they did not want it and the same number reported their bodies being exposed without their consent. Acquaintances were the group most responsible for perpetration (42% for unwanted kissing and 27% for unwanted exposure). Other further education students perpetrated 61% of sexual assaults and the most common location for sexual assaults to take place were clubs (53%) followed by someone's house (41%). Overall, females were more likely to be victims, and LGBT+ as well as, students with disabilities appeared to be at increased risk (Sexual Violence in Further Education, 2019).

Impact of dating and sexual violence

Research reports an association between young people being victims of violence/abuse within their relationships and difficulties with depression, eating disorders and suicidality (Barter & Stanley, 2016). In addition, substance misuse is prevalent at varying rates across young people involved with IPVA, however this can comprise a risk factor for perpetration (i.e., reduce inhibitions, affect problem solving and communication), or can be a used as a way of coping with high levels of distress following victimisation (Haynie et al., 2013).

In a US longitudinal study, Exner-Cortens et al. (2013) reported outcomes following TDV victimisation amongst a sample of 12-18 year olds, who were then followed up aged 18-25. They found females reported heavy alcohol use, depressive symptoms, suicidal thinking and were at increased risk of being a victim of adult IPV compared to females who did not experience TDV. Similar adverse outcomes were

reported for boys, who were at an increased risk of antisociality, cannabis use, suicidal ideation and adult IPV victimisation in comparison to non-victimized boys.

More recent research highlights the risks associated with physical, psychological, and sexual adolescent dating violence (ADV). This includes higher risk of substance misuse, anxious/low mood, and poor academic attainment (Taquette & Monteiro, 2019). When considering cyber dating abuse, researchers report negative health outcomes for victims related to anxiety and depression which is hypothesised as being associated with negative thoughts such as not being able to escape and feelings of increased humiliation (Van Ouytsel et al., 2018; Zweig et al., 2014). Similarly, cyber dating abuse (e.g., sharing an intimate picture without consent) can be equally or, in some cases, more harmful than offline abuse. This is based on assertions that the image can be easy to distribute and share amongst peers (Dick et al., 2014). Furthermore, Temple et al. (2015) reported that being a victim of physical dating abuse and perpetrating cyber dating abuse was associated with cyber dating victimisation one year later.

With regards to the impact of sexual violence (i.e., outside of a dating couple dynamic) on adolescents and young people, students report negative impacts on mental health, educational attainment, and self-confidence (Revolt Sexual Assault, 2018). A review carried out by Molstad et al. (2021) found a negative association between being a victim of sexual assault (of any form) and low educational attainment in terms of lower grade point average scores, and lower rates of graduation. Potter et al. (2018) also reported poor academic performance because of poor attendance, reduced confidence and financial stress amongst those women who were sexually assaulted. Similarly, Clarke et al. (2021) carried out research with 13-17 years old within 6 weeks following

being a victim of sexual assault and up to 13-15 months later. Students described poor emotional regulation, feeling anxious, feeling depressed, poor sleep, difficulties leaving the house, and significant increase in alcohol use for some students. These symptoms had a negative impact on students' engagement with education over time.

With the negative impact of dating and sexual violence in mind, it is considered to be of utmost importance to investigate the effectiveness of programmes which aim to educate young people on these topics with a view to decreasing prevalence rates.

Aims of the Thesis

The overarching aim of the thesis was to explore the impact of programmes which aim to address the topics of dating and sexual violence and healthy relationships. This was achieved through conducting a systematic literature review looking at the impact of such programmes delivered remotely (i.e., using a range of online/internet methods), and through carrying out a project to explore the views and experiences of students of a Theatre in Education based programme on the topic of abuse in teenage relationships. It is of note that this programme, at the time of design, was delivered online due to the Covid-19 pandemic. As such, the original design for the project aimed to encompass views regarding the online delivery mode. However, during the research process, the pandemic restrictions that had been in place eased, which meant students returned to face to face teaching in the classroom and the prevention programme returned to being offered in person.

Online mode of delivery remains a focus of the systematic literature review and remains a discussion point throughout. Although teaching has returned to in-person, the option of online/virtual teaching continues to be a viable option for this programme, and in general educational settings. It is therefore considered important to understand how

and whether this delivery method is useful and effective in teaching young people about dating and sexual violence. Lastly, an aim of this thesis was to explore the reliability and validity of a measure of dating violence; such measures are integral to the understanding of the prevalence of dating violence and are therefore instrumental in providing intervention and support to young people. To address the above, the following chapters are included in the thesis:

Chapter 2 is a systematic literature review on the topic of online prevention programmes focusing on dating and sexual violence that are delivered to children and young people in education settings. The review takes a narrative approach to explore what is available in terms of online prevention programmes, the effectiveness of the programmes, and what children and young people think about the online mode of delivery.

Chapter 3 presents the empirical project which was a qualitative exploration of young peoples' experiences and view regarding attending and engaging with 'Safe and Sound' - a prevention programme delivered by a theatre in education company. The study included an overarching research question: What are the views and experiences of young people who participate in the 'Safe and Sound' programme? Sub- questions explored: the mode of delivery; what students learnt from the programme; whether the scenarios portrayed in the performance were considered to be realistic and relevant to the audience; and exploration of general feedback. The study employed focus groups guided by a semi-structured interview schedule and data were analysed using Reflexive Thematic Analysis (RTA). Three themes and relevant subthemes were generated from the data and were discussed with reference to the existing literature. Finally,

implications for practice were discussed and suggestions for future research were considered.

Chapter 4 presents a critique of the Dating Violence Questionnaire (DVQ)/ Cuestionario de Violencia entre Novios (CUVINO) (Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2007; 2010). The questionnaire was originally developed and validated in Spain; however, it has been successfully translated for use with native English speakers. The DVQ was chosen as it measures victimisation across physical, psychological, and sexual abuse domains within the adolescent population. The critique also includes adaptations to the DVQ which measure perpetration and shortened versions. Reliability and validity of the DVQ and adapted versions are discussed, and conclusions are made regarding the questionnaire's use in practice.

Chapter 5 provides a summary of the preceding chapters in the context of the broader literature. The implications for practice are discussed and suggestions for future research are noted with a focus on carrying out more robust evaluations of prevention programmes. The online mode of delivery is also discussed, in line with the teaching methods used in current educational settings.

Chapter Two

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF ONLINE PREVENTION PROGRAMMES FOCUSED ON DATING AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE FOR ADOLESCENTS AND YOUNG PEOPLE: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Abstract

There are known to be adverse health outcomes of dating and sexual violence among adolescents. Prevalence data regarding dating and sexual violence is difficult to aggregate due to varying definitions and issues around underreporting. Prevention programmes have been developed to address dating and sexual violence and can be either universal or targeted in their approach. Most programmes are delivered in-person and are associated with positive outcomes including increased knowledge acquisition, improved attitudes, and a change in behaviour. The current review aimed to explore the effectiveness of online dating and sexual violence prevention programmes which are aimed at adolescents and young people in education settings. The review included 15 studies which met inclusion criteria based on the SPIDER framework and the majority achieved a high score in the quality assessment stage. The findings of studies were presented using a narrative approach. All programmes were found to be effective in terms of positive change in knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviours, and effects were largely sustained at follow up periods, however these periods were deemed too short to ascertain the longer term impact of the programmes. The online mode of delivery was viewed as effective in being accessible, supporting paced learning and being easy to disseminate. Strengths and limitations of the studies are presented, and recommendations are made regarding the potential development of programmes and areas for future research.

Introduction

Dating violence can be defined as physical, sexual, and psychological violence that occurs between couples in a dating relationship and extends to stalking behaviours (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 2022). Definitions also encompass cyber dating abuse due to the advancements of technology which can be used as another tool to control and harass dating partners (Zweig et al., 2013). Much of the literature describes dating violence as occurring amongst adolescents which is commonly referred to as Teen Dating Violence (TDV) or Adolescent Dating Violence (ADV; Wincentak et al., 2017; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008). Dating violence can be viewed as a subcategory of Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) which describes violence and aggression between former and current spouses and common-law partners but can include dating partners (CDC, 2022). Some UK scholars have adopted the term 'Adolescent Intimate Partner Violence and Abuse (IPVA)' which is preferred over 'Teen Dating Violence', based on the belief that UK teens do not use the term "dating" in the same way as US teens (Barter, 2009). However, some researchers have applied the definition of IPVA more broadly to young adults up to the age of 21 (Herbert et al., 2021). Additionally, IPVA has also been used interchangeably with 'Domestic Abuse' by researchers in the UK based on language used in prevention programmes (Stanley et al. 2015). This may be due to the UK government expanding the definition of domestic violence in 2012 (although not legally), to include 16- and 17-year-olds following the recognition that these young people were at increased risk of partner abuse (Home Office, 2012). For the purposes of the below review, the term 'dating violence' is used as the majority of the research is based outside of the UK.

Whilst sexual violence is included in the dating violence construct, sexual victimisation and perpetration can also take place outside of the dynamics of dating e.g., amongst peer groups. UK education guidelines define sexual violence between peers (under 18) as sexual assault e.g., unwanted sexual contact, rape by penetration, attempted rape or causing someone to partake in non-consensual sexual activity e.g., forcing someone to touch themselves sexually (Department of Education, 2021). In addition, sexual violence between children can also include 'Harmful Sexual Behaviour'. This is defined as sexual behaviours which are expressed by children towards other children which are inappropriate for their developmental age and can be contact or non-contact in nature i.e., grooming, voyeurism, recording and taking pictures of sexual acts (Department of Education; Welsh Government, 2020). Sexual violence can also take place between strangers, with behaviours consistent with those described in peer on peer sexual violence above. These behaviours also come under the Sexual Offences Act (2003; Statute Law Database, n.d.) and are punishable by law. Furthermore, young people can also be witness to sexual violence amongst peers, within familial settings, and/or when out in the public and they may be faced with a decision about whether to intervene (i.e., be an active bystander) or not (i.e., be a passive bystander) (McMahon et al., 2015; Public Health England, 2020).

Prevalence rates

Two recent reviews have looked at literature on the prevalence of adolescent dating violence (Tomaszewska & Schuster, 2021; Wincentak et al., 2017) with reference to gender and cultural differences in these rates. The reviews paint a concerning picture with high levels of both perpetration and victimisation of physical, sexual, and psychological abuse by both genders and across cultures. Broadly speaking,

girls were found to be more likely than boys to be victims of sexual and psychological violence than boys, and boys were more likely than girls to be perpetrators of sexual and psychological violence (although rates in both groups of both perpetration and victimisation are still concerning). Interestingly, in the meta-analysis by Wincentak et al. (2017), it was found that girls were more likely than boys to commit physical violence, however, both genders reported similar levels of physical victimisation. Particularly high levels of victimisation of girls were found in the UK, and of boys in Italy (Tomaszewska & Schuster, 2021). The authors of both reviews note the methodological difficulties in conducting studies on prevalence rates of dating violence and the subsequent need for caution when interpreting results. Further studies have also explored concerning prevalence rates of perpetration and victimisation of stalking abuse (Rothman et al., 2020) and cyber dating abuse (Caridade et al., 2019; Stonard, 2018).

In terms of sexual violence outside of dating, two independent reviews report prevalence is higher for females than males across secondary school, college, and university settings. Children in schools and colleges reported incidents via the use of technology e.g., unwanted receipt/being pressured to send sexually explicit photos, whereas this was not the case in the university sample. These incidents appeared to take place more in-person e.g., being pressured to engage in sexual activity (Review of Sexual Abuse in Schools and Colleges, 2021; Revolt Sexual Assault, 2018). In earlier research, the prevalence of sexual violence outside of the dating dynamic was reported to be 28% in a female college sample (Mouilso et al., 2012). A study by Walsh et al. (2010) reported 16% of their college sample had experienced 'unwanted sexual experiences'. The majority of these were perpetrated by strangers (36%), followed by

acquaintances (29%) and non-romantic partners (21%), with most incidents taking place in campus residence.

It is worth noting the prevalence rates may not be truly representative due to barriers in reporting. A study by Orchowski et al. (2022), identified barriers for victims such as fear, self-blame, the power dynamics with the perpetrator and a belief that they would not get justice. A review by Stoner et al. (2017) identified additional barriers such as being unsure if the crime was serious enough and wanting to avoid the stigma of family/friends finding out. A study exploring rape myths around male victimisation found high agreement with statements including male sexual assault not being taken as seriously by police and men should be able to defend themselves against female perpetrators (Hammond et al. 2016). These beliefs may negatively impact the likelihood of reporting and may indicate male victimisation is underrepresented amongst prevalence rates.

Impact of dating and sexual violence

With regards to the impact of experiencing dating violence, research reports associations with a range of mental health difficulties including eating disorders and mood disorders (Barter & Stanley, 2016) and a link between the increased use of alcohol and drugs for both victims and perpetrators (Haynie et al., 2013). Exner-Cortens et al. (2013) reported a link between teen victimisation in relationships, and later victimisation of intimate partner violence in adulthood. Cava et al. (2020) found cyber dating violence (CDV) was associated with feelings of loneliness (more so for girls), and strong correlations between CDV and cyberbullying victimisation. This suggests the impact of CDV may increase young people's vulnerability and could therefore be a risk factor for other forms of abuse. With regards to sexual violence, studies have

shown an association between victimisation and poor educational attainment which was influenced by not attending school regularly and having difficulties concentrating (Molstad et al. 2021; Potter et al. 2018). Furthermore, Clarke et al. (2021) found students reported difficulties managing their emotions, poor sleep, and tended to spend more time indoors, six weeks following an experience of sexual assault.

Preventing dating and sexual violence

To address dating and sexual violence amongst adolescents and young people, prevention programmes have been designed, delivered, and evaluated. The results of evaluations are promising regarding the positive impact of such programmes. Piolanti and Foran (2022b) reviewed eighteen studies and found programmes (referred to as interventions) aimed at educating young people on physical and sexual dating violence successfully reduced physical and sexual violence risk at an odds ratio of 0.78. With regards to sexual violence perpetration, significance was achieved for physical violence perpetration. De La Rue et al. (2014) reviewed 23 studies which evaluated dating violence prevention programmes. Findings included that the programmes had resulted in a significant increase in knowledge and attitudes against dating violence which were sustained at follow up (period unknown) and an increased awareness of appropriate responses to dating violence at post-test. The review did not find that the programmes had a significant impact on actual victimisation and perpetration, however, they note that there were limited studies measuring behaviour change in the review.

However, Fellmeth et al. (2013), in their review looking at preventing relationship and dating violence delivered to adolescents and young adults, reported that relationship and dating violence programmes had no significant impact on relationship violence, attitudes, skills, or behaviours in young people. They attributed this to a high

level of heterogeneity, short follow-up periods and a lack of standardisation and validation of measurement tools across studies which affected how well findings could be compared. In relation to sexual violence prevention, Mujal et al. (2019) carried out a review on bystander interventions aimed primarily at college students (average age of 19.55 years). They found most studies which utilised reliable and valid outcome measures were associated with positive and significant post-intervention changes related to improved bystander confidence, willingness, and intention to intervene. The review further reported significant post-intervention changes in relation to reduced rape myth acceptance and increased knowledge and awareness of sexual violence.

Many of the prevention efforts above, focus on educating the 'bystander' i.e., an individual who is not directly involved in the sexual violence but is witness to, or made aware of sexual misconduct. In these situations, bystanders can intervene to make the situation better or not intervene at all (McMahon et al., 2015). Burn (2008) identified five barriers to intervening as a bystander which include: failure to notice, failure to identify the risk, not taking responsibility, not having the skills, feeling inhibited i.e., high anxiety, worry what other peers may think. The programmes therefore aim to improve attitudes and beliefs (e.g., rape myth acceptance which may trigger or perpetuate sexual violence), increase awareness of signs/indicators of violence, as well as teach young people how to intervene in risky situations to offer support to peers as well as, feel confident (efficacious) to be able to intervene (Mainwaring et al., 2022).

Universal vs Targeted Approaches

Prevention programmes aimed at both potential perpetrators and victims, can be 'universal' in their approach in that they are directed at the general population of young people, or they can be 'targeted' whereby the programmes are more tailored to a

specific population of young people (Werner-Seidler et al., 2017). The advantages of universal programmes are that they can be offered to everyone, can avoid stigmatization by not applying risk labels to the target audience, and can be used as a steppingstone to implement targeted interventions (Offord, 2000). Further, Shipe et al. (2022) found a decrease in costs as more students were reached when delivering a universal, child sexual abuse prevention programme. This suggests that universal programmes may be more cost effective. Conversely, in a systematic review by Gavine et al. (2016), small effects were observed for universal violence prevention programmes delivered to 11-18 year olds which may be associated with a lack of follow up in many cases and therefore it was difficult to note sustained effects. The authors of the review therefore questioned whether these programmes were, in fact, cost-effective if they did not result in sustained effects.

Regarding targeted programmes, researchers have reported the positive impact that such programmes can have, however, acknowledge they can also be time and resource intensive as they often include a screening process to identify 'at risk' samples (Caldwell et al., 2019). For example, a qualitative study by Ball et al. (2015) highlights some of the challenges faced by school staff in delivering a targeted programme to prevent dating abuse. Findings include not having the relevant training and resources to identify and refer 'at risk' students, the need to have ongoing support of the whole school system and trying to reach 'at risk' children as they are typically harder to engage and likely to be less visible in school.

Online delivery

The programmes included in the above reviews were delivered in-person, however online programme delivery is now viewed as a viable alternative to face-to-

face delivery, and due to the recent pandemic, had become a necessary alternative to in-person delivery for that period of time. The advantages of online mode of delivery are that it can have a wider reach as it is more accessible, is less time consuming, and can be more cost effective (Jouriles et al., 2018; Salazar et al., 2014;). However, Beames et al. (2021), highlight potential barriers to implementing digital programmes such as the variability in access to computer resources within schools and staff level of computer literacy to access/navigate the program. It is also suggested that face-to-face learning facilitates a sense of connectedness, which may be less feasible to achieve online (Conole et al., 2008).

The effectiveness of online prevention programmes has been reviewed in the literature and positive effects reported. A review by Champion et al. (2013) reported small but sustained effects of reduced alcohol and drugs consumption following delivery of an online substance use prevention programme for school aged young people. Effects were comparable to a review by Teesson et al. (2012) of non-computerised substance use prevention programmes. This supports the notion that online delivery can be a viable alternative. A recent review by Teesson et al. (2020) further highlighted the effectiveness of a specific online programme delivered to schools in Australia. They found a significant increase in knowledge of alcohol, cannabis, and mental health (anxiety and depression) amongst students who engaged in the combined online intervention (substance use and mental health) versus the online mental health intervention alone, and a control group (in person, health education). However, not all comparisons were significant at every follow up point, and researchers considered a longitudinal study would be beneficial to measure lasting effects (if any).

Following the COVID-19 pandemic where online methods of learning were further developed and utilised, there was a shift to online learning and researchers have since explored the possible strengths and challenges of this mode of delivery in relation to preventive education programmes. Bright et al. (2022) posit that e-learning (delivered online) can be more accessible and has the potential to reach more children, however, may only be limited to those households who have a digital device and therefore, may marginalise those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Online delivery may also comprise a barrier for children to be able to ask questions or make a disclosure based on the reduced access to a safe adult. This lack of reciprocity with a teacher was also considered a barrier, as children may be less engaged. Conversely, e-learning can also be a flexible mode of delivery and, in some cases, allows students to learn at their own pace. In addition, online delivery can include interactive material which can enhance engagement.

Current Review

From the above overview of literature on the topic of dating and sexual violence in young people, it is evident that there are concerning levels of both perpetration and victimisation of physical, sexual, and psychological abuse amongst young people. With relation to sexual violence, this can occur both inside and outside of an intimate relationship. It is further evident from reviews of the literature that intervention programmes can be somewhat effective in reducing these levels by addressing attitudes and behaviour of young people. Due to the recent increase in the development and delivery of online programmes on the topic of dating and sexual violence in young people, it is deemed beneficial to conduct a systematic literature to investigate the literature on this topic (see below for specific aims of the review).

A preliminary scoping search was carried out on 26.01.21 to determine whether any pre-existing literature reviews have been conducted in this area. Databases searched included: Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, The Campbell Library of Systematic Reviews and The Centre of Reviews and Dissemination (DARE). An additional scoping search of the existing literature was conducted using Google Scholar. A review by Fellmeth et al. (2013) was found in both the Cochrane library and in DARE, and a review by De La Rue et al. (2014) was found in the Campbell Library as well as in Google scholar. However, the focus of these reviews was in-person programmes. Another review carried out by Lundgren and Amin (2015) was found in Google Scholar focusing on prevention programmes targeting intimate partner violence and sexual violence amongst adolescents and young people aged 10-26. However, this review included parenting programmes, school and community-based programmes and did not include online programmes although 8/61 had media components. As all three of these existing reviews were more than five years old and as prevention programmes had been developed within this period, it was deemed suitable for the current review to be carried out.

Additionally, a relevant paper was accessed which provided a summary of existing reviews (Lee & Wong, 2020). Authors presented a summary of previous meta-analytic studies of dating violence prevention programmes delivered both face to face and online. Five systematic reviews focused on bystander prevention programmes of which, three included online programmes (Jouriles et al., 2018; Kettrey & Marx, 2020; Mujal et al., 2019). The remaining two did not include online programmes (Storer et al., 2016; Evans et al. 2019). The current review differs as it is also focusing on sexual violence programmes. A further two reviews focused solely on dating violence and

included a sample of up to 18 years (Lee & Wong, 2020; Piolanti et al., 2022b) whereas the current review includes older samples. Finally, in their meta-analysis, Wong et al. (2021) included a greater number of online programmes related to dating violence prevention aimed at college/university students but is a meta-analysis. As such, the current review differs as it also includes sexual violence prevention programmes, includes a sample with a larger age range, and takes a narrative approach.

An updated search was carried out on 12.04.23 of the same databases above, with one additional review being found (Reyes et al., 2021). However, this systematic review included programmes delivered across a range of settings (i.e., not just education setting) and focused on in-person prevention programmes.

Rationale for current review

Whilst there have been thorough and relatively recent reviews carried out relating to the topic of dating and sexual violence prevention programmes, they have largely focused on bystander interventions, in-person mode of delivery, and targeting specific age ranges (i.e., teenagers or young adults). Online programmes have been included in some reviews; however, outcomes are not very detailed when thinking about the implications for this mode of delivery. Despite reviews being completed five years ago, there have been studies carried out since this period which are relevant to review. As such, the aim of the current systematic literature review is to summarise the available literature around prevention programmes delivered via online methods related to dating and sexual violence. These are targeted at adolescents and young people in education settings. More specifically, the review will aim to address the following research questions. *1)What is available in terms of online prevention programmes focused on dating and sexual violence? 2) Are online prevention programmes effective*

in preventing dating and sexual violence? 3)What do young people think of online prevention programmes? Within question 3, there will be a focus on exploring the views of young people about this mode of delivery.

Method

Sources of literature

The electronic databases accessed included Web of Science, Proquest, PsychINFO via OVID and SCOPUS. Searches were carried out on 12.04.23. Based on the limited number of hits in the larger databases (e.g., Proquest and Web of Science), a specific time-period was not selected, and all results were exported.

Search strategy

A topic search was carried out in Web of Science and search terms were inputted as a string. Similarly, search terms were inputted as a string in Proquest and abstract search was selected. Search terms were combined in PsychINFO and a keyword search was carried out. Finally in SCOPUS, the search terms were inputted as a string and the search was carried out within article title, abstract and keywords. Advice was taken from expert library staff at the University of Birmingham to ensure that search terms would result in an exhaustive search of the literature. See Appendix A for syntax outputs.

Web of Science

educat* OR intervention AND program* OR “prevention program*” (Topic) and “sexual violence” OR “dating violence” OR "teen dating violence" OR "adolescent dating violence" OR "adolescent intimate partner violence and abuse" (Topic) and online OR computer* OR internet OR web* (Topic) and effectiveness OR efficacy OR evaluation (Topic) and school* OR college* OR universit* OR “education setting”

(Topic) and child* OR “young people” OR adolescen* OR student* OR teen* OR "emerging adult" OR youth (Topic)

Proquest

abstract(educat* OR intervention AND program* OR ("prevention program" OR "prevention programme" OR "prevention programmes" OR "prevention programs")) AND abstract("sexual violence" OR "dating violence" OR "teen dating violence" OR "adolescent dating violence" OR "adolescent intimate partner violence and abuse") AND abstract(online OR computer* OR internet OR web*) AND abstract(effectiveness OR efficacy OR evaluation) AND abstract(school* OR college* OR universit* OR "education setting" OR "school-based") AND abstract(child* OR "young people" OR adolescen* OR student* OR teen* OR "emerging adult" OR youth)

PsychINFO via OVID

1. educat* OR intervention AND program* OR prevention program*
2. AND sexual violence OR dating violence OR teen dating violence OR adolescent dating violence OR adolescent intimate partner violence and abuse
3. AND online OR computer* OR internet OR web*
4. AND effectiveness OR efficacy OR evaluation
5. AND school* OR college* OR universit* OR education setting
6. AND child* OR young people OR adolescen* OR student* OR teen* OR emerging adult OR youth
7. combine

SCOPUS

TITLE-ABS-KEY (educat* OR intervention AND program* OR "prevention program*" AND "sexual violence" OR "dating violence" OR "teen dating violence" OR "adolescent dating violence" OR "adolescent intimate partner violence and abuse" AND online OR computer* OR internet OR web* AND effectiveness OR efficacy OR evaluation AND school* OR college* OR universit* OR "education setting" OR "school-based" AND child* OR "young people" OR adolescen* OR student* OR teen* OR "emerging adult" OR youth)

Study Selection

Combined search hits across all databases (N=166) were exported into a reference manager software and duplicates (*n*=79) were removed which resulted in 87 papers. The title and abstract of papers were screened for relevance and subsequently removed if they were not relevant (*n*=33) which left 54 papers that were relevant and full text accessed where possible. A free search using Google Scholar was conducted as an addition to the databases to ensure, for example, that doctoral theses or papers which were not captured by the databases were captured in this review. This search resulted in a further two relevant studies, however, did not end up meeting the inclusion criteria. Fourteen articles met the inclusion criteria (Table 1) and one of the articles contained another study that was eligible for inclusion (denoted by ‘a’ and ‘b’ in the remainder of the review), which resulted in a total of fifteen articles which were quality assessed. Forty three articles were excluded with identified reasons (Appendix B). A Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) diagram is presented below to outline the process (Figure 1).

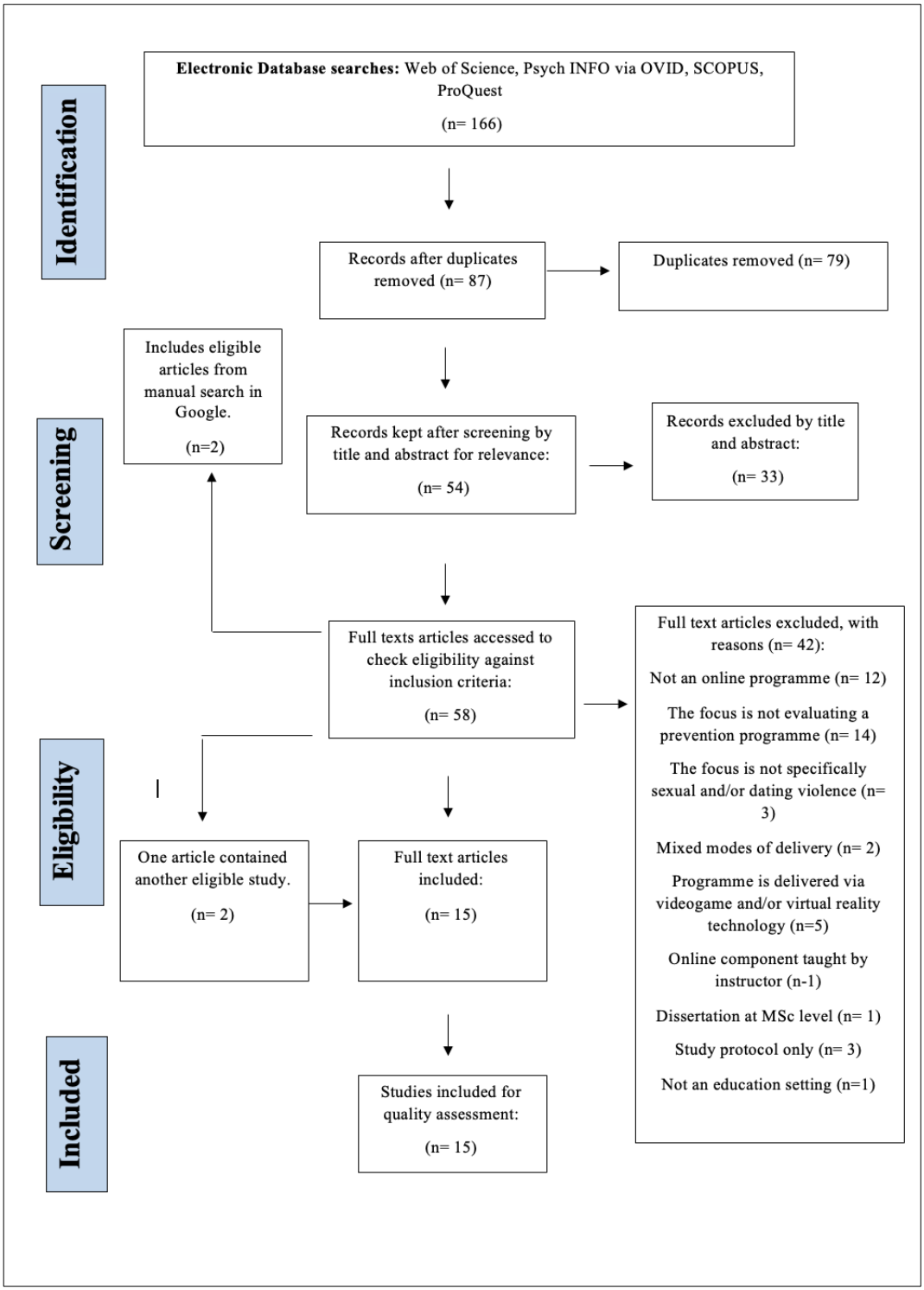

Figure 1. PRISMA Diagram

Inclusion Criteria

Table 1 presents the inclusion/exclusion criteria for the current review which followed the **S**ample, **P**henomenon of **I**nterest, **D**esign, **E**valuation and **R**esearch type framework (SPIDER; Cooke et al., 2012). The framework was chosen due to the broad/exploratory nature of the aims of the review; it was felt that search tools such as the Population, Intervention, Comparison, Outcome (PICO) framework would not be appropriate. In addition, the PICO framework would be ineffective when applied to qualitative and/or mixed methods research, which the current review wished to include (Cooke, Mills & Lavender, 2010). In relation to 'Phenomenon of Interest', video game/virtual reality and mobile phone application were not included based on the potential overemphasis on technology and interactive play and less focus on the narrative of the programme.

Table 1.

SPIDER Framework Outlining Inclusion/Exclusion

Qualitative	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
Sample	Students taken from an educational setting including secondary schools, middle school, college, or universities.	Not from an educational setting. Students from elementary school in America or primary school in UK.
Phenomenon of **I**nterest	Focus must be a prevention programme related to reducing dating and/or sexual violence. This can be in the context of either addressing perpetrators or victims directly or through addressing bystanders. The programme aims to improve knowledge, attitudes, skills, responses. The program must be delivered online, using a computer. Content can be delivered using videos.	The programme focus is not sexual and/or dating violence. The programme is not solely delivered online. The programme is delivered by a person/instructor. The programme is delivered via videogame/virtual reality technology.
Design	Randomized Control Trial, Cohort, Cross Sectional, Mixed Methods	Meta-Analysis, Systematic Reviews, commentary/opinion pieces.

Evaluation	Evaluation/feedback about the program relating to efficacy, usability, feasibility, relevance. Outcomes refer to one/more of the following: knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour change, skill acquisition. Any other qualitative feedback.	Outcomes not listed in inclusion criteria.
Research Type	Qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods studies. Dissertations included at Doctoral level.	Dissertations that are submitted below Doctoral level.

Quality assessment

All studies (N=15) underwent quality assessment and were included in the final write up irrespective of quality. This was because it was considered they all added value to the knowledge base around online prevention programmes given the lack of research focus in this area. Quality assessment was carried out using specific critical appraisal tools based on the identified research design. The researcher applied a numerical value to the rating scales within the appraisal tools and this was considered helpful to calculate an overall quality score. In a previous doctoral thesis, the author amended the CASP checklist to include 'somewhat' and added numerical values to their rating scales for a similar reason (Brierley, 2022). The addition of 'partially' was added following a pilot quality assessment where the checklist items could not always be answered with a yes/no response. The numerical scores were added up and converted to percentages. Articles that achieved a score of < 50% were categorised as low quality, articles that achieved a score of between ≥ 50 and < 70 % of the total quality score were categorised as medium quality and articles that achieved a score of ≥ 70 of the total score were categorised as high quality.

The appropriate Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) checklist was completed for Randomized Controlled Trials (RCTs; Critical Appraisal Skills Programme, 2020) of which there were eight in total A. scoring key was created (yes = 1, partially = 0.5, no = 0, can't tell = 0; Appendix C). The total quality score available was 13. Three studies were cohort designs and the appropriate CASP checklist (Critical Appraisal Skills Programme, 2018) was implemented (Appendix D). Two questions were adapted to allow for all questions to be rated using the scoring key (yes = 1, no – 0, can't tell = 0). The total quality score available for this checklist was 12. Finally, four studies were mixed methods for which a Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT; Hong et al., 2018) was employed (Appendix E). The total available quality score was 17. See Table 2 for a breakdown of quality scores and quality ratings. In sum,

the majority of articles (*n*=9) were assessed as high quality, three were assessed as medium quality and three were assessed as low quality. Due to the low number of articles which met the inclusion criteria, it was felt that all would add value to the review and, as such, all were included.

Table 2.

Quality Scores

	Quality Score	Rating < 50% = LOW ≥ 50% - < 70% = MEDIUM ≥ 70 % = HIGH
Randomised Controlled Trials		
Jouriles et al. 2016a	10/13	HIGH
Jouriles et al. 2016b	9/13	HIGH
Levesque et al. 2016	9/13	HIGH
Salazar et al. 2014	10/13	HIGH
Yount et al. 2023	12/13	HIGH
Kleinsasser et al. 2015	7.5/13	MEDIUM
Sargent et al. 2017	5.5/13	LOW
Thompson et al. 2021	6/13	LOW
Cohort Studies		
Draucker et al. 2019	9/12	HIGH
Zapp et al. 2018	9/12	HIGH
Burns et al. 2019	6/12	MEDIUM
Mixed Method		
Draper, 2017 (Cohort)	12/17	MEDIUM
Heard et al. 2023 (Cohort)	13/17	HIGH
O'Brien et al. 2021 (RCT)	14/17	HIGH
Levesque et al. 2017 (Cohort)	6/17	LOW

Data Extraction

All fifteen articles were included in the data extraction process. A separate form for data extraction was specifically created (Appendix F). The process was performed by reading through each paper and transferring the required information over to the word document. Table 3 outlines characteristics of the studies which includes authors, research design and country and participant information. The name of the prevention programme, a brief description of the programme, whether the programme was a universal or targeted approach, the length of the programme, method of analysis, the primary outcomes assessed by the study in question, whether there was a follow up period, and the quality score were also included.

Table 3.

Study Characteristics

Author (s)	Study Design and Country	Sample (Size; Age)	Race/ Ethnicity	Name of Programme	Programme information (Approach, aim, length/duration)	Control Group (if any)	Primary outcomes measured	Method of Analysis	Main Findings and Effect Size (if reported)	Follow-up (If any)	Quality Score
Jouriles et al. (2016a)	Design: RCT Country: USA	N= 213 *(n* =209 with complete data) Mean Age TakeCARE = 19.14 years Mean Age **(**Control) = 19.18 years TakeCARE**:** Female n= 84 (82.4%;) Male n= 18 (7.6%) Control:	TakeCARE**:** White n= 86 (84.3%) Asian n= 5 (4.9%) Other n= 11 (10.8%) Non-Hispanic n= 91 (89.2%) **Control:** White n= 93 (83.8%) Asian n= 6 (5.4%) Other n= 12 (10.8%) Non-Hispanic n= 101 (91%)	TakeCARE	Universal A video bystander program to prevent sexual violence. <25 minutes	Video on Study Skills 20 minutes	Responsive bystander behaviour towards friends (behaviour and feelings of efficacy)	ANCOVA	TakeCARE group reported engaging in more bystander behaviour than controls at follow up Partial η^2= 2.8 TakeCARE group reported significantly higher scores of	1 month Cohen's *d* = 0.4	10/13 = high

		Female: n= 88 (79.3%) Male: n= 23 (20.7%)							efficacy to intervene than controls. Partial η^2 = 11.2 Cohen's *d* at follow up = 0.4		
Jouriles et al. (2016b)	Design: RCT Country: USA	N = 211 Age TakeCARE group: *M*= 18.25, *SD* = .63 Mean age Control: *M*= 18.22, *SD* = .56 TakeCARE Female n=54 (52.4%) Male n =49 (47.6%) Control Female n= 52 (48.1%) Male n = 56 (51.9%)	TakeCARE group: White n= 70 (68%) Asian n= 16 (15.5%) Other n= 17 (16.5%) Hispanic n= 12 (11.7%) Non-Hispanic n= 91 (88.3%) Controls: White 74 (68.5%) Asian 17 (15.7%) Other 17 (15.7%) Hispanic 11 (10.2%) Non-Hispanic97 (89.8%)	TakeCARE	Universal A video bystander program to prevent sexual violence. <25 minutes	Video on Study Skills 20 minutes	Responsive bystander behaviour towards friends (behaviour and feelings of efficacy)	ANCOVA and T-Test between pre-video and follow up	TakeCARE group reported more bystander behaviour at follow up than controls. Partial η^2 =2.3 Cohen's *d* = 0.2 T-Tests indicated significant increase in bystander behaviour between baseline and follow up for TakeCARE group. TakeCARE group reported higher efficacy at post-video and follow up than controls. Partial η^2= 2.0 Cohen's *d* post video = 0.1	2 months	9/13 = high

									Cohen's *d* follow up = 0.2		
Kleinsasser et al. (2015)	Design: RCT Country: USA	N= 96 Intervention group: n= 45 Control group n= 51 Intervention: mean age: *M*= 19.76, *SD= 1.19* Intervention group: 80.6% female 19.4% male Control group data not reported.	Intervention: Non-Hispanic White n =62 (66.7%) Asian- n=13 (14%) Hispanic- n= 8 (8.6%) Black- n=4 (4.3%) Bi-racial/Multiracial- n= 4 (4.3%) American Indian or Alaska Native- n=2 (2.2%) Control group data not reported.	TakeCARE	Universal A video bystander program to prevent sexual violence. <25 minutes	Video on Study Skills 20 minutes	Responsive bystander behaviour towards friends (behaviour and feelings of efficacy)	ANCOVA	Students who viewed TakeCARE reported greater efficacy to intervene post-video, compared to controls partial η^2= .08 Cohen's *d* (adjusted means) = 0.4) The group difference was maintained at follow up *F* (1, 90) 4.48, *p*= .05, partial η^2= .05 Cohen's *d* (adjusted means) = 0.3 At follow up, Students in the TakeCARE group also	2 months	7.5/13= medium

									reported engaging in more bystander behaviours than control group F (1, 90) 3.85, p =.05, partial η^2= 0.4. Cohen's d (adjusted means) = 0.3)		
Sargent et al. (2017)	Design: RCT Country: USA	N= 1295 students recruited. Age: (M = 15.27, SD = 0.88) 52.5% female n= 921 (complete data)	Data for all 1295 students recruited: Hispanic n = 936 (72.3%) Black n= 233 (18.0%) "More than one race" N=18 (1.4%) Asian N=15 (1.2%) "Other" N=10 (0.8%)	TakeCARE	Universal A video bystander program to prevent sexual violence. <25 minutes	Didactic presentations, videos and worksheets delivered by counsellors. Topics included adolescent wellbeing, bullying, and suicide prevention	Count of bystander behaviour	Descriptive Analysis Generalized log linear mixed model analyses (ANCOVA equivalent).	Students who viewed TakeCARE reported engaging in more bystander behaviour. (Cohen's d = 0.1). Students were more likely to encounter a situation indicating relationship violence rather than sexual assault. They were more likely to demonstrate	3 months	7.5/13= medium

			White N= 7 (0.5%) American Indian/Alaska Native N= 4 (0.3%) Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. N= 1 (0.08%) Did not provide data: N=71 (5.5%)					helpful bystander behaviour after a risky situation had occurred as opposed to interrupting.		
Levesque et al. (2016)	Design: Cluster RCT Country: USA	Teen Choices: n= 1,389 Control n= 1,216 No age data but participants 9th, 10th, and 11th grade students Teen Choices: Female 53.3%	Teen Choices: White Non-Hispanic 82.2% Other 17.8% Control: White 76.1% Other 23.9%	Teen Choices	Targeted Using healthy relationship skills to prevent teen dating violence. 3 sessions each lasting 25-30 minutes. 5 individual tracks	Emotional and physical dating violence victimisation and perpetration	Mixed-effects logistic regression models. Moderator analyses for 12 month violence outcomes	Teen Choices participants had significantly reduced odds of perpetration and victimisation of physical and emotional dating violence. Adjusted OR= .43-.70 Cohen's *d* = -0.5 to -0.2 at 6 months Adjusted OR= .45 - .63	6 & 12 months	9/13= high

		Male 46.7% Control: Female 53.7% Male 46.3%							Cohen's *d* = -0.4 to -0.3 at 12 months		
Levesque et al. (2017)	Design: Mixed method cohort Country: USA	N = 99 Grade 9-11. 56% female	57% White, Non-Hispanic 30% Black, Non-Hispanic 8% Hispanic 5% Other or Multiracial	Teen Choices	Targeted Using healthy relationship skills to prevent teen dating violence. 1 session lasting 25-30 minutes. 3 individual tracks	Online Transtheoretical Model programme focused on physical health	Feasibility of the programme	Open ended evaluation questions	Approx. 75% of students responded with a score of 4 or higher (agree or strongly agree) for 10 out of 11 positive evaluation statements. 77% of students described elements they liked. More than 75% of students said they would recommend the programme.	N/A	6/17= low
O'Brien et al (2021)	Design: Mixed Methods RCT	N=317 n= 99 at follow up Mean age: *M*=19.21. *SD* = 1.20	15.8% African American 5.4% Latina/o 53% White 20.5% Asian 4.4% Biracial/Multiracial 0.9% Other	STOP! Dating Violence	Universal Educate students about dating violence and bystander responses.	Website condition where students browsed a website about dating violence. Control Condition – no	Knowledge, attitudes, behavioural efficacy	MANCOVA and Content Analysis	Participants in intervention condition reported increased knowledge of warning signs and of appropriate	1 month	14/17 = high

	Country: USA	81.4% self-identified as women 8% as men	Approx. 24 minutes	intervention/programme	interventions, greater intentions to intervene and increased bystander self-efficacy. Knowledge of warning signs: $\eta^2_{p.}$ = .12 (monitoring) $\eta^2_{p.}$ = .09 (demeaning) $\eta^2_{p.}$ = .15 (threatening and aggressive) $\eta^2_{p.}$ = .20 (jealous and possessive) Knowledge of bystander interventions: η^2_{p} = .27 Intentions to Intervene: η^2_{p} = .09 Bystander self-efficacy: η^2_{p} = .30

Zapp et al (2018)	Design: Cohort Country: USA	N = 167,424 across 80 institutions 11% 17 years old 79% 18 years old 8% 19 years old 2% 20+ years old 56% female 43% male 0.5% transgender or other gender.	68% White/Caucasian 11% Asian/pacific islander 9% Hispanic/Latino 8% African American 1% Native American/Alaskan 3% other race/ethnicity.	Haven-Understanding Sexual Assault	Universal Shift perceptions of social norms and increase empathy and bystander abilities. Over 60 minutes of content	Perceptions, attitudes, and responsive bystander behaviour	Repeated Measures ANOVA	98% of schools demonstrated pre-post significant increase in intervention ability and intent composite factor scores. *(M)* partial η^2 = .12 *(SD)*= .09 84% of schools had significant increases in empathy and support for victims' composite factor scores. (*M)* partial η^2 = .02 *(SD)*= .02 75% of schools had significant increases for correctly perceived social norms composite factor scores.	n/a	9/12= high

								(M) partial η^2 = .04 *(SD)*= .03 34% of schools had significant reduction in endorsement of sexual assault myths composite factor scores. (*M)* partial η^2 = .01 *(SD)*= .01		
Burns et al. (2019)	Design: Cohort Country: USA	N= 750 Age: (*M* = 21.18, *SD* = 1.77) 472 women (62.9%) and 278 men (37%).	59% Latinx 22% White 19% Black.	Haven-Understanding Sexual Assault	Universal Shift perceptions of social norms and increase empathy and bystander abilities. Over 60 minutes of content	Perceived bystander ability and intent.	Descriptive means Gain scores ANOVA to understand effects of race and gender	Increase in scores at post-test (*M*= 41.12, *SD*= 6.66) compared to pre-test (*M*= 39.95, *SD*= 6.92) which indicates after engaging with the programme, students reported greater ability and higher intent. Cohen's *d*= -0.1	N/A	6/12= medium

									At post-test, gender had a significant effect with women having higher scores. η^2 = .01. ANOVA gain scores indicated a significant interaction between gender and race η^2 = .01.		
Salazar et al. (2014)	Design: RCT Country: USA	RealConsent: n= 376 Control: n= 367 Mean age intervention: 20.42 years. Mean age control: 20.33 years. All male	RealConsent White n= 170 (45.2%) African American or Black n= 83 (22.1%) Asian or Pacific Islander n= 73 (19.4%) Hispanic or Latino n= 38 (10.1%) American Indian, Alaskan native or native Hawaiian n= 12 (3.2%	RealConsent	Targeted Increase prosocial intervening behaviours and prevent sexually violent behaviours towards women. 6x 30 minute modules.	Web-based general health programme 4 x 45 minute modules	Behavioural – prosocial intervening and sexual violence	Regression Models	At follow up, intervention group intervened more often (p =.04) and engaged in less sexual violence perpetration (p =.04) Prosocial intervening behaviours Cohen's d= 0.4 Sexual coercion behaviours Cohen's d= 0.3	6 months	10/13 = high

			Control White n= 158 (43.1%) African American or Black n= 83 (22.6%) Asian or Pacific Islander n= 73 (19.9%) Hispanic or Latino n= 42 (11.4%) American Indian, Alaskan native or native Hawaiian n= 11 (3%)								
Yount et al. (2023)	Design: RCT Country: Vietnam	N= 793 Mean age= 18 years All Cis-Male Heterosexual n=378 Bisexual n= 18	Kinh n= 277 (96.2%) Minority n= 15 (3.8%)	GlobalConsent	Targeted Increase prosocial intervening behaviours and prevent sexually violent behaviours towards women. 6x 30 minute modules	Adolescent Health Education (AHEAD) programme addressing physical health. 6x 35-45 minutes sessions Web-delivery and multimedia components	Behavioural – prosocial intervening and sexual violence	Descriptive Analyses DID modelling	When combining data from post-test 1 and post-test 2, the GlobalConsent group had lower odds (OR= 1.3) (Cohen's *d* = 0.2) of engaging in sexually violent behaviour than controls (OR= 2.7) (Cohen's *d* = 0.6)	6 months and 12 months	12/13 = high

								at post-intervention Global Consent had higher odds of any prosocial bystander behaviour (OR= 0.7) (Cohen's *d* = - 0.2) compared to control group at post-intervention.		
Draucker et al. (2019)	Design: Cohort Country: USA	N= 14 18-25 years old All female	White 79% (n=11) Black, 7% (n=1) Asian 7% n=1) Mixed race. 7% (n=1)	WISER	Targeted To modify problematic relational schemas to reduce dating violence. 4 sessions		Feasibility and usability. Attitudes and behaviour.	Effect sizes for the scales (Cohen's d)- difference of means	Usability and acceptability were promising. Baseline to follow up: Relationship Assessment subscale Cohen's *d* = 0.7 Anxiety subscale Cohen's *d* = .0.2 Avoidance subscale Cohen's *d* = -0.6	2 months	9/12 high

							CTS-2 Negotiation Scale Cohen's *d* = 0.3 Psychological Aggression Scale Cohen's *d* = - 0.6 Physical Aggression Scale Cohen's *d* = 0.3 Sexual Coercion Scale Cohen's *d* = - 0.1 Injury Scale Cohen's *d* = 0.5 Victimisation Scale Cohen's *d* = - 0.5 Perpetration Scale Cohen's *d* = - 0.4 Only mean scores of relationship assessment scale were significantly

								different between baseline and 2 month follow up. (Cohens *d* = 0.7)		
Heard et al. (2023)	Design: Mixed Methods Country: USA	Quantitative: n= 113 Qualitative: n= 13 No age data but all Undergraduate students. Quantitative: 70.8% women 28.3% men, 1% prefer not to say. Qualitative: n = 9 women, n= 4 men.	All domestic residents of Australia. No ethnicity data.	Untitled	Universal Increase awareness of reporting sexual misconduct, awareness of sexual consent, to shift social norms and encourage safe bystander behaviour. Approx. 45 minutes		Knowledge, attitudes, and responsive bystander behaviour. Perceptions of the module as an educational tool.	Paired T-Tests (before vs after online module) Thematic Analysis	After watching the programme, students were significantly more willing to report sexual misconduct they may experience (Cohen's *d* = -0.5) were significantly more aware of resources (Cohen's *d*= 1.2) and significantly more confident to engage in bystander behaviour (Cohen's *d*= -0.8) After watching, students had significantly more positive attitudes	N/A	13/17 = high

								towards intervening and their efficacy to intervene. There was also a reduction in rape myth acceptance and improved attitudes towards establishing consent. Themes included: • supporting sexual violence education relatable content • online format was helpful. • recommendations.	
Draper (2017)	Design: Mixed Methods Country: USA	N= 2522 N=15 (in qualitative follow up) 61% (1541) female 38% (953) male	Not provided	Not Anymore	Universal To increase and change attitudes in relation to preventing sexual violence.	Knowledge, attitudes around rape myths. Retention of resources	Paired t-tests and ANCOVA. Qualitative Analysis not identified	After completing the programme, students had significantly greater knowledge of sexual violence $p<.001$ and endorsed fewer	Interviews were a follow up (conducted in the same semester)	12/17 = high

	1% another and 1% prefer not to say. No age data	Introduction, 8x primary modules, 8x secondary modules lasting 60 minutes	and effectiveness of the programme (qualitative)	but reference made to 'themes'	rape myths with significant differences for gender $p<0.5$. Knowledge pre-test: $M = 0.68$ Knowledge post-test: $M = 0.77$ Cohen's $d = -0.6$ Feedback included the positive use of first-hand accounts, comprehensive and clear information, material highlighting how to be part of the solution, a victim-centred approach, formatting priorities, and diversity among cast as important

									aspects for an education programme.		
Thompson et al. 2021	Design: Cluster quasi RCT Country: USA	N= 146 No age reported but all college students. Intervention group: 60% female Control group 63% female	Intervention group: 51% Non-white 7% Hispanic Control group: 31% Non-white 6% Hispanic	"All-in: A Culture of Respect"	Targeted Aim: to target sexual violence risk and protective factors. 45 minutes	Waitlist – No intervention group	Knowledge, attitudes, behaviour frequency Perceptions of programme.	ANOVA Chi-Squared	Intervention effects for males on increase in knowledge about sexual violence (Cohen's *d*= .0.9), decrease in perceptions around peer pressure for sex (Cohen's *d* = -0.9), decrease in peer approval of forced sex (Cohen's *d*= -0.9), and rape-supportive beliefs (Cohen's *d*= - 0.9), over 1 month. For women, there was a significant decrease in drinking over time (Cohen's *d*= - 0.9). Participants indicated high level of	1 month	6/13= low

									satisfaction with the intervention (value, utility, and importance)

N.B. Where authors have reported means, standard deviations and sample size, a standardised Cohen's D effect size has been calculated and reported.

Results

Descriptive overview of results

In the review, eleven quantitative studies (Burns et al. 2019; Draucker et al. 2019; Jouriles et al. 2016a; Jouriles et al. 2016b; Kleinsasser et al. 2015; Levesque et al. 2016; Salazar et al. 2014; Sargent et al. 2017; Thompson et al. 2021; Yount et al. 2023; Zapp et al. 2018) and four mixed-methods studies (Draper, 2017; Heard et al. 2023; Levesque et al. 2017; O'Brien et al. 2021) were included.

Sample

Total number. The total number of recruited participants across all studies was 176,999. Ranging from 14 in Draucker et al., (2019) and 167, 424 participants in Zapp et al., (2018).

Gender. Twelve studies had mostly female participants (Burns et al. 2019; Draper, 2017; Heard et al. 2023; Jouriles et al. 2016a; Jouriles et al. 2016b; Kleinsasser et al. 2015; Levesque et al. 2016; Levesque et al. 2017; O'Brien et al. 2021; Sargent et al. 2017; Zapp et al. 2018), two studies contained all male participants (Salazar et al. 2014; Yount et al. 2023), and one study contained all female participants (Draucker et al. 2019). Only one study (Zapp et al. 2018) contained participants who identified as transgender or other gender (0.5%) and one other study (Heard et al. 2023) included an option of 'prefer not to say' which was selected by 1% of participants.

Ethnicity. Most participants across the studies included identified as 'White' who took part in the prevention programmes. Over 80% in both Jouriles et al. (2016a) and Jouriles et al. (2016b). 82.2% in Levesque et al. (2016), 79% in Draucker et al. (2019), 68% in Zapp et al. (2018), 66.7% in Kleinsasser et al. (2015), 57% in Levesque et al. (2017), 53% in O'Brien et al. (2021), 51% in Thompson et al. (2021), 45.2% in Salazar et al. (2014). Most of

the sample in Sargent et al. (2017) were Hispanic (72.3%) and most identified as Latinx (59%) in Burns et al. (2019). 96.2% identified as Kinh in Yount et al. (2023) which is the majority ethnic group in Vietnam. Finally, Draper, (2017) did not report ethnicity data, as well as Heard et al. (2023), however authors in the latter study stated no participants identified as Aboriginal/Torres Strait Islanders.

Age. The youngest participants were those at high school. Sargent et al. (2014) reported a mean age of 15.27 years. Levesque et al. (2016; 2017) did not provide data for age, however, recruited their sample from 9^{th} -11^{th} grade which is representative of ages 14-16 years. Participants at college/university varied in average age. Jouriles et al. (2016b) and Yount et al. (2023) reported a mean age of 18 years. Zapp et al. (2018) did not report averages, however most of their sample was 18 years old (79%). Similarly, Heard et al. (2023) reported a median of 18 years in the qualitative portion of their study. Jouriles et al. (2016a), Kleinsasser et al. (2015) and O'Brien et al. (2021) reported a mean age of 19 years, Salazar et al. (2014) reported a mean age of 20 years and, Burns et al. (2019) reported a mean age of 21 years. Draucker et al. (2019) reported their age data as ranging between 18-25 years. Finally, Thompson et al. (2021) and Draper (2017) did not provide any age data, as did Heard et al. (2023) for the quantitative portion of their study.

Control Groups. In terms of control/comparison groups in the Randomised Controlled Trials, Thompson et al. (2021) included a no intervention group, as did O'Brien et al. (2021), however the latter also included a website condition where students browsed a website about dating violence. Three studies opted for programmes focused on preventing poor physical health (Levesque et al., 2016; Salazar et al., 2014; Yount et al., 2023) and Sargent et al. (2017) allowed counsellors to choose a topic of their choice to deliver including wellbeing, bullying, or suicide prevention. Finally, Jouriles et al. (2016a and 2016b) and Kleinsasser et al. (2015) opted for a study skills programme.

Education Setting

In terms of location, ten studies researched students at universities/colleges in the United States (Burns et al., 2019; Draper, 2017; Draucker et al., 2019; Jouriles et al., 2016a, Jouriles et al., 2016b; Kleinsasser et al., 2015; Salazar et al., 2014; Sargent et al., 2017; O'Brien et al., 2021; Zapp et al., 2018), one study took place at a Vietnamese university (Yount et al., 2023) and one study took place at an Australian university (Heard et al., 2023). In addition, three studies focused their research at high schools in the United States (Levesque et al., 2016; Levesque et al., 2017, Sargent et al. 2017).

Measured Outcomes

Jouriles et al. (2016a; 2016b), Kleinsasser et al. (2015) and Burns et al. (2019) measured the presence of bystander behaviour and feelings of efficacy to intervene in sexually violent situations. Zapp et al. (2018) measured the same, with the addition of empathy and support for victims, correctly perceived social norms, and rape myth endorsement. Draper (2017) also measured rape myth acceptance as well as, knowledge of sexual violence and qualitative feedback about the programme. Similarly, Thompson et al. (2021) measured rape supportive beliefs alongside knowledge about sexual violence, consent, peer pressure, peer norms, heavy drinking, intentions to intervene as a bystander, knowledge of resources related to sexual violence and finally, qualitative perceptions of the programme.

Salazar et al. (2014) and Yount et al. (2023) measured prosocial bystander behaviour (ability and intent) and frequency of sexual violence perpetration. Sargent et al. (2017) measured helpful bystander behaviour using a frequency count. O'Brien et al. (2021) measured knowledge and attitudes towards dating violence as well as intentions to intervene and feelings of efficacy to intervene as a bystander. Heard et al. (2023) measured the same outcomes in relation to sexual violence behaviour. Levesque et al. (2016) measured the

frequency of dating violence perpetration and victimisation. Draucker et al. (2019) measured usability and feasibility as well as, attitudes and behaviour. Similarly, the final study measured acceptability to see whether the programme was feasible to run (Levesque et al. 2017).

Measures

Levesque et al. (2016) used their own previously developed 30-item measure which included the five types of dating violence victimisation and perpetration (Levesque & Paiva, 2016) and the Acceptance of Couple Violence Scale (Foshee et al., 1992) to measure attitudes towards dating violence. The Revised Conflict Tactics Scale Short Form (CTS2-S; Strauss & Douglas, 2004) was used in Draucker et al. (2019) to measure dating violence. Draucker et al. (2019) further used Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECR-S; Wei et al., 2007), and the Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick et al., 1988) to measure attitudes and behaviour in dating relationships and their own evaluation form.

Jouriles et al. (2016a; 2016b) used the Bystander Behaviour Scale for Friends (Banyard et al., 2014). Kleinsasser et al. (2015) and Heard et al. (2023) used the Bystander Behaviour Scale (Banyard et al., 2005). The adapted Bystander Behaviour Scale (McMahon et al., 2014) was drawn from in the Yount et al. (2023) study. An updated version of the Bystander Behaviour Scale (Banyard & Monihan, 2011) was drawn from and modified for use in O'Brien et al. (2021). Sargent et al. (2017) used the Friends Protecting Friends Bystander Behaviour Scale (FPF-BBS, Jouriles & McDonald, 2016). Salazar et al. (2015) used the Reactions to Offensive Language and Behaviour Scale (ROLB; Berkowitz, 2002) to measure helpful intervening behaviour. The Readiness to Change Scale (Banyard et al., 2010) was drawn from in Burns et al. (2019) and Zapp et al. (2018). Burns et al. (2019) further measured bystander ability and intent using additional tools developed by professionals working on campus. The Bystander Efficacy Scale (Banyard et al., 2004) was

used by Jouriles et al. (2016a; 2016b) and an updated version (Banyard et al., 2007) was used by Kleinsasser et al. (2015).

To measure sexually violent behaviour, the 'Sexual Coercion' subscale of the CTS2-S was used in Salazar et al. (2014) and the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss & Oros, 1986) was used in Yount et al. (2023). The updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (McMahon & Farmer, 2011) was used by Draper, (2017). Heard et al. (2023) and Zapp et al. (2018) and the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995) was used by Thompson et al. (2021) to measure rape supportive beliefs. Thompson et al. (2021) also developed their own survey to measure knowledge of sexual violence and drew on the literature to measure consent (Humphreys & Herold, 2003), peer pressure to have sex (Kanin 1985), peer approval of forced sex (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004) and heavy drinking (Dawson & Room, 2000). Heard et al. (2023) used the Revised Sexual Consent Scale (SCS-R; Humphreys & Brousseau, 2010) and used 3 items to measure willingness to report sexual violence drawn from existing literature (Daigneault et al., 2015).

O'Brien et al. (2021) used The Relationship Red Flags Scale (Kearney & O'Brien, 2018; 2021) to measure warning signs and developed their own 6-point scale to measure knowledge of bystander interventions. In addition, they used single items adapted from the literature to measure attitudes and intentions towards helping (Ajzen, 1991; Lemay et al., 2019) and self-efficacy to intervene (Banyard, 2008), as well as open ended questions developed by the authors. Finally, Draper (2017) administered a general knowledge questionnaire based on the programme and the University Campus Climate Survey (McMahon et al., 2015).

Method of Analyses

The studies in the review utilised a range of analyses methods. Burns et al. (2019) analysed data using descriptive means, gain scores and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

ANOVA was also employed by Zapp et al. (2018) and Thompson et al. (2021) who also carried out Chi-Squared analyses. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) tests were carried out by Kleinsasser et al. (2015) and Jouriles et al. (2016a) as well as, Jouriles et al. (2016b) who also carried out t-tests. Sargent et al. (2017) analysed their data using an ANCOVA equivalent method: Log linear mixed model analyses. O'Brien et al. (2021) utilised Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) as well as, content analysis. Mixed methods were also carried out by Heard et al. (2023) who used paired t-tests and Thematic Analysis, similarly to Draper (2017) who performed paired t-tests, however, did not state their chosen qualitative method but referred to themes. Open-ended evaluation questions were carried out by Levesque et al. (2017) and computed into percentages. Percentages were also used to analyse responses on the evaluation forms in the Draucker et al. (2019) study as well as the calculation of effect sizes and descriptive analyses. Similarly, Yount et al. (2023) performed descriptive analyses as well as, DID modelling to compute odds ratios. Finally, Salazar et al. (2014) employed regression models, as did Levesque et al. (2016) who analysed their data using logistic regression.

Narrative Approach

Due to differences in design and outcomes measured across studies in this review, the decision was made to present findings as a narrative. For clarity, the results are presented under concise headings related to the three research questions.

Types of online prevention programmes

Out of the fifteen studies, there were ten different online prevention programmes evaluated which included one online module without a name. Six programmes adopted a universal approach: of which two addressed dating violence and four addressed sexual violence. The remaining four programmes were targeted approaches: of which one addressed dating violence and three addressed sexual violence. A description of the programmes is

detailed below delineated by programme focus (dating or sexual violence). Information about aims, content, intended audience, procedure, length/duration is presented.

Dating Violence

'Teen Choices' is a targeted prevention programme which aims to give feedback and education around using healthy relationship skills matched with the young person's dating history to reduce dating violence. It is theoretically driven by the Transtheoretical Model of Change (TTM; Proschaska & DiClemente, 1983) which indicates that there will be greater behavioural change when interventions are matched to the correct stage of change (Levesque et al. 2012). The content is also informed by analysis of existing dating violence programmes, interviews with experts in the field and focus groups with teens. The programme is interactive in which users click through the content on an online platform. The initial version included a single session with three interventions tracks; however, it was amended to include 3 sessions with five intervention tracks (a) high-risk victims, (b) high-risk daters, (c) low-risk daters, (d) high-risk non-daters, and (e) low-risk non- daters. Each session lasts 25-30 minutes. There are tailored intervention tracks for users based on experiences of physical and emotional dating abuse in the past 12months (Levesque et al., 2016; 2017).

'WISER' stands for Writing to Improve Self in Relationships and is a universal prevention programme lasting four sessions aimed at emerging adults (EAs) ages 18 to 25. It aims to change problematic relational schema associated with dating violence. and employs principles of narrative therapy. Users watch a short video which depict an 'emerging adult' actor talking about difficulties in their relationship (representing a problematic relational schema people may have). Users then write their own stories modelled on the videos they have watched and upload them. After a few days they receive a response from a peer advisor offering feedback and then users can move on to the next session. Peer advisors were selected

based on holding a university-level relevant qualification and received 8 hours of training (Draucker et al., 2017).

'STOP Dating Violence' is a universal prevention programme delivered to college students. The aim is to educate users about all forms of dating violence and encourage positive intervening behaviour. The programme is implemented through three pre-recorded, narrated presentations informed by various theoretical models such as the Model of Bystander Behaviour (Latane & Darley, 1970). In total, it lasts 24 minutes and focuses on: 1) knowledge of warning signs; 2) knowledge of psychological barriers that stop people from intervening; and 3) knowledge of appropriate bystander responses. The third presentation presents the STOP acronym which stands for **S**tay safe, **T**ell the victim that you have a concern, **O**ffer to help and **P**rovide crisis information (O'Brien et al., 2021).

Sexual Violence

'TakeCARE' (Kleinsasser et al., 2015) is a universal bystander prevention programme aimed at college students. Its aim is to increase efficacy to intervene in sexual violence situations in friendship groups based on research that hypothesises self-efficacy is a mediator for bystander responses (Banyard et al., 2007). The focus on friendships is based on empirical evidence that individuals are more likely to take action if a friend is in trouble compared to if the person was a stranger to them (Levine et al., 2002) and that friends can influence health-related behaviours amongst each other (Cullum et al., 2013). The programme is delivered in video format and is less than 25 minutes in duration. Users are presented with information about the prevalence of sexual and/or physical violence within a relationship of someone they know and ways they can help. The programme then presents three video vignettes of potential scenarios where sexual violence may take place, observed by a bystander couple. It is paused and a narrator explains what is going on and highlights the risks. The video resumes and the bystanders take appropriate action in line with the CARE acronym which stands for

Confidence to provide help, **A**ware of risks, **R**esponsible for doing something, and **E**ffective in what people can do to help. Furthermore, the programme includes some psychoeducation around consent and relationship abuse (Jouriles et al., 2016a; 2016b).

'RealConsent' is a targeted prevention programme aimed at male college students to encourage appropriate bystander responses and reduce sexual violence towards women. To do this, content targets empirically determined mediators such as knowledge and attitudes around intervening behaviour, date rape myths, sexual consent, gender roles, and empathy for victims as well as, increasing communication skills overall. The programme is made up of six modules (30 minutes each) and includes a range of activities, interactive elements, serial drama videos to depict risky situations, and model positive outcomes for users to learn from. Moreover, the programme is designed so users cannot skip through and must complete all segments within the module (Salazar et al., 2014)

'GlobalConsent' is adapted from 'RealConsent' above, and therefore the aims are the similar. However, the programme is delivered specifically to male college students in Vietnam and the content was tailored to the Vietnamese population using qualitative feedback from CIS male Vietnamese students and stakeholders. This included tailoring the content to the family/social context and including different typologies of masculinity at varying speeds of development, e.g., positive, somewhat positive, and more traditional to the Vietnamese culture. There was the inclusion of CIS female partners for CIS males in the scenarios, removal of segments which where the vernacular was not relevant to the culture, key questions, and 'takeaway' notes to reinforce learning, an expanded definition of sexual violence and adapting the theory of change concepts to make the language culturally specific. Further, narratives from the qualitative feedback were anonymised and included to enhance cultural sensitivity, as well as re-filming the scenarios to be responsive to different styles of learning. In addition, the programme is made up of six modules lasting 30 minutes each and

covers six topics based on social cognitive theory, social norms theory and bystander theory. The programme includes a range of activities for users to move through and each topic must be completed before moving on the next but does not have to be completed in one sitting (Yount et al., 2023).

'Haven- Understanding Sexual Assault' is a universal prevention programme aimed at college students to modify perceptions of social norms and improve bystander responses to sexual assault. The course is delivered via an online platform and split into seven modules consisting of over 60 minutes of content which can be completed at the users' own pace via login details. The domains include 1) identification of personal values, 2) knowledge around healthy versus unhealthy relationships, 3) An exploration of gender norms and ways to address sexism, 4) Information to debunk sexual assault myths and misinformation, 5) The importance of, and how to gain consent , 6) How to identify (sexual) risk situations and ways to pro socially intervene and finally, 7) Guidance around how students can be activists for sexual violence prevention on campus (Zapp et al., 2018).

'All-in: A Culture of Respect' is a targeted prevention programme which aims to decrease risk of both victimisation and perpetration of sexual violence amongst college athletes. It is underpinned by social norm and situational theories as well as other empirically derived strategies. The programme provides psychoeducation around mediating factors to increase knowledge of sexual violence, sexual consent, the role of heavy alcohol use as a risk factor for sexual harm, as well as teaching effective bystander responses and signposting to campus resources. It is 45-minute in duration and is interactive as users input responses to questions and receive instant feedback as to whether they are correct via the online platform. If not, they are given the correct information (Thompson et al., (2021).

The '*Not Anymore'* programme is one of multiple programmes developed as part of a universal strategy for sexual violence prevention in US universities. It covers eight primary

and eight secondary modules which takes on average 60 minutes to complete online. This iteration of the programme covered sexual consent, intervening as a bystander, dating/domestic violence, sexual harassment, stalking and healthy relationships. This is delivered through animations, graphics, survivor stories and bystander videos (Draper, 2017).

The final programme which has been included in this review was a universal, online module which did not have a name. It was developed by a range of experts within the health and academia field as well as representatives from welfare at the University. The content covers sexual consent, addressing social norms and being a prosocial bystander using a range of interactive activities, quizzes, videos, and knowledge tests. A scale is marked at the end of each section to elicit a rating of competence and confidence in relation to that section. The module was piloted on two occasions and took on average 45 minutes to complete. Each section must be completed before moving on to the next, but the module can be revisited at any time (Heard et al.,2023).

Effectiveness of online prevention programmes and perceptions of programmes

To address the second and third questions posed by this literature review, findings regarding the effectiveness of the programmes are presented in this section, including details, where provided, of the views of young people who engaged with the programmes. As the programmes differed in their key focus, the findings are presented below in relation to the separate programmes before drawing together some key findings across programmes regarding effectiveness and views in the discussion section.

Effect sizes are reported in some studies and have also been calculated where possible (Table 3). Partial eta squared tells us how much of the variance in the measured outcome can be explained by the programme, when other interaction effects are partialled out. The higher the value, the more variance is explained, and the programme would be considered to have a greater effect on the outcome (Richardson, 2011). The original benchmarks for partial eta

squared are those reported by Cohen (1988) which are 0.01 (small effect), 0.06 (medium effect) and 0.14 (large effect). Cohen's d tells us the size of the difference between two means (e.g., intervention vs control). The larger the value, the bigger the difference between the two groups (Cohen, 1988). The benchmarks for Cohen's d are those originally reported by Cohen (1988) which are 0.2 (small effect), 0.5 (medium effect), and 0.8 (large effect).

The *TakeCARE* programme has been evaluated in four studies within the review and all reported positive outcomes. Kleinsasser er al. (2015) found students who viewed the programme reported significantly greater efficacy to intervene post-video, in comparison to controls, which was associated with a small difference between the means (Cohen's d = 0.4) but a medium effect was observed in terms of variance explained (partial η^2= .08). These group differences remained significant at the two month follow up and a small effect size was maintained (Cohen's d = 0.3), and the variance explained remained stable (partial η^2= .05). . In addition, after viewing *TakeCARE,* students reported engaging in more prosocial bystander behaviour, relative to the control group which was associated with a small group effect (Cohen's d= 0.3) and a medium effect size for variance explained. Similarly, Sargent et al. (2017) found students who watched *TakeCARE* engaged in more helpful bystander behaviour (i.e., across a greater number of situations) than controls who watched a study skills programme. This was associated with a small effect (Cohen's d = 0.1). In comparison, Jouriles et al. (2016a) observed a small effect for *TakeCARE* for engaging in bystander behaviour and perceived self-efficacy to intervene in social situations (Cohen's d = 0.4*)* relative to the control group at 1 month follow up. Similarly, Jouriles et al. (2016b) reported small effect sizes for engaging in bystander behaviour and efficacy to intervene (Cohen's d = 0.2) in comparison to controls. In both studies, the variance explained was large with partial eta squared values >.14. In addition, the effectiveness of the prevention programme was

partially mediated by student's efficacy to intervene in Jouriles et al. (2016a) but no mediation was observed in Jouriles et al. (2016b).

Thompson et al. (2021) also report large effect sizes for their evaluation of *All-in: A Culture of Respect'* targeted at college athletes. Amongst males at the 1 month follow up, intervention effects show increased knowledge about sexual violence (Cohen's d = 0.9), a decrease in rape supportive beliefs (Cohen's d = - 0.9), peer approval of forced sex (Cohen's d = 0.9), and peer pressure for sex (Cohen's d = 0.9). Amongst women, the intervention had significant large effects on reducing how often they got drunk (Cohen's d = - 0.9), and a medium effect on how many drinks they consumed (Cohen's d = - 0.7).

Participants were also asked to rate their perceptions of programme characteristics in what appears to be a measure of acceptability. The highest rated characteristic was that *'All-In'* could 'help educate students' and the lowest was that it was 'fun to do'. Additional mean responses to characteristics were rated above 5 which was relatively high on the response scale (1 (not at all true) to 7 (very true) which indicates participants would recommend the programme, believed it was beneficial, useful for developing healthy relationships. However, the characteristics rated as 4 included thinking the program was boring, enjoyment of the program and help to avoid being involved in a sexual assault. A subsample also participated in focus groups upon exit of the programme. They expressed liking the online mode of delivery, *"It's more private"* (pg. 97), they could go at their own pace at a convenient time as student athletes referred to their time being *"…demanded of us"* (pg. 97). Other responses relating to the impact included *".... now I'll be more aware of it…"* (pg. 98), recommendations included making the programme shorter as students mentioned *"…losing focus after about 20 minutes"* (pg. 98). Moreover, some students thought it would be a good idea to deliver the programme in segments and many thought incentives should be given to make *'All-In'* mandatory.

Findings from the Zapp et al. (2018) cohort study also demonstrated positive intervention effects for their prevention programme. After watching the *'Haven-Understanding Sexual Assault'* programme, there was a significant pre-post increase in ability and intent to intervene across 98% of institution across 37% of colleges. Outcomes for other measures were similarly positive with 84% of colleges demonstrating a significant pre-post increase in empathy and support for victims, however the mean effect size was small across most institutions (76%). Seventy-five percent of colleges showed a significant pre-post increase in accurate perceptions of social norms, of which 18%. Finally, significant pre-post increase for sexual assault myths score was observed in only 34% of institutions with a small mean effect size noted for 30% of colleges. Burns et al, (2019), similarly found students reported greater ability and intent to intervene after watching the *'Haven'* programme (*M*= 41.12, *SD*= 6.66), compared to before (*M*= 39.95, *SD*= 6.92) which was associated with a small effect (Cohen's $d = 0.1$). In terms of variance explained, this was small across all measured outcomes except for ability and intent to intervene (partial $\eta^2 = .12$).

Salazar et al. (2014) found their web-based program was effective. At 6 months follow up, males who were randomized to the *RealConsent* programme reported they intervened more often and engaged in less perpetration of sexual violence in comparison to the control group. However, effect sizes were small (Cohens $d = 0.4$ and 0.3 respectively). Outcomes measuring several mediators also showed a significant difference between the intervention group and control group. For example, after watching *RealConsent,* male students demonstrated significantly greater knowledge related to the legalities of sexual assault, endorsed fewer rape myths, had greater empathy for rape victims, and had more positive attitudes towards women, evidenced by p values $\leq .05$.

Similarly, Yount et al. (2023) reported positive outcomes for their adaptation of *GlobalConsent.* At follow-up, males randomized into the intervention condition reported

lower odds (*OR* = 1.3) of engaging in sexually violent acts after watching the programme in comparison to the control group (*OR* = 2.7). In addition, the intervention group displayed slightly higher odds of engaging in any prosocial intervening behaviours (*OR*= 0.7), compared to the control group (*OR*= 0.5). These were associated with small effect sizes.

Draper (2017) reported a significant increase in knowledge of sexual violence evidenced by higher means between the pre intervention (*M* = 0.68) post intervention stage (*M* = 0.77) associated with a medium effect size (Cohen's *d* = 0.6). Participants who engaged in the programme also evidenced a decrease in rape myth acceptance at post-test. There was also a significant difference in the mean scores of awareness of resources for sexual misconduct and how to get support between the pre and post intervention stage *t* (2443) = 50.28, *p*= <.001.

Qualitative analyses also provided insight into what students thought were important aspects to the online programme as an educative tool. Themes included: 1) importance of first-hand accounts (e.g., students described the survivor stories as "gripping" (pg. 73) and that it made the content realistic and made them consider this could also happen to them); 2) the material was solution-focused and provided information about ways to help potential victims (e.g., step by step advice and showing practical ways to intervene such as creating a distraction); 3) diversity amongst the cast acting out scenarios (e.g., students appreciated that the focus was not just on heteronormative relationships); 4) adopting a victim centred approach (e.g., allowing students to opt out if content was triggering); 5) clear information (e.g., students appreciated the focus on nuanced differences between harassment and stalking and the inclusion of videos about what consent can look like). The sixth theme 'format' was concerned with the method of delivery and met with divided opinion. Some students felt the online delivery was helpful and structured well, and others commented the programme was

too long, highlighted technical difficulties and some felt the format meant some information could be skipped through.

Similarly, Heard et al. (2023) reported that their online module was effective. Large effect sizes were observed for the intervention group who reported an increased willingness and awareness to report sexual misconduct with Cohen's *d* values of ≥ 0.8. Increased bystander efficacy was also associated with moderate to large effect sizes. Finally, significant small-medium effect sizes were observed for increased positive attitudes about gaining consent and increased rejection of rape myths (Cohen's *d* ranging from 0.3- 0.7).

Qualitative findings were also promising regarding the effectiveness of the above module. Some students described the module as accessible and informative and thought the focus on sexual consent was apt based on the social context of being at university. The inclusion of nuanced behaviours to indicate problematic consent was highlighted as positive and students felt it applied to real life. Some students commented on the positive inclusion of the impact of sexual violence perpetration on both social and cultural status as these were likely to hold more personal value to people, rather than simply focusing on legal repercussions. The online format was praised as being private and convenient and students were able to pace their own learning. Students further thought the module should be made compulsory as the skills were "vital" to learn and applicable to real life. Others thought making it compulsory may place an additional demand on busy academic schedules. In addition, students commented on recommendations which included making the programme more visible to reach a larger audience, including a follow-up space after completing the module to clarify the information and an opportunity to ask questions. Refresher opportunities were also commented as useful to ensure information was consolidated, as well as the inclusion of more self-care information to better deal with disclosures from peers.

In the current review, Levesque et al. (2017) carried out a development and feasibility trial with *Teen Choices* which produced promising feedback. The study aimed to gather feedback about acceptability (a key area of feasibility) which refers to how intended audiences react to the intervention (Bowen et al., 2009). To determine acceptability, the criteria used was at least 75% of participants would have to respond, 'agree or strongly agree' (score of 4 or higher) to the evaluation questions. Of the 11-item questionnaire, 10 items received a score of 4 of higher with a mean acceptability score of 81%. The only item that was endorsed by less than 75% was *'I would recommend this program to a friend'.* The most acceptable item was *'the personal feedback was easy to understand'* which was endorsed by 88.7% of teens. In response to things, they didn't like about *Teen Choices,* open ended responses included *"all the questions and there were a lot of them"* (pg. 381), *"the part on alcohol. It made me feel a little ashamed* (pg. 381),*"* responses to what they liked included *"it gave me advice to give to others in abusive relationships", "I like the way it gave you feedback on the stages of healthy relationships! I really did enjoy this"* (pg. 382). In addition, 43% of participants provided a recommendation which tended to be related to amending the questions e.g., *"make more questions that we could answer in our words"* (pg. 382).

Levesque et al. (2016), went further to evaluate the impact of *Teen Choices* on behaviour. They measured programme effectiveness and results were positive regarding reducing both perpetration and victimisation. Those in the programme condition were associated with significantly reduced odds of dating violence behaviours at 6 months follow up (adjusted OR= .43-.70) which was associated with a small effect size (Cohen's d = -0.5 to -0.2) and at 12 months (adjusted OR= .45-.63/Cohen's d = -0.4 to -0.3) Specifically, for those who reported a past year history of either emotional victimisation, perpetration and physical victimisation, the intervention effects were significantly larger in reducing that same type of behaviour. In terms of secondary outcomes, students assigned to the *Teen Choices*

programme had significantly increased odds of using healthy relationship skills at both follow up points, as well as rejecting attitudes supporting dating violence at 6 months but not 12 months. Notably, all findings (except for attitudes at 12 months) remained significant after adjusting for gender, race/ethnicity, grade, and stage of change interaction effects.

O'Brien et al. (2021) employed a mixed methods RCT to investigate the impact of 1) *STOP Dating Violence* programme, 2) a website condition where students read through information about dating violence and 3) a control (no intervention) group). They found that students who received the prevention programme reported greater intentions to intervene and self-efficacy to intervene at post-test with findings maintained at the 1 month follow up. At post-test and follow-up, students in the intervention condition reported a significant difference in knowledge of warning signs for dating violence. These included monitoring, controlling, demeaning, threatening and aggressive behaviours and jealous and possessive behaviours which were associated with medium-large effect sizes (Cohen's *d* values ≥ .06). in addition, the effect size for variance explained in participant's intention to intervene and bystander self-efficacy were large (partial $\eta^2 = .09$ and partial $\eta^2 = .30$ respectively). Of note, there were no changes found in attitudes about helping people who experience dating violence at post-test. Moreover, many outcomes were similar for both the *STOP Dating Violence* condition and the website conditions at follow up. This may suggest the website was just as viable in educating students as the pre-recorded narrated presentations. However, knowledge of desired bystander responses was the highest in the *STOP Dating Violence* condition.

Content analysis at post-test indicated that a higher percentage of students in the intervention condition correctly identified more barriers to intervening as a bystander, which the programme aimed to educate on. Many students (80.8%) listed thoughts such as *"someone else will help",* in comparison to only 12% listing this at pre-test. Similarly at

post-test, 80.8% listed the thought *"you will look bad if you help",* which was a marked change from 0% of participants identifying this at pre-test. The third barrier which was introduced in the programme was *"If no one else is helping, it must not be an emergency"*, which was listed by 67.3% at post-test, and an improvement from 8% at pre-test. These improvements indicated that students were more knowledgeable (after engaging with the programme) of the psychological barriers which may impede people to help those in a risky situation. Similar pre-post-test increases were noted when participants were asked to list four ways to intervene with over 70% listing steps that coincided with the STOP acronym.

Draucker et al. (2019) found that *WISER* was somewhat effective in their pilot trial of the programme. They found that mean scores on some outcome measures significantly changed in the predicted direction with medium effect sizes. This included reduced physical aggression (Cohen's d = -.61) and psychological aggression (Cohen's d = -.62). In addition, there were reduced scores on the perpetration scale (Cohen's d = -.66) and on the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale- Short Form (CTS-2; Straus & Douglas, 2004). At the two month follow up, only scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick et al., 1988) were significantly different from baseline, which was associated with a medium effect size (Cohen's d = .67). This indicated that women reported being more satisfied with their intimate partner relationship after taking part in the prevention programme. In addition, this study also presented findings related to feasibility and acceptability which are outlined below.

Finally, usability (ease of use) and acceptability of the website were measured prior to the *WISER* intervention trial in the Draucker et al. (2019) study. They found that 100% of participants found the website easy to use, it was easy to answer the eligibility questions, register and access the sessions, upload their stories, and receive feedback from peer advisors. Many (71%) reported the website was engaging and 79% liked the aesthetics. However, open-ended responses were mixed as with one student describing the programme

as “functional”, and another describing it as “outdated”. One participant also suggested to change the colour scheme to make it “relaxing”. In terms of views about programme content, 100% felt the information on the website was helpful, 64% liked the videos, however 14% found the actor videos to be unacceptable. Open ended responses provided elaboration – participants described the actors as not engaging and would have preferred a “skit” instead of a video. In terms of acceptability of activities, 85% found writing stories helpful and 86% reported that receiving responses was helpful. However, some participants felt the advisors’ feedback was “mechanical”. Furthermore, most students (93%) reported being happy with the programme length.

Discussion

The current review took a narrative approach to explore the effectiveness of online prevention programmes in the area of dating and sexual violence aimed at adolescents and young people in education settings. Research questions focused on what is available in terms of online programmes, whether they are effective, and what do young people think about them (including their thoughts on the particular mode of delivery, i.e., online). Following a systematic search and appraisal process, fifteen studies were included which evaluated ten online prevention programmes with positive outcomes associated. The majority of data gathered in the studies was quantitative, however, there was a small amount of qualitative data gathered in some studies; the findings of which appears promising.

There were a range of online programmes in the review and most incorporated bystander education into their content, largely focusing on sexual violence prevention, however, the approach was also used in the *‘STOP Dating Violence’* programme to improve response behaviours towards peers who are at risk (O’Brien et al., 2021). As all these programmes were associated with positive effects, this is in keeping with the evidence base

around the effectiveness of bystander interventions in prevention education amongst adolescents and young people (De La Rue et al., 2014; Mujal et al., 2019).

In terms of approaches used, there was almost an equal number of studies which evaluated both universal and targeted programmes which produced positive effects. This may suggest that both approaches are equally as effective, and education providers could pick either one based on the resources they have. Research states universal approaches might be lower in cost as they can be delivered to everybody in the education setting, so have a larger reach. However, other researchers have claimed that the effects of universal programmes are not maintained at follow up (Gavine et al., 2016). Of note, the two studies in the current review which included a longer follow up period of 12 months, both evaluated targeted programmes (Levesque et al., 2016; Yount et al., 2023). This may be due to the fact sample sizes were generally smaller and therefore, participants may have been easier to follow up. Furthermore, researchers argue that evaluation, irrespective of whether they are universal or targeted, should include both (quantitative) outcome data and (qualitative) process data (i.e., description of the experience, understanding of the mechanisms of success) to determine true effectiveness (Gavine et al., 2016). In the review, four mixed methods studies aimed to gather some process data and will be discussed further below. In relation to primary outcomes measured across the studies, these ranged from knowledge, attitudes, behaviour presence and frequency. Fewer studies in the review measured behaviour frequency in relation to dating and sexual violence. These findings support existing assertions that there are limited studies that measure behaviour frequency when assessing the effectiveness of a prevention programme. (De La Rue et al., 2014). This can impact the validity of results as a measure of frequency (increase or decrease) can better inform us about behaviour change, as opposed to being present or absent.

The findings add to the knowledge base in terms of effectiveness of dating violence programmes. Levesque et al. (2016), reported their dating violence programme was effective in reducing the odds of emotional and physical dating violence victimisation and perpetration. O'Brien et al. 2021 reported a positive effect of the STOP programme in increasing knowledge of dating violence warning signs, greater intentions to intervene and greater self-efficacy. This goes against previous research by Fellmeth et al. (2013) who found no significant effect of dating violence programmes on measured outcomes.

The review included two sexual violence prevention programmes which had been evaluated more than once. In relation to 'TakeCARE', all studies reported a small effect size in terms of mean differences which were maintained at the follow up period. The effect sizes for variance explained by the programme were associated with medium effects in Kleinsasser et al. (2015) and large effects in Jouriles et al. (2016a; 2016b). Salazar et al. (2014) evaluated RealConsent and Yount et al. (2023) evaluated GlobalConsent which was adapted from the former programme. Both outlined the students who attended the programmes reported less sexual violence perpetration and an increase in prosocial bystander behaviour at follow up. Yount et al. (2023) could be considered more effective as their results combine data for a 12 month follow up which suggests effects were maintained over a longer period. Overall, as positive effects were replicated for two separate programmes, these could be favoured over others in the prevention education curriculum.

Finally, qualitative evaluation of the programmes focused on mode of delivery and content and was generally positive but was only explored in a small number of studies. Of these, the online format was viewed as helpful and offered structure (Draper, 2017), was private, convenient, allowed for paced learning (Heard et al., 2023) and was easy to use (Draucker et al., 2019). This in keeps with research carried out by Bright et al. (2022) who proposed online mode of delivery can be effective as it can allow students to learn at their

own pace and is accessible. However, for some students the particular online format of the programme they did was too lengthy, and some reported technical difficulties related to a specific programme (Draper, 2017). In addition, some made, suggestions as to how to improve aesthetics (e.g., different coloured backgrounds) (Draucker at al., 2019). It would be advisable for those developing future programmes to get input from young people regarding length and aesthetics.

In relation to feedback about content of the online materials, the inclusion of relevant and realistic scenarios was praised, and the inclusion of more nuanced signs/behaviours were deemed effective (Draper, 2017; Heard et al., 2023), as well as, the inclusion of a sexually diverse cast, and self-care for victims (Draper, 2017). Irrespective of mode of delivery, this reiterates the evidence base which advocates for sociocultural relevance of content to address the needs of the audience (Krahe and Knappert, 2009), as well as addressing the prevalence data in relation to dating and sexual violence amongst sexual minority groups (Martin-Storey, 2021).

Limitations of studies

Some programmes were designed and developed for the purpose of being evaluated (O'Brien et al., 2021; Salazar et al., 2014; Yount et al., 2023) and although outcomes were largely positive, more testing is needed to ascertain whether the programmes result in positive, long term changes in those who engage with the programmes. In the case of Draucker et al. (2019) and Levesque et al. (2016), both these programmes had undergone feasibility testing and then a clinical trial was implemented which is in line with intervention mapping processes (Fernandez et al., 2019).

Some studies also included the development of new outcome measures or modified existing tools (Draucker et al., 2019; Levesque et al., 2016; Zapp et al., 2018). Although, internal consistency may have been acceptable and concluded as reliable, the tools were not

standardised. Research highlights that unvalidated tools may compromise construct validity as instruments may not have adequately measured the construct they intended to (Tsang et al., 2017). There was also heterogeneity across validated tools used to measure the same construct e.g., bystander behaviour which makes it more difficult to compare results. These findings are concurrent with Fellmeth et al. (2013) who noted the use of a range of outcome measures (some of which were unvalidated), which potentially impacted comparability in their review of dating violence prevention programmes. Most studies also measured multiple outcomes; however, this can be problematic when it comes to synthesising results in an RCT for example. It is not always clear which outcome is responsible for the effectiveness of the intervention which increases the likelihood of false positives (Mayo-Wilson et al., 2017).

There were a small number of studies which evaluated dating violence prevention programmes. Of the two that were included, both reported positive post-intervention outcomes, however the validity of findings could be viewed as questionable. Both programmes explicitly referred to the term 'dating violence' which has been suggested does not translate internationally, with UK scholars preferring alternative terms (Barter, 2009; Herbert et al., 2021). Whilst it is not surprising as the programmes were developed and delivered in the United States, it may suggest the content and concepts within the prevention programmes may not be applicable across cultures. Additionally, not all forms of dating violence (as identified in the literature, CDC, 2022) were addressed in both programmes. O'Brien et al. (2021) only focused on physical, psychological violence and sexual abuse, Levesque et al. (2016) only focused on physical and emotional violence (victimisation and perpetration) and did not include sexual violence. Both did not address stalking or cyber dating violence which may be due to the fact these are new additions to the definition, and research is scant in this area (Zweig et al., 2013). However, prevalence data suggests this is occurring at varying rates amongst young people in intimate relationships (Borrajo et al.,

2015; Stonard, 2018) and leading to adverse outcomes (Van Ouytsel et al., 2018; Zweig et al., 2014). Therefore, future development of such programmes could consider adding in additional material (Young et al., 2017).

Sampling bias was a limitation across several studies in terms of size and demographics. Some studies included small sample sizes and were underpowered (Salazar et al. 2014; Draucker et al. 2019); therefore, the effects must be interpreted with caution. However, there were some studies which had large samples and therefore the results from these programmes may be more generalisable (Zapp et al., 2018; Levesque et al., 2016). Two studies also reported older aged samples in comparison to the majority which may make generalisation more difficult. In relation to ethnicity/racial diversity, the samples were only somewhat varied, which again raises concerns around the generalisability of results. This issue may be of particular importance given that these factors are found to be a mediating factor in bystander responses e.g., a study by Brown et al., (2014). found black participants reported more prosocial bystander behaviours in comparison to their white counterparts. In another study, those who identified as Latinx, expressed a higher intention to intervene in a sexual assault compared to white participants (Weitzman et al., 2017).

The studies which included a mix of gender had a higher rate of female participants which may question the generalisability of results across genders. Research highlights that females display greater knowledge than males at baseline, prior to engaging in bystander education (Banyard et al., 2007) and women are less supportive of rape-myths and report greater intentions to intervene (Amar et al., 2014). In addition, only two studies included more diverse gender identities (e.g., Draper (2017) reported 1% of their sample identified as 'another' and 1% selected 'prefer not to say'). Whilst both groups' data was not included based on low sample size, they had greater knowledge of sexual violence and lower rape myth acceptance at the pre and post stages. The author considered 'another' as a gender

minority group and perhaps some participants in the 'prefer not to say' group and whether this reflected the higher prevalence of sexual violence amongst gender minority groups.

Furthermore, Zapp et al. (2018), reported 0.5% of their sample identified as 'transgender' or 'other gender', however gender differences were not reported in the study. Whilst the studies recruited volunteers and therefore demographics represent those who chose to participate, it may be beneficial to target gender minority groups to add knowledge to the evidence base. For example, a recent study found adolescents in gender minority and nonconformity groups were more likely to be vulnerable to dating violence victimisation and perpetration in comparison to their cisgender peers. Despite results not being significant after other factors were accounted for (e.g., childhood maltreatment), findings are still useful to consider the association between gender minority and dating violence and emphasises the need for further research in this area (Martin-Storey et al., 2021). A further sampling limitation was that only two studies included sexual orientation data but did not report on these differences (Levesque et al., 2016; Yount et al., 2023). This information is pertinent to the prevalence data which highlights differences between same-sex couples in the case of dating and relationship violence (Halpern et al., 2004). In their study of 18-24 year olds, Martin-Storey and Fromme (2016) found those who identified in the sexual minority group reported a higher prevalence of dating violence at the baseline stage of their longitudinal study.

All studies used self-report measures to make a conclusion about effectiveness. This can be considered a limitation in terms of reliability as individuals can be influenced by social desirability bias (Salazar et al., 2014; van de Mortel, 2008). However, this seems to be the usual protocol across all reviews of a similar nature identified in the introduction of this review.

Strengths and Limitations of the review

The decision was taken to include papers which included a broad range of methodologies and measures. As such, a narrative approach was taken to synthesis the data. Consideration was given to prioritising RCT studies, however, despite RCTs being seen as gold standard in efficacy research (Hariton & Locasio, 2018), in order to address research question 2, it was felt that the exclusion of non RCT studies would limit the value of the review in terms of the breadth and depth of information provided; all types of data were considered to offer some level of insight into the efficacy of programmes. In addition, in order to address research questions 1 and 3, the inclusion of the broader range of methodologies was necessary. This was considered a strength of the current review in being able to provide a comprehensive overview of what is available in terms of online prevention programmes; providing a range of data can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the area. It is of note that most studies in the review were RCTs and the decision could have been taken to prioritise these studies. The focus on RCTs could be a potential direction for future systematic reviews or meta-analyses.

Inter-rater reliability was not considered as quality assessment was only carried out by a single researcher. However, this may impact the reliability of the process within a systematic review (Belur et al., 2021). Nevertheless, all studies which met the criteria were included irrespective of their quality rating to provide a summary of what is available in terms of online programmes.

A final limitation was that most studies did not ask participants about previous prevention education they had received or factor this into their analyses. This makes it challenging to conclude whether the online programmes were effective on their own, or whether learning from other preventative efforts may have contributed to positive change.

Recommendations for Future Research

In the current review, the follow up periods of were mostly short, or no follow-up period was explored. It would be beneficial to carry out longitudinal evaluations to explore the maintenance of effects of online programmes. Most studies evaluated a singular prevention programme, therefore it would be useful for further evaluation studies of the same programme to be carried out, to see whether results can be replicated.

Of note, all programmes were developed and delivered outside of the UK and evaluated with non-UK samples. This throws into question whether findings are relevant and applicable to UK adolescents. As such, future research could attempt to deliver and evaluate the programmes in a UK education setting to see whether findings are replicated.

Recommendations for practice

Findings from the current review support the inclusion of bystander education as a relevant theoretical component in the development of dating and sexual violence prevention programmes. One study (Sargent et al., 2017) elaborated to explore the types of bystander situations young people are most likely to encounter and therefore intervene in e.g., relationship violence rather than sexual assault. This provides insight into the nature of the content to include in the programmes to ensure they are relevant to young people's experiences. Findings also highlight that universal and targeted approaches are similarly effective, and therefore schools can choose which programme to disseminate based on resources they have at their disposal. Regarding sexual violence programmes reviewed, *TakeCARE* and *GlobalConsent* could be favoured as education providers have more data to demonstrate their effectiveness based on more than one evaluation.

Overall Conclusions

In the current review, fifteen studies met the inclusion criteria and findings were summarised using a narrative approach. There were more online programmes focused on preventing sexual violence than dating violence and most studies adopted a quantitative

design. Outcomes measured focused on bystander behaviours as well as knowledge and attitude change, with two studies directly measuring sexual violence perpetration. All programmes were associated with positive outcomes with two studies observing maintained effects at a 12 month follow up. Feedback gathered about the online programmes included in the review were mostly positive; students felt the mode of delivery allowed them to learn at their own pace, that content was relevant, that the interface was easy to navigate, and that it offered privacy. Furthermore, the authors identified the short duration of online programmes made them easier to disseminate and could reach a larger audience. It is suggested that the development and delivery of the above or similar programmes be considered by all education providers. The findings presented above would indicate that the introduction of such programmes, delivered in either an in-person or online mode, may contribute to increased awareness of dating and sexual violence, increased likelihood of individuals intervening where they see such behaviours/crimes take place, and ultimately, a decrease in the number of victims of such behaviours/crimes.

Chapter Three

YOUNG PEOPLE'S VIEWS AND EXPERIENCE OF A THEATRE-BASED PREVENTION PROGRAMME ON ABUSE IN TEENAGE RELATIONSHIPS: A QUALITATIVE STUDY

ABSTRACT

Coercive control in teenage relationships is prevalent and is associated with harmful effects. Prevention programmes aimed at increasing awareness of healthy and unhealthy relationships is now mandatory in the UK curriculum. These programmes can be delivered using theatre-based components which research highlights are effective in engaging and connecting with students. The current study aimed to qualitatively explore the views/experiences of year eight students who received a programme focused on abuse in teenage relationships. Seven participants were recruited from a single secondary school and took part in two focus groups guided by a semi-structured interview schedule. Data were analysed using reflexive thematic analysis following a six stage recursive process. Three themes were generated: 'The Performance', 'Learning Points' and 'Student Feedback' and were discussed in the context of existing literature. Methodological limitations include a small number of focus groups which may only represent a limited subsample of students in the UK, Future research would do well to conduct additional focus groups, address sexual diversity and whether the programme is relatable, as well as follow up on the current cohort to see whether positive evaluations remain. The current study provides further detail about the utility of theatre in education, what students learnt from watching the programme, as well as, where the programme could be improved. This feedback could be implemented in the design and delivery of the current and future programmes delivered by the organisation.

Introduction

The school environment is regarded as the optimal setting in which to intervene and deliver prevention programs (Fryda & Hulme 2014; Janssens et al., 2020). This is due to the fact children spend a large proportion of the day at school which increases accessibility to the intended audience and is therefore cost- effective (Fryda & Hulme, 2014, Topping & Barron, 2009). It is further proposed that the existing learning environment within schools is conducive to children learning new skills and knowledge within a prevention programme (Barrett & Pahl, 2006; Janssens et al., 2020).

Prevention programmes that are delivered in schools can fall into two categories: universal and targeted. Universal prevention is aimed at delivery to all individuals in the school and does not delineate based on risk. Targeted prevention on the other hand, is aimed at those individuals who are deemed vulnerable to engage in certain risk behaviours or of being victimised based on their behavioural or clinical profile (Werner-Seidler et al., 2017). These programs aim to raise awareness, improve knowledge, promote help-seeking, modify attitudes and behaviours, and to teach skills and strategies to mitigate against risk/harm (Walsh et al., 2015). It is suggested that early prevention methods can facilitate better outcomes due to children and young people displaying less rigidity in their thinking and behaviour which tends to become more engrained with age (Gladstone et al., 2011).

School-based prevention programmes can be delivered across a range of mediums, including face to face which can incorporate drama and theatre-based components (Theatre in education), as well as online delivery including multimedia and web-based components (Krahé & Knappert, 2009; Lee & Wong, 2020). Face to face delivery is considered effective as it can allow for young people to receive immediate feedback, attend to both verbal and non-verbal cues, and facilitates emotional engagement (Meyer, 2008). On the other hand, face to face delivery can also be resource and time intensive (Bishop et al., 2006), and may

not always be facilitated by individuals who have the necessary expertise (Janssens et al., 2019). For example, there are certain programmes part of the school curriculum which are delivered by teaching staff such as Relationship and Sex Education (RSE). This is compulsory in all secondary schools and aims to teach children about healthy relationships; both intimate and non-intimate, as well as sexual health (DfE, 2021). Researchers argue that teachers as facilitators in this subject matter may not be effective due to the existing power imbalance between students and teachers which may limit confidentiality and students' willingness to engage openly (Janssens et al. 2020). In addition, Pound et al. (2016) synthesised young people's experience of school-based sex and relationship education. An overarching construct was that schools appeared to struggle to accept students being sexually active which may have resulted in content that was misaligned with student's contemporary experiences (e.g., the exclusion of LGBTQ+ experiences of relationships and the focus on abstinence which some students felt was unrealistic; Pound et al. (2016). Furthermore, this provides implications for a deeper consideration of content and delivery of these education programmes.

Theatre in education (TiE) refers to the use of drama and theatre to aid the delivery of education. The idea is thought to have emerged in the 1950's post-war era, where there was a shift towards wanting to develop the whole individual, improve wellbeing and for students to be agents of their own learning (Jackson, 1993).The movement was pioneered in the 1960's through the opening of the Belgrade Theatre in Coventry (UK) which was the first of its kind to deliver dynamic, interactive, and educational performances to young people through the use of live actors, role play and workshop style discussions (Belgrade Theatre, 2022). TiE or wider theatre-based approaches can portray a wide range of social scenarios which may be otherwise challenging for young people e.g., substance misuse, smoking, domestic violence, mental health (Joronen et al., 2008; Stanley et al., 2015).

As the current project aimed to evaluate a Theatre in Education prevention programme, a review of the literature regarding the effectiveness of this mode of delivery and theatre-based approaches is presented below, encompassing quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Quantitative evaluation

A systematic review carried out by Joronen et al. (2008) reported the effects of drama interventions delivered to school-aged children. Overall, there were some positive outcomes related to increased knowledge and attitudes across a range of health behaviours pre/post intervention. Most studies (5/10) included in the review, utilised theatre play, and live actors followed by a discussion and workshop style element. Authors concluded that the interactive nature of these programmes appeared to have a positive, short term impact. However, most studies did not have follow up data, so the long terms effects (if any) were unclear, and programmes lacked uniformity which made it difficult to make generalised conclusions.

Krahé and Knappert (2009) carried out an evaluation of theatre-based prevention programmes focused on sexual abuse aimed at 6-8 year olds in Germany. They found self-protective (cognitive) skills increased after students watched the live play in comparison to their baseline scores, however there were no difference in scores when compared to the group of students who watched a DVD. This suggests that a DVD was an equally viable option to the use of theatre in producing positive outcomes and using a DVD might be a more cost-effective alternative (Krahé & Knappert, 2009). However, a limitation of this research was that it only focused on cognitive skills rather than behaviour change, and the latter may provide a more robust measure of programme effectiveness as it is more realistic of real-life encounters. For example, in an earlier study by Fryer et al. (1987) children who received a sexual abuse prevention programme, later resisted real life requests from strangers more frequently, in comparison to a control sample who engaged in simulated stranger requests.

Heard et al. (2017) presented findings of their systematic review exploring the use of applied theatre in a range of prevention programmes addressing intimate partner violence across a diverse sample of age (ranging between 13-40 years old). They reviewed mixed methods designs and found audience interaction was associated with increased knowledge change, intentions to behave differently and improved help-seeking post-programme; however, outcomes were similarly positive for passive theatre programmes which suggests watching a live performance with no participatory element can be just as effective. Applied theatre was also found to have the potential to explore experiences and attitudes of the audience and could be tailored to meet cultural needs. Of those studies involving ethnic minority groups (where the prevention programme was developed by the community or actual participants), the audience fed back that they felt able to identify with the characters, highlighted the space felt culturally safe which allowed for new discussions to take place. This reiterates the benefit of content being relevant to the experiences of the intended audience, both socio-culturally and ethno-culturally. Whilst the review points to many benefits of applied theatre, fewer than half of the studies reviewed were assessed as low quality which was associated with lack of description and difficult to generalise findings. A further limitation raised was that much of the existing research evaluating applied theatre focuses on quantitative measures and does not inform *how* theatre can produce social change. Therefore, there appears to be a need for more qualitative research in this field (Heard et al. 2017).

Furthermore, in terms of general limitations, it is also argued that for specific programmes, e.g., child sexual abuse prevention, there are certain concepts which may be too complicated for young children to comprehend (Finkelhor, 2009) and there are queries around whether the increase in knowledge translates to real-life scenarios (Lalor & McElvaney, 2010).

Qualitative evaluation

A recent study utilised focus groups to evaluate the experiences of schoolchildren who attended a theatre-based child sexual exploitation prevention programme. It was reported the use of theatre-in-education supported with retention of the material with young people expressing it helped them to "connect" with the story. Other positive outcomes included knowledge gain and awareness of protective strategies (May et al., 2021). However, a limitation of this research was that students volunteered to take part and therefore may have been more engaged or receptive to the programme and more likely to evaluate it as positive (May et al. 2021).

Similarly, a study by Goodwin et al. (2019) employed focus groups with schoolchildren aged 12-15 to evaluate the use of drama in a prevention programme focused on bullying. The drama section was described as realistic, and students experienced an emotional connection with the performance. They also referred to content as being relevant and reflective of their experiences in comparison to existing prevention strategies which were out-dated and therefore not as relatable. Engagement was encouraged using humour, which students liked and supported retention of material. The most impactful outcome of the programme was that it encouraged "confidence" for people victimized by bullying to take a stand as well encouraging prosocial bystander behaviour. Students identified a need for whole-school delivery to maximise education around bullying and for it to be separate to mental health. Finally, students suggested teachers who attended the programme should share and transfer knowledge with their colleagues as some types of bullying e.g., cyber, and emotional, were less well understood. A limitation of the above programme was that some scenarios were described as stereotypical (e.g., the bully as physically larger, and the victim as small and timid), which the young people were dissatisfied with and described their experiences as different (Goodwin et al. 2019).

In addition, a study by Bell and Stanley (2006) evaluated a drama-based programme focusing on healthy relationships that was delivered to year eight pupils in a UK school. They reported positive views related to the mode of delivery, improved awareness at identifying domestic violence and where to access help. Positive views were evident at the second and third stage follow up. The latter was 12 months following the delivery of the programme which indicates the potential long term impact.

Current Study

The current research aimed to qualitatively explore young people's experience of receiving the 'Safe and Sound' programme delivered by a UK based Theatre in Education company. The programme employs drama and a talk back discussion at the end to increase knowledge about abuse in teenage relationships, improve attitudes around coercion and control and promote help seeking behaviour. The programme follows a young couple and their developing relationship, showing aspects of both healthy and unhealthy behaviours particularly coercive and controlling behaviours as well as which issues such as consent, and privacy (Loudmouth, n.d.).

The research will add to an existing (internal) evaluation of the programme carried out by the organisation. This evaluation was carried out between 2012-2013 across three West Midlands schools with year 9-10 students. Two hundred and twenty-three students completed pre- programme feedback and 122 students completed post-programme feedback. This included rating knowledge of abuse in teenage relationships and knowledge of resources, confidence in spotting warning signs, confidence to talk about abuse in teenage relationships, and whether the programme/method of learning was useful. High percentages were reported on the organisation website in relation to 'good and excellent' knowledge post-performance (79%), high ratings of confidence in spotting signs of abuse (99%) as well as, just over 70% of students stating they would behave differently as a result. The majority of students (55%)

rated the drama and workshop mode of delivery as their most preferred learning style in comparison to worksheets which was least preferred (3%). The qualitative feedback was not analysed in detail, but illustrated a consensus that students thought the programme increased their awareness of early warning signs of abuse and knowledge of where/how to get support. (Loudmouth, n.d.). The current study will provide an up to date qualitative evaluation of the programme and it is important to continue to evaluate using a range of methods to see whether they are effective at educating young people. It is hoped this can contribute to addressing the pervasiveness of abuse in teenage relationships. To provide context, below is an overview of the UK prevalence rates.

Studies report mixed prevalence rates of behaviours consistent with coercion and control which is included in the definition of dating violence and abuse (CDC, 2022, Zweig et al. 2013). In a review comparing prevalence across European samples (Tomaszcewska & Schuster, 2021), UK females were found to report the highest victimisation rates related to psychological violence and cyber dating violence which included elements of coercion and control (Barter et al. 2017). UK females also reported the highest victimisation rates of sexual violence (including coercion) than any other country (Stanley et al. 2018). Young et al. (2018) found the most common behaviour (at least 50%) reported across a sample of teens in England and Wales, resembled controlling behaviours and coercion was also highly reported in the sample in relation to sending sexually explicit images. Similarly, Stonard (2018) found that close to 75% of a UK sample of teens, reported the most common behaviour they experienced in technology-assisted dating violence was receiving messages from their partner monitoring their whereabouts, which can be ascribed to controlling behaviour.

It is further important to raise awareness given the hypothesis that relationships formed in adolescence can provide a template and rehearsal opportunity for adult relationships (Werkele & Wolfe, 1998). There are also more imminent risks associated with

teen dating violence which include anxiety, depression, alcohol, and drug abuse as well as low educational attainment which can have a negative outcome on healthy development (Taquette & Monteiro, 2019). Young et al. (2019) describe relationship and dating violence as a "public health problem" with little or no intervention available to tackle this issue. In their study, they discuss the dual role of victim and perpetrator across genders which is also an issue when deciding on interventions. Therefore, it is concluded that global, early interventions may be effective to teach *all* young people about healthy relationships (Young et al. 2019).

Research Questions

The overarching research question was 'What are the views and experiences of young people who participate in the 'Safe and Sound' program?' Within the question, there were sub-questions to explore the utility of drama and theatre, changes in attitude/behaviour resulting from taking part in the program, the sociocultural relevance of the scenarios and suggestions for any changes to the programme The focus on relevance comes from research which recommends that programmes should be tailored to the sociocultural context of the audience i.e., the scenarios used should be relevant and realistic to those that young people might find themselves in and suggest responses are to be also compatible with cultural norms (Krahé & Knappert, 2009).

Methodology

Sample

The sample were voluntary young people aged 13-14 in Key Stage 3, attending a single mainstream secondary school in the West Midlands region of the UK. There were two focus groups in total comprising of 4 young people in the first group and 3 in the second group. The sample was diverse in relation to gender and ethnicity as ascertained from a demographic form. In focus group one, two participants identified as female and two

identified as male. Out of the four, two participants identified as White, one identified as Asian-British, and one participant identified as Black- British. In the second focus group, two participants identified as male, and the remaining participant identified as female. Out of the three, one participant identified as White, one identified as Black-British, and the final participant identified as Asian-British.

Selection bias

Following consultation with the single school, two focus groups were arranged and a minimum of 6 students and a maximum of 12 students were required. There were approximately 150 students who received the programme and were therefore eligible to participate. As such, only a small percentage of students were required in comparison to those were eligible but all students in the year group had an equal opportunity to take part and were provided with information sheets by the school. Eight students returned parental consent forms, of which seven were available on the day of data collection. Students were allocated to each focus group in the order they returned consent forms. It is unknown if there was a selection bias, however it is of note that the students who took part were not the same as those who asked questions in the talk-back discussion. It was considered whether the students who participated in the study felt more comfortable to share their views in a smaller setting as opposed to speaking out amongst a large school audience. Broadly speaking, there was a range of boys and girls and a mixture of ethnicities which was considered representative of the year group.

Procedure

The researcher liaised with a member of staff from the Theatre in Education organisation. Their role was to send out information related to the project to participating schools i.e., those who had booked to receive the programme. The schools were asked to send expressions of interest via email to the organisation representative, who then forwarded these

on to the researcher for them to make direct contact with the school. The researcher spoke with a member of staff from the single school in the West Midlands region to provide more information about the project. The staff member consented for the school to take part and dates/times for the focus group were preliminarily arranged. An information and consent form were sent over via email following the call which was completed by the member of staff and emailed back to the researcher (Appendix G). Information sheets for participants and parental 'opt in' consent forms were emailed to the school to print off and give to the students (Appendix H).

The participants were introduced to the research study after receiving the prevention programme by the point of contact identified above. The information sheets were provided to each class to take home along with parental 'opt in' consent forms. They were asked to return these to the allocated member of staff at school if they wished to take part. One week prior to the agreed focus group date, the researcher contacted the member of staff at school to see whether any young people had returned consent forms. Eight forms were returned by students. It was agreed for two focus groups to be carried out with four participants in each. The groups were allocated by the member of staff at the school using a first come-first served basis i.e., the first group of four students who returned forms automatically were allocated to focus group one and the second group of four were allocated to the second focus group. However as mentioned, one participant was absent on the day due to illness.

On arrival to the school, the researcher was handed the parental 'opt in' consent forms for safekeeping in line with ethical guidelines. At the beginning of the focus group, participants were asked to think of a pseudonym and write it on a sticky label so the researcher could refer to them by this chosen name. Participants were then provided with individual consent forms to read and sign (Appendix I). Verbal consent was obtained and recorded on a password encrypted Dictaphone. Following the focus group, all students were

thanked for their participation, invited to ask questions, and provided with a written de-brief sheet (Appendix J).

Research Design

The research adopted a qualitative approach as the research question focused on exploring subjective experience, e.g., views and attitudes which are difficult to quantify (Anderson, 2010). Qualitative research also allowed for the collection of in-depth and rich data where there is more flexibility to move around the discussion topic (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Data were collected via focus groups which were carried out on school premises held in the teaching day. Focus groups were guided by a semi-structured focus group interview schedule (Appendix K) and took place in person.

Focus groups allow for the collection of in-depth data about a particular research phenomenon in a quick, efficient way from several participants at a given time (Krueger & Casey, 2000). They are also favoured when gathering data from vulnerable groups e.g., children and young people (Adler et al., 2019), as it can reduce the power imbalance between the adult researcher and the child that may have a confounding effect in one-to-one interviews (Shaw, Brady & Davey, 2011). Researchers further suggest that the setting of focus groups can be less threatening and can provide a safe environment which can facilitate the sharing of (sensitive) information (Shaw, Brady & Davey, 2011). This is attributed to factors such as an increased sense of belonging to a group and the presence of an 'audience' for each participant which encourages participation (Kitzinger, 1995). Analysing group dynamics can also influence and enhance the interpretation of the data (Halkier, 2010), however this is seldom included and rather the focus is on group interaction being simply a *tool* to collect the data (Wibeck et al., 2007).

Conversely, group dynamics can present a challenge for researchers, e.g., the potential for social desirability bias and conformity amongst adolescents (Daley, 2013) and the very

nature of focus groups may discourage those individuals who are less articulate, have specific learning needs and lack confidence in their communication skills from participating in research (Adler et al., 2019).

Adler et al. (2019) further suggest guidance for conducting successful focus groups with children and young people. The researcher facilitating the focus group is understood as a 'moderator' and must be able to hold the space, welcome participants and manage group dynamics. It is important to make introductions and consider the use of an ice breaker activity to make children feel comfortable and familiarise themselves with one another (Adler et al., 2019). A further consideration is to ensure the interview schedule and language within questions are appropriate and responsive to the participant's developmental needs (Clark, 2009).

Measure

The focus group interview schedule was devised through discussions in academic supervision and with some input from the Theatre in Education company by mind mapping what would be useful to know about the programme in the context of an evaluation e.g., learning points, thoughts on the content, suggestions. Example questions included: "What did you think about the content/scenarios acted out?" Sub-questions were "Were they realistic, are they the kind of situations you could imagine happening with young people today e.g., in school, in your friendship group, in your culture?" Another example question was "Do you think anything could have been changed/done differently?" Sub-questions included "What would you suggest, was anything missing that you think should be included, would you change anything about the format of delivery?" (Appendix K)

Data Analysis

The data were analysed using Thematic Analysis (TA) which refers to a process of extracting salient and meaningful points from a narrative, identifying patterns (themes), and

making sense of these in a coherent way. The audio recordings were transcribed verbatim, and all analysis was carried out by hand. Thematic Analysis follows a six-stage recursive process: 1) Familiarisation- becoming immersed in the data by reading and re-reading, 2) Coding- identifying salient points, labelling and collating them, 3) Generating initial themes- identifying patterns from the collated codes based on meaning, 4) Reviewing themes- organisation of themes from previous step to ensure they best answer the research question, 5) Defining and naming themes- determining the focus of each theme and deciding on a suitable and relevant name, 6) Writing up- this is the final step which involves deeper analysis of extracts and themes to produce a coherent narrative to answer the overarching research question (Braun & Clarke 2006; 2019).Engagement with and interpretation of the data can be on a semantic level (surface meaning) or a latent level (underlying assumptions) and can take an inductive approach (based on content only) or a deductive approach (fitted to existing theory). However, mixed approaches can be used (Braun & Clarke, 2006; 2019). The current research adopted a mixed approach as a-priori themes had already been identified based on what the researcher was expecting to find out more about through evaluation e.g., learning from the programme, the mode of delivery and the impact on knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour.

A reflexive approach was applied to the analytical process (Braun & Clarke, 2019). 'Reflexivity' refers to the influence the researcher has on the data, the extent to which they can shape, and enhance analysis based on their subjective sense-making. It has been proposed that whilst being reflexive is identified as an important aspect of qualitative research, it can be difficult to translate into practice. Factors such as the researcher's social position, emotional response and theoretical assumptions can influence the interpretation of the data and are important to acknowledge within the analytical process (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003).

It is therefore recommended to build reflexivity into the analysis process by employing strategies e.g., create distance from the data and allocate specific time to simply be reflective (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003). Reflections are included in Appendix L.

Moreover, the research was aligned with the Contextualist approach to thematic analysis. This was based on wanting to gather direct views/experiences of young people to understand their reality, but also consider the effects of societal discourse on their reality, and the meaning they made from watching the performance (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

Ethical Approval

A representative from the Theatre in Education organisation approached the headteacher of the school to provide information about the aims and procedure of the research (Appendix G). This was to ensure the school was in a fully informed position to provide consent for allowing the researcher to conduct focus groups on school premises and with children under their care and send 'opt-in' consent forms to parents. The participants were provided with as much information required to decide about informed consent and parents were also given adequate information in which to provide their consent. Participants were reminded of their right to withdraw at each of the points outlined in the above procedure, however, informed their data could not be removed once recorded. Confidentiality was maintained throughout as participants were asked to provide a pseudonym and were referred by this chosen name throughout. No identifiable information was included or referred to in the final write up. All data was stored in the secure Research Data Store provided by university. Furthermore, participants were provided with a de-brief which included signpost information if thy required additional support (Appendix J). Ethical approval for the project was granted by the University of Birmingham Ethics Committee in May 2022 (ERN_21-1539).

Results

Table 4 outlines the three themes and subthemes identified in the data. Quotes are provided thereafter; with pseudonyms the participants gave themselves as identifiers.

Table 4.

Themes and Subthemes Generated from the Thematic Analysis

Theme	1. The Performance	2. Learning Points	3. Student Feedback
Sub Themes	1.1. Mode of delivery	2.1. Relationships 2.1.1. Learning from the relationship scenario 2.1.2. Learning about relationships in general	3.1 Suggestions
	1.2. Scenarios 1.2.1. Realism 1.2.2. Audience response 1.2.3. Relatability 1.2.4. Characters	2.2. Getting Help 2.2.1. Speak to adults. 2.2.2. Intervening with friends	3.2. Good Points

Theme 1: The Performance

Students were asked their views about the way in which the performance was delivered, and they spoke about the live and interactive aspect of it and what they thought about the specific scenarios within the performance.

1.1 Mode of Delivery

When asked about their thoughts/view of the performance being delivered live and about the benefits, some students engaged in a discussion about comparing this mode of

delivery to a short video they had seen as part of their sex education curriculum. One student stated: “It made more sense than like some ten minute video on Youtube that talks about sexual read-reproduction, get what I mean” [Destiny]. Another student expanded to explain that the downside of videos was that they lacked explanation: “…cuz a video doesn’t explain anything… It can explain, but not thoroughly, not in depth.” [R1Active]. A third student also spoke about how the performance being live meant non-verbal communication could be seen more clearly in comparison to a video: “…because you can see body language, facial expressions a lot better than you can in just like a ten minute video.” [Lily].

There was a shared view amongst two students that due to the performance taking place in front of students, this made the content appear more realistic: “It was more realistic since it’s a play and it’s basically right in front of us” [Ollie]. At the end of the performance, the students were given the opportunity to ask the actors questions whilst they remained in character. In the focus group, when students were asked if they felt able to ask questions and what was good about it, one student spoke about how this made the performance “…more interactive” [Ollie]. However, another student was not aware the actor had stayed in character and therefore, spoke about they thought the actor had got “mad” at students for asking questions which they seemed surprised at: “he got, he sounded mad when he said “I, how can you rape your girlfriend?” and I’m like “woah… But obviously we’re just asking a question” [Destiny].

Another student spoke about how most students/the audience stayed quiet, and it was same handful of students asking questions and expected there to be more: “…it was kind of the same erm, students that just kept on asking questions… like three quarters of our year was just sat there quietly… I thought more people would have asked questions.” [Jimmy]. Of note, none of the participants who took part in the focus groups asked questions. Finally, one student appeared to question some audience member’s motivation for participation: “like all

the boys were just so much, like the questions they were asking, when they already know the answer… Like what's the point, they were just doing it to get attention".

1.2. Scenarios

This subtheme refers to what students thought about the scenarios depicted in the performance, for example whether what was shown in the performance was realistic to real life events, relatable to their culture and their experiences as young people. They also spoke about what part of the scenarios stood out and about how they felt at certain points of the scenario. They shared thoughts/feelings about the characters; there appeared to be a divide amongst the students in relation to thoughts on the victim/perpetrator shown.

1.2.1. Realism

Within this subtheme, direct references were made by two students about their mothers having been in abusive relationships in the past: "it's like my mum, she was in an abusive relationship with my dad" [Lily]; "…the same thing happened to me, cuz like I was younger when I saw certain things that wouldn't, shouldn't have saw" [Destiny]. These two students also spoke about couples closer to their age (between 15-22) experiencing abusive relationships, however they had different outcomes: "thing is, he was like abusive towards her, but she just decided to stay for like a lot" [Destiny]; "…he was abusing her, and he manipulated her, thinking that he loved her, and they had a baby, and then now, she realises that he was really abusive to her" [Lily]. The fact that students spoke about people they knew across the age span, experiencing abusive relationships indicates that the abuse scenario within the performance was felt to be reflective of real life situations. Another student described the performance as like "…how a normal relationship would be without all these people watching" [R1Active], which suggests they also felt the scenario to be realistic. There was only one student who stated what happened in the scenario would not happen within

their friendship group/social circle: “no…you all stand-understand each other. Like, no means no” [Pablo].

1.2.2. Audience response

Within this subtheme, students spoke about how the violence and various forms of aggression portrayed in the performance and how this elicited strong emotional responses from them and their peers: “…felt a bit shocked, cuz I wasn’t expecting there to be a lot of abuse” [Jimmy]; “Like awful. Cuz, why would you do that to the girl...like why did you do it to her? And he had no reason” [Aaliyah]. Another student explained how they felt unprepared for the abuse that was shown: “…it was just like a big bam” [Destiny] which suggests an element of surprise. The same student commented how one violent scene elicited a reaction from the wider audience, however, this student appeared to interpret this as other students perhaps not taking the performance seriously: “…like when, when he did slap her, everyone was like “oooo”, but like you get me, like, that’s like a real situation and it’s not funny if you think about it” [Destiny]. Finally, two students spoke about how they felt embarrassed as the performance “…felt like a private conversation” [Ollie] and another described “…second hand embarrassment” and likened this to watching TV shows where the audience “…know summat bad’s gonna happen” [Lily].

1.2.3. Relatability

Students spoke about whether the scenarios were relatable, i.e., whether they or their peers would go through those kinds of situations. Opinions varied, for example, one commented there are some young people who have little/no experience of dating and may not be able to relate: “…because some people obviously date, so it probably relate to them…but if obviously you can’t date for reasons, then probably you can’t relatable” [Aaliyah]. This student also spoke about certain religious groups where dating is prohibited and therefore these young people may not relate: “No… like, obviously if you’re a Muslim, you’re not

allowed to date… but I'm not sure on like, any other religions" [Aaliyah]. There was also a shared view by three students identifying age as a factor for how well the audience could relate: "…someone like year nine, ten's or eleven… Because they're like closer to what like their age is…so they can kind of relate" [Jimmy]; "…most of the stuff happened there won't happen to us now" [Destiny], as well as younger dating experiences being different to what was shown in the play: "…relationships at this age ain't really serious, it's just like "hiiii, love youuu" get what I mean, like stuff like that don't really happen" [Destiny]. However, the same student expressed that perhaps parts of the programme did reflect typical teen behaviour: "us growing young people, when we grow up, we like, for like a girl and like a boy, like, they do like, want, want like another gender's attention… but that's just normal" [Destiny].

1.2.4. Characters

Within this subtheme, there appeared to be a divide between feeling empathy for the characters and feeling that they are to blame for the events. One student expressed conflicting views when speaking about the victim: "…when you're drunk, you're just like a bit, but you still have your senses, like she could have still said no, but I don't really blame him for that… she wanted to do it when she was drunk, so that's her saying yes to the permission" and "…the people shouldn't of blamed that girl there cuz obviously she just liked him a lot and she thought that it was just gonna happen once…" [Destiny] referring to the coercive nature of agreeing to sex. Two other students also expressed empathy towards the victim: "…I kind of realised what was happening and I kind of felt sorry for X" [Ollie]; "…it just didn't really seem fair on her…" [Jimmy].

Theme 2: Learning Points

This theme describes what students said they learnt from the performance, however at times, the distinction between what was new knowledge and what was existing knowledge

was unclear. Learning was related to messages about relationships as well as learning what action to get to get help if they or their friends were in an abusive relationship.

2.1 Relationships

Students spoke about the knowledge/learning gained about an abusive relationship in reference to watching the specific scenario, e.g., recognising that partners can change, and the right way to behave in a dating situation. They also spoke more broadly about young relationships in general such as the lack of longevity.

2.1.1 Learning from the relationship scenario

There was a shared view/acknowledgement that the scenario had taught students that people can change from the start of a relationship to the end of one: "…just cuz someone was nice to you at start, don't mean they can't just switch up" [Destiny]; "People aren't who they say are when you first meet them. So, they can change completely when you actually fully know who they are" [Jimmy].

There was also a shared view that the performance taught the difference between right and wrong in a relationship, for example: "Yeah, like one day, we'll get into relationships, and it teaches us the right way to do it" [R1Active] and the (early) signs of abuse: "…we're taught us that if you're in a relationship, you might not notice if the other person is being abusive. However, they can be, and it, you only start seeing it later in the relationship when it's a bit, gone a bit too far" [Ollie].

Finally, in relation to the part of the performance where explicit (sexual) consent was not given by the female, students said they had come away understanding the importance of asking for consent to have sex: "Yeah, make sure you ask for consent" [Lily]; "…Like, he has to ask for someone's permission every time" [Destiny]. There was also an acknowledgment that alcohol can impact giving consent and people cannot take advantage of others when drunk: "…like how he thought that just because she was drunk or whatever, *(inaudible),*

doesn't mean she has to do it again…and you're not just allowed to do something cuz they was drunk" [Destiny].

2.1.2 Learning about relationships in general

Students spoke about young relationships; however, it is not clear if these were pre-existing beliefs which were then reinforced by watching the programme. They described young relationships as lacking longevity and the inevitability that these relationships will come to an end: "…it's gonna end badly anyway, either way. Sometimes it doesn't, but at our age, it, d-it alway, it always ends." [Lily]. One student spoke about the bonds/relationships with friends should be prioritised over a partner due to the temporary nature of the latter relationship: "…you shouldn't just drop all o' your friends for like a man cuz like, you're gonna break up like, most of these relationships aint going nowhere… the only people you have is your friends. You're not always gonna have that man" [Destiny]. There was also a view that relationships ended due to conflict: "you end up falling out or something like that [R1Active]; "…then they start hating each other" [Lily].

2.2 Getting Help

This subtheme refers to students learning to seek help by speaking to adults around them. They also spoke about learning to spot the signs of abuse such as paying close attention to friends in terms of their physical appearance and mood and actively speaking to friends.

2.2.1 Speak to adults.

Students spoke about how adults were a source of support. One student described a "trusted adult" [R1Active] and another provided examples e.g., "…you can speak to teachers about it, you can go to like police, speak about it" [Destiny]. By students referencing the police as people they could speak to if they witnessed certain behaviours, it suggests they recognised that abusive behaviour could be classed as a criminal offence.

2.2.2 Intervening with friends

One student stated that before going to police, people should speak to their friend first: "…before you just go and tell the police about off your friend cuz like, I feel like, you should speak to them first" [Destiny]. This appeared linked to a discussion around "snitching" which was expressed by more than one student, i.e., a barrier to speaking out was that students were likely to be called a snitch. Another shared they had learned to look for signs of abuse first, before speaking or asking friends if they were experiencing abuse. One student linked this back to the physical appearance of the characters in the performance, e.g., noticing "eye bags" [Ollie], and another expressed they may notice signs of "anxiety" [R1Active]. One student explained that some friends may be less forthcoming to ask for help which is why looking for signs first was important [Destiny].

Theme 3: Student Feedback

Within this theme, students provided suggestions for the programme which focused on the content in the scenarios, group size and the target audience. This theme also includes more generic comments pointing towards what was good about the programme overall, e.g., the impact on behaviour and increasing knowledge of healthy relationships.

3.1 Suggestions

Students expressed the content could be added to, in terms of knowing more about the background story of the characters. This could have changed the audience's perspective and perhaps reduce the 'unexpected' element of the abuse: "…if they showed how they met, and how they actually got to know each other, she might have, there could have been times where you could have realised what he was like" [Jimmy]. Another student expressed "I feel like, they should have like, said and done less…it went a bit too far" [Destiny] which was again linked to the unexpected nature of the abuse and emotional reactions this elicited (theme 1). This same student expressed that whilst the programme taught a good lesson, it would be better suited to an older audience, as "most" of the current audience were

unprepared and lacked maturity: "I thought that it taught us like a lot but not everyone was like ready to be taught like that…most of us wasn't mature" [Destiny] as well as, issues linked to relatability (theme 1): "…like, year elevens and tens, they're not far from actually being adults…, if it happens to them, it will come across sooner than it would to us" [Jimmy]. It is of note that the comments from these two students regarding the programme not being age appropriate, are perhaps not in line with the comments reported in Themes 1 and 2 (e.g., that learning took place and some students found the scenarios to be relatable).

Finally, more practical suggestions were made such as including more detail in the scenario around help seeking and changing the format from a whole group assembly to watching in smaller groups "…with the people you know" [Lily].

3.2 Good points

One student commented that the school could do more in teaching children about relationships and it could be inferred that the programme helped to 'fill the gap'; "I feel like the school should talk about this more and not just talk about sexual repro-duction" [Destiny]. Similarly, another student commented how the programme had increased their knowledge and subsequent efficacy to intervene: "…wouldn't have got as involved as I probably would have now… because I wouldn't know much about what we learnt in the play" [Jimmy].

In contrast to the above subtheme, one student felt the programme was pitched to the right audience and appeared to link this to a form of early intervention: "…maybe if we teach students this roughly around about secondary school, it might stop and teach them a lot more about it and it might stop people from doing this kind of stuff" [Ollie]. Finally, one student spoke about the scope of the programme in relation to getting help, e.g., as a victim "…if they didn't know, it would be like a little resource or advice for them" as well as, a resource for helping as a friend "…say for like a friend was in that situation, people would know what to do after watching that" [Aaliyah].

Discussion

The current study aimed to explore the views and experiences of young people who attended 'Safe and Sound' which is a Theatre in Education prevention programme on teenage relationship abuse. Three themes and a range of subthemes were generated from the data using Reflexive Thematic Analysis of two focus group transcripts. Themes related to specific features of the performance, what students learnt, and general feedback about the programme. These are discussed below with reference to existing literature.

In relation to the first theme *'The performance'*, students' views about the mode of delivery are in line with research carried out by Bell and Stanley (2006). In this study, students thought the play was "better" than the workshop element, and that they had learnt more from the play which was seemingly linked to being able to see "what's going on". In the current study, the live performance helped students to pick up on non-verbal communication which appeared to be linked to their understanding of the plot and provided more detail. Research posits that non-verbal communication (e.g., facial expressions, hand gestures, body language), can help to reinforce spoken words but also ascribe meaning to spoken word (Bambaeeroo & Shokrpour, 2017). Non-verbal communication is thought to be more effective than verbal, as it can convey attitudes/emotions which help facilitate the interpretation of information (Grillo & Enesi, 2022; Tracy et al., 2015). Similarly, in focus group research by McElwee and Fox (2020), it was highlighted the use of live theatre supported students to visually understand the plot and supported levels of empathy i.e., an awareness of the victim's experience and what it was like to be a bystander.

The nature of the talk back session at the end of the theatre-based interventions is identified as a way for different perspectives to be explored in a safe space (Heard et al., 2017). Whilst in the current study, it was commented that some students in the audience felt able to ask questions, it was the same group of students who asked questions which did not

include the focus group attendees. The reluctance to participate could be that students may have been shy/embarrassed which may reflect the feedback from one participant for the performance to be delivered in smaller classes where students knew each other (Theme 3). There was also a view by one participant that the questions that were asked were obvious, and the purpose may have been "…to get attention". This may be due to the level of maturity of the audience, which was commented on in the focus groups and may link to the feedback regarding delivering the programme to older students (Theme 3). Similarly, in the May et al. (2021) study, there was a shared view that some student's watching the play may not have taken it seriously, linked to inevitable differences in maturity.

The abusive relationship scenario in the current programme was viewed as realistic based on some students linking it back to their own experiences of witnessing/hearing about abusive relationships. However, the feedback regarding relatability indicates that not all students felt the content was wholly relevant for their sociocultural experiences as 12-13 year olds. This is similar to the Goodwin et al. (2019) study where students praised the realism of the bullying scenarios, however, commented that the characters were slightly "stereotypical" and not representative/relatable to their experiences. The current findings are useful given that researchers advocate for the content of prevention education aimed at young people to be compatible with their norms and experiences (Krahé & Knappert, 2009). Furthermore, McElwee and Fox (2020) highlighted that the use of relatable scenarios may have facilitated the idea that the situation could happen in students' real life. In turn, this may improve how well students attended to the information and enhanced learning outcomes.

In terms of enhancing the impact of prevention programmes, research suggests content should be emotionally arousing to the audience as it can support with the learning process in the long term (Heath et al., 2018). In the current study, students described emotional responses to the scenarios which included shock, surprise, feeling awful, and

embarrassment. This was associated with the abuse/violence that was portrayed and was also the parts of the performance which students said had stood out the most. It could be interpreted that the more emotionally salient parts, were the parts that had been encoded into their long term memory as it was approximately 6 weeks between watching the performance and participating in the focus group. For example, research into the mechanisms of learning suggest emotive material can influence the encoding of material, which in turn may increase the likelihood of retention and consolidation (Tyng et al., 2017). Additional research argues that emotional responses are to be expected when engaging with applied theatre as one of the mechanisms is to be able to introduce and discuss upsetting material in a safe space which can facilitate reflection and problem solving (Holmwood, 2014). As such, it may be necessary to invoke strong emotions in young people to ensure they understand the gravity of teenage relationship abuse and are aware of what to do.

The scenarios also evoked thoughts/feelings amongst students in relation to the characters in the performance. One student did not blame the perpetrator as both were drunk but said the victim still could have said no to sex (linking this to a belief that people still having their "senses' when drunk). However, the same student also appeared to express empathy for the victim by saying the audience shouldn't blame the victim for continuing the relationship. This is interesting to note as the former comments could imply victim-blaming but also may point to the need for more education around the nuances of sexual consent and the effects of alcohol. However, results from Theme 2 would suggest an awareness of the importance of obtaining sexual consent when under the influence of alcohol. There was also discord in the May et al. (2021) study where students both felt sympathy for the victim of sexual abuse but also partially blamed her for not picking up on warning signs. The dividing views in the current study may reflect wider societal norms around rape myth acceptance.For

example, research reports that the presence of alcohol in a sexual assault can influence victim-blaming and whether the assault is perceived as 'real' (Grub & Turner, 2012).

In relation to the second theme, *'Learning Points,* the key messages that students took with them were related to an awareness that people can change in a relationship, how to spot the signs of abuse, as well as the importance of gaining sexual consent. This suggests the programme was successful in improving knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour. This supports existing studies exploring the effectiveness of prevention programmes in educating young people about violence in relationships using theatre-based components (Heard et al., 2017; Bell & Stanley, 2006). The take home point that 'people can change' is consistent with focus group research by McElwee and Fox (2020) who explored students views of a theatre-based intervention centred around teenage relationship abuse. One student shared a view that "…people can change and turn into a bad person…" (pg. 1036), which was linked with concerns around not being able to trust partners and feeling fearful about future relationships. Similarly, in the current study, the acknowledgment that partners could change appeared to be a warning sign around preparedness and remaining wary of partners, which could link to feelings of trust.

Students also shared their beliefs about young relationships in general which could have been prompted by watching the relationship unfold in the performance. Students thought that younger relationships would not last, and it seemed they thought it was inevitable they would come to an end. Carver et al. (2003) reported the duration of teenage relationships tended to increase with age. For those 16 years and older, the average duration was around 21 months, in comparison to 12-13 year olds, where the duration was around 5 months. Authors reported increased intimacy and commitment appeared to be contributors to relationship duration. Similarly, in a recent 10 year longitudinal study of adolescent females aged 14-17 years, Hensel and O'Sulliban, (2022) found the average duration of relationships

to be 5.9 months, with 60.8% ending within the first three months. Prior relationship experience and being older predicted longer duration of current relationship. Researchers discussed the association between increasing age and acquiring more skills to navigate relationships successfully. Nevertheless, longevity is not always a positive indicator, as within the study, it was reported females who had experienced their partner's threatening to leave if they did not engage in sex, stayed longer. This could be linked to fear within the context of an escalating abusive relationship (Hensel & O'Sulliban, 2022).

It is also worth considering where students may have developed these beliefs about relationship from. Cui et al. (2016) refers to the 'Life Course Perspective' (Elder & Geile, 2009) which suggests an individual's life trajectory is influenced by their parenting experience, e.g., how children view romantic relationships may be linked to how they experienced their parent's romantic relationships. Similarly, the Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) states that learning takes places via observing, and modelling the behaviour, emotions, and attitudes of those around us. In the current study, it is interesting to note that the two students who shared the views about relationships not lasting, were also those who had experienced mothers in abusive relationships (either witnessing or being told about it). As such, it is plausible that they may been influenced/learnt from their parent's negative experiences, which has resulted in the development of their own framework as to what to expect (or not to expect) in a relationship. In further support, an earlier study by Cui et al. (2008) reported that adolescents who witnessed frequent conflict between their parents, held more negative beliefs around their own ability to solve conflict in relationships, as they got older.

Students said they had learnt about help seeking in the form of approaching teachers and the police. This was a similar finding in the Bell and Stanley (2006) study, where there was some focus on accessing help from those in a position of power (e.g., Childline, school

board), who could perhaps solve the situation. Interestingly in the current study, less emphasis was placed on seeking help from parents, as opposed to the students in the Bell and Stanley (2006) study, where there was an increase (post-programme) in students saying they would confide in their parents, families. Similarly, in a study by Belknap et al. (2013), students identified they would seek help for dating violence from friends and relatives and no students identified the police. This could be due to existing views held in the current study that some parents are not as open, and students may find it difficult to approach their parents.

Furthermore, one student in the current study referred to "trusted" adults, which indicates young people's perceptions of adults, may affect their help seeking behaviour. Bundock et al. (2020) carried out a review of help seeking behaviour for adolescents dating violence. Lack of trust in professionals and concerns around confidentiality were identified as barriers to actual help seeking as well as, intentions to seek help. Concerns related to confidentiality were also expressed in Bell and Stanley (2006), e.g., worries about teachers talking amongst themselves and other children overhearing their conversations, which could be a barrier to speaking up.

With regards to intervening with friends, some students in the current study shared that the programme had taught them to look for signs first, before asking friends if they needed help or approaching an adult. This in keeps with The Model of Bystander Behaviour (Latané & Darley, 1970) which outlines the process for which bystanders are more likely to intervene. Firstly, individuals must take note of what is happening, i.e., be able to recognise the risk. Thus, being knowledgeable of warning signs (physical, mood), may help individuals to evaluate distress and decide whether to act.

Despite some increased intentions to intervene, students also raised concerns about being called a "snitch" if they did speak up. This resonates with Latané and Darley (1970), who highlight the concern for one's own reputation can impede prosocial bystander

behaviour. Similarly, in a UK study exploring bystander behaviour in situations of bullying, 28% of young people stated they did not want to be perceived as "the snitch" which impacted their decision not to intervene (Bauman et al., 2020). In addition, qualitative research also highlights student's concern for being labelled a "snitch" by intervening in violent situations. They described being viewed as disloyal and untrustworthy by peers which could risk social exclusion from their peer group (Casey et al., 2017).

Regarding the third and final theme, '*Student Feedback',* some suggestions were offered by a minority of participants, e.g., the programme should be delivered to an older audience and that some students felt they perhaps weren't "ready". Timing was also discussed in Bell and Stanley's study (2006), where the prevention programme was delivered to year eight students, which was the same age as students in the current study. The rationale for delivery was to provide students the opportunity to intervene *before* they started to become involved with dating/relationships as a form of early intervention, so they were aware of the risks and could act accordingly (Bell & Stanley, 2006). Whilst it appears current students acknowledged a similar aim when describing what was good about the programme, i.e., knowing what to do in the situation and reports of what they had learnt, this perhaps did not deny the fact some students thought that some of their peers were immature and perhaps could not relate. In contrast, in a study evaluating a child sexual exploitation prevention programme to 14-15 year olds, students recommended delivery to younger children to increase their preparedness and be aware of signs (May et al., 2021). In relation to timing, it became statutory in September 2020 for children in key stage 3 and 4 in UK secondary schools to receive Relationships and Sex Education based on campaigning efforts to keep children safe and informed (DfE, 2021). This suggests the target audience for the current prevention programme was suitable. Students may report that they are too immature for the

material, but this view may not lessen the effectiveness of the programme; further research would need to be conducted to explore this.

Some students' reservations appeared to link to relatability (i.e., lack of experience with dating and therefore dating violence). This does appear in line with data which reports the prevalence of dating violence occurs at lower rates for 13 year olds, in comparison to older teens (Wolitzy-Taylor et al., 2008). However, this age group continue to be included in prevalence studies which indicates the risk remains for younger adolescents (Tomaszewska & Schuster, 2021), and as noted above, students may benefit from programmes such as this prior to entering relationships rather than waiting until they have started dating.

Positively, one student identified the programme could be a resource for students with less knowledge. This could link to both knowledge around intervening but also around dating. It is worth noting that this student was part of a religion where dating is prohibited which seemed to impact relatability at that current time. However, the programme could have the potential to be a resource to prepare certain groups for permissible, romantic relationships in the future.

Methodological Strengths and Limitations

In terms of strengths, the use of focus groups facilitated varied discussions between young people. It appears the presence of their peers was helpful in remembering information from the programme, and enabled participants to elaborate on each other's points. Conversely, the focus group format could have influenced the narrative of some students, e.g., socially desirable responses, agreement with more dominant members of the group (Adler et al., 2019). However, the results indicate some students posed alternative views at times and some students also felt able to draw on individual experience to support their narratives and provide context to their responses.

The current study was successful in recruiting from only one school despite several attempts to recruit from other schools. Workload of teachers was felt to be particularly high potentially as a result of the timing being close to the re-opening of schools' post COVID-19 and, after this, as a result of multiple school strikes. As such, the current findings are only representative of a small cohort of young people. Nevertheless, the current data could be a starting point, in which future research could build upon.

Implications for Practice

It is anticipated that the current findings regarding the views and experience of students of the prevention programmes will be helpful for the Theatre in Education company who delivered the prevention programme and for others who provide support/intervention for young people on the topic of dating violence and healthy relationships. Findings further support and add to the organisation's previous internal evaluation of the programme and strengthens/replicates the positive evaluation of the programme in increasing students' knowledge of early warning signs and an increased awareness of avenues of support. More specifically, it is of use for those in the field to consider:

- The TiE approach was deemed to be engaging, realistic and interactive. It was also evident that it evoked emotion which may have made it more memorable.
- Although some participants felt the scenarios to be relatable, dating/relationship experiences will differ (i.e., in accordance with culture and/or religion); such differences should be considered in the development and delivery of programmes.
- The consensus from participants was that the violence was unexpected so perhaps consideration could be given as to how to prepare students for what they are about to watch. However, the element of surprise/emotional intensity may be instrumental in gaining impact.

- The findings would suggest there is a benefit to delivering the programme before students enter dating situations as there was a positive impact on knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours. However, some feedback suggested that it may be better suited for older students. This suggests that the programme could be delivered again in years 10-11 for consolidation and/or to again address the issue at a time when the scenarios are relatable to a greater number of students.
- The findings are useful for schools/education providers in understanding that students can benefit from Theatre in Education to support the delivery of the RSE curriculum more broadly. The use of well-acted, realistic scenarios could apply to other topics in order to help in the education and development of young people.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research could replicate this research by trying to recruit more schools who received the Safe and Sound programme to see whether similar themes are generated. Future research could also employ a more diverse sample of young people (e.g., sexual and gender diverse groups), to see whether their views/experiences are similar to the current sample. The prevention programme follows a heteronormative couple as their relationship develops. In terms of relatability, the current study did not ask whether the content was relatable to young people of all sexual orientations, nor was sexual orientation information collected in the demographic form. It would therefore be beneficial for future research to include these questions as it would be useful to know whether there are some groups, for whom the programme may not relate to or be relevant for. This could impact engagement and attention, but also result in gaps in young people's knowledge and awareness in situations they may encounter. Follow up research is also recommended with the current participants, to see whether the positive evaluation remains after a longer period.

Conclusions

The study has explored the views and experience of students who received a prevention programme on abuse in teenage relationships delivered using Theatre in Education. Findings suggest this mode of delivery supports engagement and connection with the audience. The specific scenarios portrayed in the programme appear to reflect what takes place in real life, but perhaps are not relatable for all young people of the current age group. Students experienced emotional responses from watching the performance which may have supported with retention of material, however, may also have led students to believe they were not ready to receive the programme. Students further reported learning about abusive relationships but also supported reflections on younger relationships in general. Feedback was overall positive, and the programme appears to have achieved the intended aims.

In sum, findings provide insight into the way students engaged with the programme which can be taken forward by the Theatre in Education company for future delivery. It may also provide some reassurance to schools who are booking these performances in knowing students provided positive feedback and are meeting the objectives which align with the PHSE curriculum.

Chapter Four

CRITIQUE OF THE DATING VIOLENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction

According to the Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, 'Dating Violence' can be defined as physical, sexual, and psychological abuse as well as stalking behaviours which can take place between couples in a dating relationship (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 2022). Cyber dating abuse is further considered within the definition, as there is an increasing prevalence of couples using technology to facilitate coercive control behaviour (Stonard, 2018; Zweig et al., 2013). Teen Dating Violence (TDV) also known as Adolescent Dating Violence (ADV) is said to occur amongst adolescents between the ages of 12-18 years (Taquette & Monteiro, 2019; Wincentak et al., 2017). Some UK researchers, adopt the term Intimate Partner Violence and Abuse which has been applied to adolescents and young adults up to the age of 21 (Herbert et al. 2021). Further, Jennings et al. (2017) combined dating and intimate partner violence to ascertain prevalence rates amongst 15-30 olds.

Prevalence data reports higher victimisation rates of psychological violence, sexual violence and cyber dating violence reported amongst UK females aged 10-20, in comparison to other European countries (Tomaszewska & Schuster, 2021). There are also data to suggest UK females (aged 13-18) perpetrate higher rates of physical violence in comparison to their male counterparts (Wincentak et al., 2017). Similarly, UK males (aged 16-19) reported slightly higher victimisation rates of any form of violence within a dating relationship compared to females in the same sample (Young et al., 2018). Psychological violence is associated with greater variability across males and females with regards to victimisation and perpetration and is reported to be the most common form of violence (Wincentak et al., 2017; Young et al., 2018). In addition, approximately one fifth of a sample of teenage males and females reported being a victim of physical violence within a dating relationship (Stonard et

al., 2014). These data would suggest that violence appears to be both gender-neutral and bi-directional, i.e., adolescents can be both perpetrators and victims at the same time, within the context of heteronormative relationships. However, dating violence is not isolated to heteronormative relationships. Research has also focused on exploring the experiences of sexual and gender minority groups and report a higher prevalence amongst these groups (Martin-Storey & Fromme, 2016; Martin-Storey et al., 2021).

Dating violence can have a serious and harmful impact on young people across multiple domains of functioning, e.g., mental health, educational attainment, physical health (Barter & Stanley, 2016; Taquette & Monteiro, 2019). It is also considered that adolescent relationships may provide a template for future relationships. Research by Exner-Cortens and colleagues (2013; 2017) report higher odds of teenage victimisation in a dating relationship and later being a victim of adult IPV, in comparison to their non-victimized samples.

To address and intervene in risk behaviour, researchers employ assessment tools to gather information about prevalence, explore underlying attitudes and beliefs, and identify risk factors (Wakeling & Barnett, 2014). In a review by Smith et al. (2015), there are three behavioural tools which are most used to measure adolescent dating violence: 1) the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale- 2 (CTS-2; Straus et al., 1996) which was originally developed and validated with adults and asks both partners about type and frequency of strategies (physical, psychological, and sexual) used to resolve conflict within their intimate relationship; 2) The Safe Dates Scale (Foshee et al., 1996) which asks about psychological and physical abuse experienced in dating relationships related to both victimisation and perpetration; 3) The Conflict in Adolescent Dating Inventory (CADRI; Wolfe et al., 2001) which is a questionnaire developed and validated with a teen sample and asks about abuse experiences (victimisation and perpetration) during an argument with a dating partner.

In deciding on a psychometric to critique, the Safe Dates Scale was not considered as it is limited in its measure of sexual violence as it only includes two items which are categorised within the physical violence scale (Smith et al.,2015). The CTS-2 and CADRI have been critiqued thoroughly in recent years (Jones et al., 2017; Stroever, 2019) and therefore, would not be appropriate to discuss further here. As such, another measure was selected from a wider scope of the literature, as Smith et al. (2015) focused their search on the US and Canada. The chosen measure to critique in this chapter of the thesis is the Dating Violence Questionnaire (DVQ) or Cuestionario de Violencia entre Novios (CUVINO) as it is known in its native language of Spanish (Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2007; 2010). The DVQ measures physical, sexual, and psychological forms of dating violence and was developed and validated with an adolescent sample.

The DVQ has been successfully translated and validated with a population for whom English is their native language (López-Cepero et al., 2016). This may increase the likelihood of the measure being appropriate to use in UK research, however, it is important to fully evaluate its psychometric properties. It is important to note that the chosen questionnaire is also included within a recent review of validated instruments used to assess adolescent dating violence (Tarriño-Concejero et al., 2022). However, this review does not include *all* research up to the current date. As such, the present critique aims to add to the existing knowledge base.

Overview of the Questionnaire

The DVQ measures victimisation within dating relationships between young people. The authors state it is applicable to all ages, however, was originally developed using data collected from adolescents. It comprises of 42 items across 8 scales which are labelled: *detachment, humiliation, coercion, emotional punishment, gender-based, sexual, physical,* and *instrumental violence.* Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale and two instructions are

asked. Respondents are asked to rate how often they experienced the behaviour from their partner, ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (continuously) and the level of discomfort they felt as a result, ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (a lot) (Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2007; 2010).

The DVQ has also been adapted into shortened versions to be used as screening tools. The DVQ-R (Rodriguez-Diaz et al., 2017) is a 20 item reduced version across 5 scales associated with victimisation: *Humiliation, Sexual, Physical, Detachment,* and *Coercion.* Respondents are asked to rate their frequency of experience ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (all of the time). The DVQ-VP (Rodriguez-Franco et al.,2022) is a further adaptation of the DVQ-R and measures the bi-directional nature of dating violence. As such, it comprises of 20-items across the five scales but asks about both victimisation and perpetration experiences. In addition, Cherrez-Santos et al. (2022) adapted the Likert response scale on the DVQ-R to 'zero or once', 'twice', 'three times', 'four or more times', to address possible validity issues related to the original response scales proposed by Rodríguez-Díaz et al. (2017). Finally, the DVQ-8 (López-Cepero et al., 2019) comprises of 8 items; one item to represent each one of the 8 original scales. Respondents are asked about the frequency of their victimisation experience on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (nearly always). This was developed to be used in educational settings.

Development of the DVQ

It was not possible to access a translated copy of the original paper (Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2007), so little comment can be made regarding the development of the DVQ. However, reference is made to the study in subsequent papers (Presaghi et al., 2015; Rodríguez-Franco et al., 2010). As mentioned in Presaghi et al. (2015), the initial sample were 709 adolescents, both male and female who provided data for an exploratory study and an original 8-factor solution was found; however, it is unclear how researchers went about labelling the factors. The factor structure was then confirmed by Rodríguez-Franco et al.

(2010) in their study of over 5000 students in three Spanish speaking countries. Researchers assigned labels to the scales as outlined above: *1) Detachment, 2) Humiliation, 3) Sexual, 4) Coercion, 5) Physical, 6) Gender, 7) Punishment, and 8) Instrumental.* However, there is little detail regarding why/how they chose these labels or whether they were taken from the original study. In addition, research by Cortez-Ayala et al. (2015) confirmed the presence of all eight domains of abuse across their sample of pre-undergraduate (mean age 15 years) and undergraduate students (mean age 20 years).

In Presaghi et al. (2015), the 'gender-based' scale is not included in the factor model but there is a scale labelled 'derision' which refers to behaviour towards men and women. Therefore, it could be hypothesised, it is an alternative label for a similar concept or could be explained by the translation process. The adapted versions were developed from the original DVQ with some amendments. In the development of the initial DVQ-R, 'emotional punishment' and 'instrumental scales' were removed due to potential item overlap with other scales and the 'gender-based' scale was removed based on items not being directed at the couple. Finally, some items were removed as they potentially overlapped other items on the same individual scale (Rodríguez et al., 2017).

In sum, the development of the DVQ can be considered sufficient if we collate the original paper (Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2007) and the Rodríguez-Franco et al. (2010) validation study, as the latter provides more detail. The combined samples of both studies total 6000 young people and were also representative of multiple Spanish-speaking countries. However, it would be beneficial to know how the questions/items were generated in the first instance by the authors. Since the development of the DVQ, subsequent studies have explored the reliability and validity of the measure. This research will be outlined below. Conclusions will then be drawn as to the utility of the measure and recommendations regarding future research will be made.

Reliability

Internal reliability

For an instrument to be considered reliable, researchers measure the degree of consistency between items to see whether they measure the same construct. This is commonly derived by calculating Cronbach's alpha which is a correlational analysis (Cronbach, 1951). A coefficient of .70 or higher is considered the cut off value for internal reliability to be acceptable (Cortina, 1993).

As mentioned, the original research paper could not be accessed (Rodríguez-Franco et al., 2007), however researchers also reference Rodríguez et al. (2010) as the original paper. In the latter paper, reliability was high for the whole scale with a total Cronbach's alpha of α = 0.93. On individual scales, internal reliability was found to be acceptable for 6/8 scales, however *emotional punishment* and *instrumental* scales did not reach the accepted cut off, with values of α = 0.68 and 0.59 respectively. Similarly, Presaghi et al. (2015) reported the *instrumental* and *emotional punishment* scales as having the lowest Cronbach's alpha values (α= .58 and α= .68 respectively), closely followed by *coercion* and *derision* with alpha values of .69. The remaining scales obtained alpha values ranging from .72 and .84 which indicated acceptable internal consistency. However, in the American validation study (López-Cepero et al., 2016), internal reliability was found to be acceptable across all individual scales and higher for the total scale (α = 0.96) in comparison to the original Spanish study (α = 0.93).

In a Peruvian validation study (Velarde & Manzanares-Medina, 2021), researchers opted to use the Omega coefficient which has a similar cut off value of .70 and above to be considered acceptable (Viladrich et al., 2017). All 8 scales achieved adequate internal consistency with Omega values ranging from .84 and .91. Researchers did not provide

reasoning for why they chose to use Omega values; however, it is argued this coefficient is better to use when working with ordinal data (Zinbarg et al., 2005).

Similarly, Lara and López-Cepero (2021) employed the use of Omega coefficients in addition to Ordinal Alpha, with the latter also referred to as more accurate to use with ordinal data in comparison to Cronbach's (Gadermann et al., 2012). Lara and López-Cepero (2021) added four additional items to see whether they could improve the internal structure of the *emotional punishment* and *instrumental* scales as they had obtained Cronbach's coefficients of less than .70 in the Rodríguez-Franco et al. (2010) study. When adding the items, internal reliability improved, and Cronbach's alpha values reached .72 (emotional punishment) and .73 (instrumental) respectively. Additionally, internal reliability was more than acceptable with Ordinal alpha values ranging from .80 and .94 and Omega values ranging from .81 and .94 across the original 42 items and further improved when including the four additional items. This suggests not all subscales in the original questionnaire have acceptable reliability and it may be better to use the scale with the additional items (Lara & López-Cepero, 2021) to ensure internal reliability is acceptable.

In the original DVQ-R validation study, acceptable internal reliability was obtained across the whole instrument with a Cronbach's alpha value of .85. However, taken independently, 3/5 scales reached acceptability except for the *coercion* scale which obtained an alpha value of .64 and the *detachment* scale ($\alpha = 0.68$) (Rodríguez et al., 2017). However, in the Bolivian validation study of the DVQ-R (Alfaro Urquiola, 2020), internal reliability was found to be high across all scales with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from .73 (coercion) and .90 (physical). Similarly, in the recent validation study with Ecuadorian women (Cherrez-Santos, et al.,2022), reliability was measured using ordinal Omega values and found to be acceptable across all five scales with values ranging from .79 (detachment) and .94 (physical).

Internal reliability was also found to be high for the DVQ-VP which was measured using Omega coefficients. Values ranged from .80 (coercion) and .92 (sexual) on the perpetration factors and .81 (coercion) and .91(sexual) on the victimisation factors (Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2022). Finally, the DVQ-8 utilised EAP alpha value to measure the internal reliability and obtained a highly acceptable value of .93 (López-Cepero et al. 2019).

Overall, internal reliability is measured as acceptable/high in most validation studies related to the adapted versions of the DVQ. This suggests these tools are appropriate to use in practice. However, it may be beneficial to further investigate the internal reliability of the subscale's *emotional punishment* and *instrumental*.

Test-retest reliability

Test-retest reliability refers to the extent to which scores on the same measure remain stable when administered across different time points (Aldridge et al., 2017). Only one study conducted test-retest reliability and reported high Cronbach's alpha values for all scales except for Emotional Punishment (α= 0.52). The remaining 7/8 scales all obtained alpha values greater than .70 cut off (Presaghi et al.,2015).

Validity

Content Validity

Content validity refers to how well the content of the measure represents the theoretical construct (Kline, 2000). From the items and scales, the DVQ attempts to encompass the 'traditional' triad of abuse included in teen dating violence (physical, psychological, and sexual) (Franco et al., 2009; Werkele & Wolfe, 1999); however, it has been proposed that 7/8 scales on the DVQ may constitute psychological violence, so may not capture the construct of dating violence in its entirety (Rodríguez-Franco et al., 2010). Nevertheless, this may reflect the evidence base which finds that psychological abuse appears

to be the most common form of abuse in dating relationships (Cortés-Ayala et al., 2015; Rodríguez-Franco et al., 2010). However, according to recent definitions, researchers also identify cyber dating violence and stalking behaviour within the wider construct (CDC 2022, Zweig et al., 2013): something which is missing from the DVQ.

Concurrent Validity

Concurrent validity refers to whether a new test correlates with other, existing tests of a theoretically similar nature when administered at the same time, to see if they produce similar results (Lin & Yao, 2014). Lara and López-Cepero (2021) found support for concurrent validity in their study of the DVQ with a Chilean sample. Positive correlations were noted between scores on the DVQ and scores of fear (ranging from r= .31 to .40, $p < .01$), perception of abuse (ranging from r= .29 to .50, $p < .01$) and ratings of attachment-related anxiety (ranging from r=.16 to .30, $p < .01$). Relationship quality was negatively correlated with DVQ scores as expected (r= - .10, $p <.05$ between humiliation and relationship quality and ranging from r= -.12 and .- 27, $p < .01$ between the remaining scales). This indicates that participants with higher victimisation scores on the DVQ also rated poorer relationship quality which is to be expected.

In relation to the DVQ-8, concurrent validity was observed with higher scorers on the DVQ-8 more likely to label themselves as mistreated. Correlations were significant at the $p < .01$ and $p < .001$ level, associate with moderate to large effect sizes (López-Cepero et al.,2019). As expected, this suggests increased dating violence victimisation was associated with a negative appraisal of relationship experience.

In sum, good concurrent validity has been evidenced above, however additional research is recommended to explore this type of validity in greater depth.

Convergent validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which the test correlates with existing measures that should be theoretically related (Krabbe, 2017). When convergence is supported, items should be positively correlated. To measure convergence, Presaghi et al. (2015) administered The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised Short Form (EPQR-S; Eysenck et al., 1985) to measure respondents across Extraversion, Neuroticism, and Psychoticism traits which are posited as increasing vulnerability to criminal/antisocial behaviour. For example, an earlier UK study of adolescents reported delinquency (associated with antisocial behaviour) was mostly correlated with psychoticism traits (Furnham, 1984). Later studies have shown higher extraversion is linked to violence amongst young adults compared to their non-violent counterparts (Jones et al., 2020). In addition, high levels of extraversion and neuroticism have been identified as risk factors for perpetration and victimisation of intimate partner violence (Ulloa et al., 2016). In Presaghi et al. (2015). Spearman correlations indicated sexual violence, coercion, physical violence, and humiliation on the DVQ positively correlated with Psychotism, whereas sexual violence and detachment correlated positively with Neuroticism. Extraversion was not significantly correlated to any of the DVQ scales. These findings suggest some evidence of convergent validity for the measure, as antisociality has further been suggested as a predictor for dating violence (Piolanti & Foran, 2022a).

Evidence of convergent validity was also obtained in Velarde and Manzanares-Medina's study (2021) which reported significant positive correlations (ranging from .33 and .61, $p < .01$) between the DVQ subscales and all dimensions on the Violence Against Women Scale (VcM; Vara-Horna & López-Odar, 2016) which measures victimisation by a current or ex-partner. Of note, the psychological violence, mild physical, sexual and harm scales of the VcM obtained the strongest relationship with the proposed factor structure of the DVQ. This suggests that the items on the DVQ are theoretically related to other measures of

victimisation and there is support for a psychological, physical, and sexual component to dating violence, as measured by the DVQ.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to how well a test measures what it intends to measure (Kline, 1998). In the validation study by Rodríguez et al. (2010), researchers carried out a factor analysis to explore the structure of the questionnaire. This obtained an 8-factor solution which explained 51.3% the total variance. Whilst this was noted as acceptable, it also suggests an almost equal percentage of variance was unaccounted for and may indicate that the questionnaire does not adequately measure the underlying construct it intended to measure. Subsequent studies have not reported variance, however, have carried out confirmatory analyses to see whether the 8 factor structure is replicated. In López-Cepero et al.'s study (2016), they confirmed the structure of the eight factor model as it had the closest measure of fit in comparison to alternative, one and three factor models. Similarly, Presaghi et al. (2015) also ran comparable confirmatory factor analyses between the original eight factor model and a proposed three factor model and a second-order factor model. They concluded the closest fit was the eight factor model which confirmed previous findings. After modifications in the study by Velarde and Manzanares-Medina (2021), goodness of fit was eventually obtained, and confirmed the original 8-factor structure. Some indices did not meet the expected values in the chi-squared analysis and had to be modified by examining problematic items. Lara and López-Cepero (2021) also carried out a confirmatory factor analysis which showed goodness of fit with the original eight factor structure but also with a second-order factor model. However, on closer inspection of the indices, the closest fit of the model was to the original 42 item DVQ across eight factors.

Cherrez-Santos et al. (2022) performed a confirmatory factor analysis in their validation of the DVQ-R which confirmed the original 5 factor structure. There were no

cross-loadings on factors and correlations between factors were positive and statistically significant. Additionally, Alfaro Urquiola, (2020) employed the use of an exploratory factor analysis and similarly reported goodness of fit with the original five factor model of the DVQ - R. However, all indices were not acceptable following further analysis and adjustments had to be made to improve goodness of fit.

Together, this suggests the DVQ, has promising construct validity based on multiple validation studies which have replicated the structure of the questionnaire. However, it would be useful to know what the variance explained values are for the models, to see how well the construct is measured and whether they explain more/less of the variance compared to the original study.

Predictive Validity

Predictive validity refers to how well a measure can predict a future outcome or behaviour (Lin & Yao, 2014). In Presaghi et al. (2015), a regression analysis was carried out to explore whether the 8 DVQ factors and personality factors could predict violent partner reaction to the break-up of the relationship (BRS). They found that personality factors alone (Psychopathy, Neuroticism, and Extraversion) did not predict BRS, however, when entering the 8 DVQ factors into the model, Coercion and Humiliation explained approximately 12.5% of the variance in BRS. This suggests that parts of the DVQ can be seen to be predictive of violent behaviour reactions which may be useful in intervention planning.

In relation to the DVQ-8, researchers carried out a Receiver Operating Curve analysis and were able to correctly classify almost 80% of cases into low or high victimisation by identifying a cut off score of 10.5. This indicates the DVQ-8 can be used to screen for risk which could be a tool for early intervention and to signpost adolescents to the right amount of support (López-Cepero et al., 2019).

External Validity

External validity refers to how well a measure can be generalized and applied to the broader context, e.g., locations, populations (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011). The DVQ and all derivatives have been successfully validated across many Western European Countries and in America. Careful attention was paid to translations, e.g., translation to English and back translated to the original language as well as the employment of independent reviewers (López-Cepero et al., 2016; Presgahi et al., 2015). Some items in the Chilean adaptation of the DVQ were reworded to aid comprehension, with the guidance of the original author to ensure accuracy (Lara & López-Cepero, 2021). Similarly, items on the DVQ-R were reworded to fit with the cultural context in Bolivia (Alfaro Urquiola, 2020). However, the mean age of samples in all studies were age 18 or over. This suggests it is unclear whether the measure is reliable and valid to use with an adolescent population (for which the DVQ is intended).

Conclusion

The original DVQ scale has acceptable, overall reliability. However, when considered at a scale-level, some subscales have a slightly compromised internal structure. Research has shown that when more items were added to these scales in a translated version, this improved the internal structure. Similarly, the revised versions appear to have acceptable reliability across their whole scales. It appears that adding some items and removing/reducing items appears to improve the reliability which suggests that the original 42 item scale may not accurately represent the whole construct of dating violence.

Furthermore, it is also important to consider *how* reliability is measured in relation to the DVQ. The evidence base would suggest that certain reliability coefficients, e.g., Ordinal Alpha and McDonald's, are more accurate, given their increased sensitivity to ordinal data which is what the DVQ measures. In relation to Cronbach's Alpha, it is argued that cut off

scores are variable across research and a low alpha value does not necessarily indicate questionable reliability (Taber, 2017).

In relation to validity, the DVQ appears to measure the 'typical' tripartite structure of dating violence (physical, psychological, and sexual) when examining the scales and the items. However, researchers have argued the questionnaire may over-represent the psychological facet. The DVQ is concurrent with existing measures of attitudes and behaviour, i.e., relationships were observed in the directions expected. Researchers have also found constructs related to dating violence are correlated, e.g., with specific personality traits and other scales related to violence. Factor analyses confirms the presence of a clearly identified structure in the original DVQ and subsequent adaptations, however, more detail regarding the explained variance is recommended. Predictive validity was confirmed in one study which could have implications for practice, as well as the DVQ-8 identified as a potential screening tool to classify risk level. Furthermore, the DVQ and adaptations can be applied cross-culturally with some language considerations. However, caution must be taken when generalising results across ages, as most research employed adult samples.

In conclusion, examination of the DVQ and subsequent variations suggests it could be a meaningful addition to UK research. However, researchers/practitioners should be aware of the limitations regarding reliability and validity. It is recommended to explore the psychometric properties further with a UK population. Furthermore, it is recommended to access the original article in English translation (Rodríguez-Franco et al., 2007) to increase understanding around the development of the questionnaire and its initial psychometric evaluations.

Chapter Five

DISCUSSION

This thesis aimed to add to the evidence base around prevention programmes which aim to educate young people about healthy and unhealthy relationships in education settings. More specifically, as outlined in Chapter 1, the aims were to: gain an understanding of the effectiveness of online dating and sexual violence prevention programmes which are delivered to adolescents and young people; gain an understanding of young people's views and experiences of a Theatre in Education prevention programme focused on teenage relationship abuse; and to present a critique of a questionnaire which can be used to measure dating violence victimisation in adolescents. These aims were achieved by conducting a systematic literature review to explore the effectiveness of online prevention programmes focused on dating and sexual violence (Chapter 2), conducting focus groups with students to explore their views and experiences of a Theatre in Education prevention programme increasing awareness of relationship abuse (Chapter 3), and critiquing the Dating Violence Questionnaire (Rodriquez et al., 2007; 2010) (Chapter 4).

A summary of findings for each chapter is presented below. Following this, implications for practice are considered, along with main strengths and limitations of the thesis, and recommendations for future research are made.

Summary of Findings

Chapter 2

The systematic review adopted a narrative approach to explore what is available in terms of online dating and sexual violence prevention programmes delivered to adolescents and young people; whether they are effective; and what young people think about the online mode of delivery. Fifteen studies were included in the review; of which eleven were quantitative (Burns et al., 2019; Draucker et al., 2019; Jouriles et al., 2016a; Jouriles et al., 2016b; Kleinsasser et al., 2015; Levesque et al., 2016; Salazar et al., 2014; Sargent et al., 2017; Thompson et al., 2021; Yount et al., 2023; Zapp et al., 2018) and the remaining four

were mixed-methods studies (Draper, 2017; Heard et al., 2023; Levesque et al., 2017; O'Brien et al., 2021). In total, ten different online programmes were evaluated across the fifteen studies, three were focused on dating violence and the remaining seven were focused on sexual violence.

Online components included: watching video vignettes; clicking through a computerised programme inputting responses and receiving feedback; watching pre-recorded, narrated presentations; completing interactive modules with activities; reading information via an online platform; and finally, completing quizzes/knowledge tests after being presented with information.

The dating violence programmes were considered effective in reducing the likelihood of victimisation and perpetration, as well as increasing knowledge of signs of dating violence and behavioural intentions and efficacy in intervening. The studies evaluating sexual violence programmes found increased bystander behaviour and efficacy to intervene, lower sexual violence perpetration, lower endorsement of rape myths, and greater knowledge of gaining sexual consent.

Furthermore, despite the limited qualitative data regarding what students thought about the mode of delivery, the feedback was promising. In relation to the scenarios, despite not being delivered face to face, there was praise for their realistic nature, the positive inclusion of a sexually diverse cast in the videos, and the inclusion of nuanced behaviours related to sexual consent. In terms of the practicalities of engaging with programmes online, feedback was promising, in that students felt the method was useful, and the online format was described as allowing privacy in learning and allowed students to learn at their own pace.

Chapter 3

The empirical project utilised focus groups to gain insight into the views and experiences of year 8 students who had received a Theatre in Education prevention

programme aimed at increasing awareness of teenage relationship abuse. The focus group transcripts were analysed using Reflexive Thematic Analysis to generate themes and subthemes. The three superordinate themes were: 1) *The performance; 2) Learning Points; 3) Student Feedback.*

The mode of delivery helped students to attend to non-verbal communication (e.g., facial expressions and body language) and understand the plot. This is supported by research which outlines that non-verbal communication can provide additional cues in understanding emotion and subsequent sense-making (Tracy et al., 2015). The scenarios were viewed as realistic in depicting an abusive relationship, however some students queried relatability based on level of maturity and dating experience. In the long term, this could impact student's applying what they learnt or remembering the information as research has suggested effectiveness of programmes can be supported by including content which is compatible with young people's experiences (Krahé & Knappert, 2009). However, there may be benefit in them being exposed to this type of teaching prior to entering relationships. Specific parts of the programme also evoked an emotional response in students which may strengthen the encoding of information and therefore more it more likely they will retain the information (Heath et al., 2018; Tyng et al., 2017).

Students shared they had learnt key messages related to abusive relationships such as being aware that partners can change, being aware of warning signs, and an understanding of sexual consent with reference to the influence of alcohol. This is consistent with the wider quantitative research which highlights the effectiveness of prevention programmes on knowledge and attitudes outcomes in relation to abuse in teenage relationships (Chapter 2), as well as existing qualitative studies exploring violence in intimate relationships (Bell & Stanley, 2006; Heard et al., 2017). Students also stated they had learnt how to get help in abusive relationships by speaking to adults which is in keeping with findings from Bell and

Stanley (2006). Further, improved intentions to intervene were reported, with behaviour consistent with The Model of Bystander Behaviour (Latané & Darley, 1970).

Overall, the findings were promising regarding the impact that the programme had on the young people who took part in the focus groups in terms of expanding their knowledge on the topic of healthy relationships; learning which, it is hoped, would lead to a reduced level of perpetration and/or victimisation in the future.

Chapter 4

The critique explored the psychometric properties of the Dating Violence Questionnaire (DVQ, Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2007; 2010) as well as revised/adapted versions: the DVQ- R (Rodriguez-Diaz et al., 2017) the DVQ-VP (Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2022), and the DVQ- 8 (López-Cepero et al., 2019).

In terms of reliability, the original DVQ was found to have good internal reliability for the whole scale (Rodríguez et al., 2010) which was replicated in the American validation study (López-Cepero et al., 2016), however, the *emotional punishment* and *instrumental* subscales were found to not reach the acceptable cut off value (Presaghi et al., 2015; Rodríguez et al., 2010). The use of Omega coefficients demonstrated adequate internal reliability values (Velarde & Manzanares-Medina, 2021), and when items were added to the questionnaire, increased consistency was achieved across all eight scales (Lara & López-Cepero, 2021). In relation to the DVQ-R, the whole scale is reported to have acceptable internal reliability (Alfaro Urquiola, 2020; Cherrez-Santos et al., 2022; Rodríguez et al., 2017), however, on a subscale level, *coercion* and *detachment* were not acceptable (Rodríguez et al., 2017). Moreover, research reports the DVQ-8 (López-Cepero et al., 2019) and DVQ-VP (Rodriguez-Franco et al., 2022) both obtained high internal reliability.

In relation to validity, the original 8 factor structure was replicated in multiple studies but where the variance explained was reported in the original study, it would indicate the

questionnaire does not perhaps represent the whole dating violence construct (Rodríguez et al., 2010). There was good evidence for concurrent validity with correlations between the DVQ and scores on theoretically similar constructs (e.g., relationship quality) when tools were administered within a short time frame (Lara & López-Cepero, 2021). Convergent validity was supported with the DVQ correlating positively with personality traits linked to antisociality (Presaghi et al., 2015) and with the Violence Against Women Scale (Velarde & Manzanares-Medina, 2021). Finally, the DVQ-R had some predictive validity for violent behaviour reactions in a break-up (Presaghi et al., 2015) and the DVQ-8 was also shown to be effective as a screening tool to categorise low and high victimisation (López-Cepero et al., 2019). Finally external validity is high for the DVQ, and adaptations based on the successful translation (with some rewording) and validation in various countries including Western Europe and America.

Broadly speaking good reliability and validity was found for the DVQ, however, some potential issues with some sub-scales were noted and more research is needed to ascertain whether the measure represents the whole construct of dating violence.

Implications for Practice

These findings may benefit education providers who are responsible for selecting and organising prevention education in schools, as well as the external companies who are involved with delivering prevention education to young people. The findings may further benefit academics who wish to study the field of abuse in teenage relationships, as well as parents/carers of affected young people. The following key implications have been summarised for each chapter:

- The systematic review demonstrates the continued utility of Bystander education in the design of online prevention programmes. Findings also provide evidence for the delivery of short, and reportedly cost effective online prevention programmes to

students in a range of education settings. Universal and Targeted approaches are similarly effective, which suggests schools can choose which programme to provide students based on their resources. Two sexual violence prevention programmes have been evaluated more than once and reported positive outcomes. These could be favoured by UK education providers in their curriculum; however, content and language would need to be adapted to a UK audience.

- The findings from the empirical project support existing quantitative data for this programme which suggests it meets its intended learning aims. It is suggested that UK schools note the benefit of using Theatre in Education companies when considering how to deliver information about relationships in an engaging way within their PHSE lessons. Despite reservations from some participants about the timing of the programme, the positive feedback overall would suggest the programme is fitting for the intended audience of 12 years +. It supports the rationale for delivering prevention education before students get more seriously involved in dating situations. Based on the findings of the study, it is suggested that schools could work closely with those who deliver such programmes to discuss how to address the issue of socio and ethno-cultural relevance.
- The findings from the critique of the DVQ suggest the measure has promising psychometric properties. It has also been translated and validated in a country where English is the native language. This means it can be meaningfully applied to UK research and practice in measuring victimisation of dating violence amongst adolescents. However, it is suggested that those using the measure make themselves aware of its limitations and that, where possible, the measure is used in conjunction with additional means of gathering information.

Recommendations for Future Research

The current thesis identified the utility of online prevention programmes in the short term (Chapter 2). It is therefore recommended for longitudinal evaluations to be carried out to explore the long term effectiveness of online prevention programmes. The review also highlighted that many online programmes that are available have only been evaluated once. It may be beneficial to carry out additional evaluation studies to see whether results are replicated with different sample groups. To further address generalisability, it is recommended for online programmes to be delivered and evaluated in UK schools. However, consideration would have to be given to the language and content in programmes to ensure it is compatible with the sociocultural context of the UK.

Regarding Chapter 3, it is recommended that additional focus groups are conducted by recruiting students from more schools who received the Safe and Sound programme to gain further insight into young people's views and experiences from different schools. It would be useful to employ a diverse sample of participants including gender and sexual orientation and gather their views about the heteronormative scenario used in the programme. In addition, it would be of interest to gain further insight regarding the programme from a more culturally diverse sample. This would provide insight into whether the programme is relatable and compatible with all young people's dating experiences in the UK. It may also prove beneficial for tailored programmes/scenarios to be developed to meet a wider range of cultural experiences. In addition, follow up research with the same sample is recommended to see whether learning points have been consolidated.

Finally, in relation to chapter 4, it is recommended for researchers to investigate the reliability and validity of the Dating Violence Questionnaire with a UK population and to further explore the psychometric properties of the measure.

Conclusion

The thesis provides support for the assertion that prevention programmes which fall under the umbrella of healthy and unhealthy relationships, are effective across various modes of delivery (i.e., face to face and a range of online methods). Positive outcomes relate to increased knowledge, improved attitudes, and greater intentions and efficacy to intervene as a result of engaging with these programmes. Further research would be needed to provide confirmation regarding the long-term impact of the programmes; however, current findings are highly promising. Of note from both the systemic literature review and the empirical project was the suggestion that programmes could be improved by considering the diversity of students. The SLR highlighted the limited focus/inclusion of young people from sexual minority groups, and the lack of cultural relevance of scenarios was made reference to by some participants in the empirical project.

In conclusion, it is hoped the findings can provide valuable insight regarding the utility and effectiveness of prevention education for young people. It is further hoped that such insights will contribute towards an increase in the number of schools who provide such programmes (i.e., online and/or TiE) for students in their care. Although the field will benefit from additional research, the research reviewed and conducted in this thesis would suggest that engaging with programmes such as these may have a positive impact on the concerningly high prevalence rates of dating and sexual violence amongst the adolescent and young person population.

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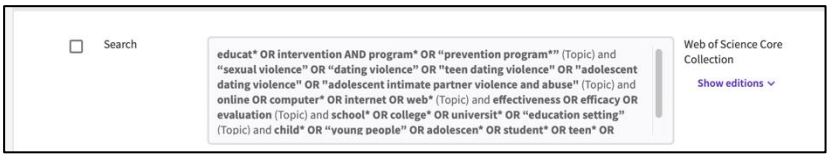
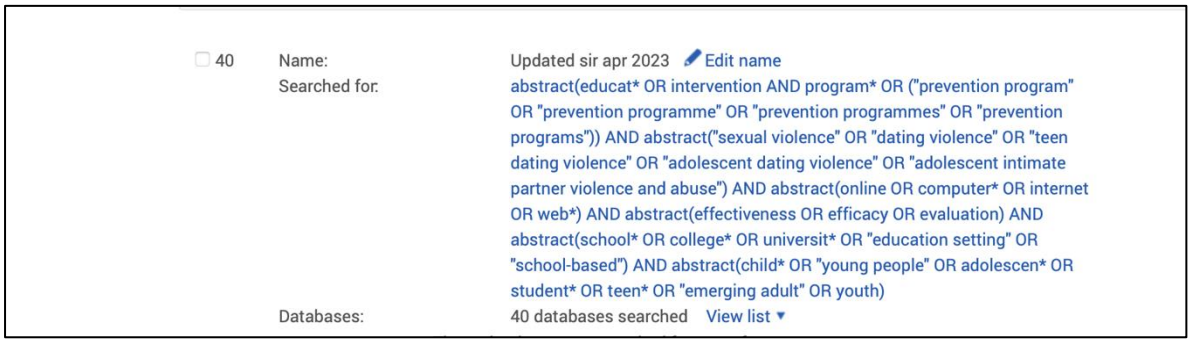
Appendix A

SLR Syntax

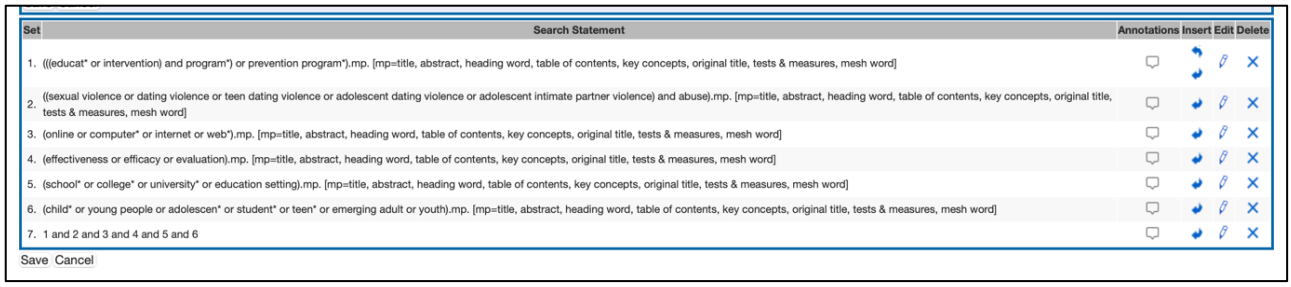
Web of Science



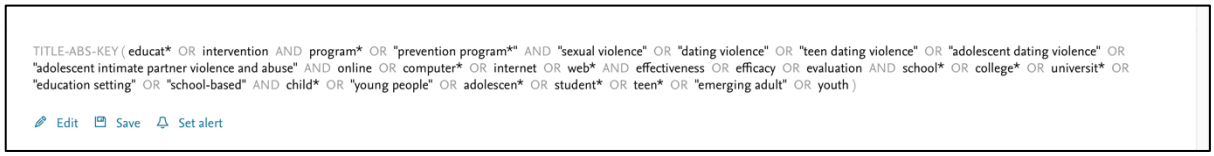
ProQuest



PsychINFO



SCOPUS



Appendix B-
Excluded studies with reasons.

	Reference	Reason for exclusion
1.	Bollinger, B.J. (2019). *Stand, Speak, Act: Using the Theory of Planned Behavior to Evaluate a Sexual Assault Bystander Intervention Campaign on a Tri-Campus University.* [Doctoral Dissertation, University of Washington]. https://digital.lib.washington.edu/researchworks/handle/1773/44134	Not an online programme
2.	Baker, E. A. (2019). *Improving Dating Violence Prevention Programs on College Campuses with Mindfulness-based Skills Training: A Randomized Trial* [Doctoral dissertation, Kent State University]. Ohio. http://rave.ohiolink.edu/etdc/view?acc_num=kent1559760630310383	Not an online programme
3.	Bogle, S. (2018). *Examining Student Conduct Administrative Perspectives on Contemporary Federal Guidance for Campus Sexual Violence.* [Publication No. 10974210). [Doctoral Dissertation, Plymouth State University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global	Focus is not an evaluation.
4.	Bonar, E., Rider-Milkovich, H., Huhman, A., McAndrew, L., Goldstick, J., Cunningham, R., & Walton, M. (2018). Description and initial evaluation of a values-based campus sexual assault prevention programme for first-year college students. *Sex Education*, *19*(1), 99-113. https://doi.org/10.1080/14681811.2018.1482828	Not an online programme
5.	Borsky, A.E. (2014). Promoting Prosocial Behaviors to Prevent Dating Violence among College Students: Evaluation of a Bystander Intervention. [Doctoral Dissertation, The George Washington University]. ERIC. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED567503	Mixed modes of delivery
6.	Brokenshire, S.J. (2015). *Evaluating Bystander Intervention Training: Creating Awareness on College Campuses*. [Master's Thesis, Northern Arizona University]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.	Dissertation at MSc level.
7.	Cameron, N.O. (2018). *The Effects of Exposure to Consequences of Bystander Intervention on Intentions to Intervene in Intimate Partner Violence Situations.* [Doctoral Dissertation, Washington State University]. Research Exchange. https://rex.libraries.wsu.edu/esploro/outputs/doctoral/The-Effects-of-Exposure-to-Consequences/99900581820401842	Focus is not an evaluation. Looking at education entertainment (EE) phenomena.
8.	Carlyle, K. E., Conley, A. H., & Guidry, J. (2022). Development and evaluation of the red flag campaign for the primary prevention of sexual and dating violence on college campuses. *Journal of American College Health: J of ACH*, *70*(1), 84–88. https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2020.1726924	Not an online programme

9.	Chen, H., Huang, Q., & Jiang, M. (2022). Empowering Chinese College Students to Prevent Sexual Assault in Post-MeToo Era: An Empirical Study of the Bystander Intervention Approach. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *37*(1–2), NP449–NP472. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260520917515	Not an online programme
10	Coker, A. L., Bush, H. M., Fisher, B. S., Swan, S. C., Williams, C. M., Clear, E. R., & DeGue, S. (2016). Multi-College Bystander Intervention Evaluation for Violence Prevention. *American journal of preventive medicine*, *50*(3), 295–302. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2015.08.034	Not an online programme
11	Edwards, K. M., Dalla, R. L., Mauer, V. A., Roselius, K., Camp, E. E., Marshall, J., & Ybarra, M. (2023). Formative research to develop an app to prevent dating and sexual violence and alcohol use among high school youth. *Journal of community psychology*, *51*(3), 1273–1287. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.22958	Focus is not an evaluation
12	Fernandes, R. A. B. (2019). Sexual Assault on Portuguese University Campus. [Masters Dissertation, ISPA]. http://hdl.handle.net/10400.12/7397	Focus is not an evaluation.
13	Gallant, P. L. (2006). Take Control! A manualized intervention for middle school bullies. [Doctoral Dissertation, Antioch New England Graduate School]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global	The focus is not dating/sexual violence
14	Giardini et al. (2020). Dating SOS: a systematic and theory-based development of a web-based tailored intervention to prevent dating violence among Brazilian youth. *BMC Public Health, 20,* 391. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-08487-x	A study protocol
15	Gilliam, M., Jagoda, P., Jaworski, E., Hebert, L.E., Lyman, P., & Wilson, M.C. (2016). "Because if we don't talk about it, how are we going to prevent it?": Lucidity, a narrative-based digital game about sexual violence. *Sex Education, 16*, 391 - 404. doi: 10.1080/14681811.2015.1123147	Video game technology
16	Guggisberg, M. (2017). Violence Against Women in the Family Home: Acknowledging the Role of Education and the Opportunities to Utilise Technology in Prevention Efforts. *Technology Knowledge and Learning, 22*, 227-235. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10758-017-9303-6	Focus is not an evaluation. Experiences of IPV and use of technology; not evaluating a programme
17	Hennessy, R. (2020). *A Mixed Methods Evaluation of an Intersectional Bystander Program Against Sexual Violence Using the Integrated Model of Behavioral Prediction Within a Cluster Randomized Control Trial*. [Doctoral Dissertation, University of Winconsin]. https://dc.uwm.edu/etd/2519	Not an online programme
18	Johnson, K. M., Liddell, J. L., Lederer, A. M., & Sheffield, S. (2021). Does instructional mode alter the effectiveness of a curricular response to campus	Focus is not an evaluation.

	sexual violence? *Pedagogy in Health Promotion*, *8*(3), 199–206. https://doi.org/10.1177/23733799211057531	
19	Johnson, K.M., Liddell, J.L., Lederer, A.M., & Sheffield, S. (2022). Does Instructional Mode Alter the Effectiveness of a Curricular Response to Campus Sexual Violence? *Pedagogy in Health Promotion: The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 8(3)* 199–206. https://doi.org/10.1177/237337992110575	Online component delivered by instructor
20	Jozkowski, K. N., & Ekbia, H. R. (2015). "Campus Craft": A Game for Sexual Assault Prevention in Universities. *Games for Health Journal*, *4*(2), 95–106. https://doi.org/10.1089/g4h.2014.0056	Video game format
21	Kirk-Provencher, K. T. (2021). *Ratings of Consent in Lesbian, Gay, and Heterosexual Sexual Assault Situations*. [Doctoral Dissertation, University of Rhode Island]. Rhode Island https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2200&context=oa_diss	Focus is not an evaluation.
22	Maness, S. B., Kershner, S. H., George, T. P., Pozsik, J. T., Gibson, M., & Marcano, D. (2022). Evaluation of a media literacy education program for sexual health promotion in older adolescents implemented in Southern universities. *Journal of American college health: J of ACH*, 1–7. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2022.2083917	The focus is not dating/sexual violence.
23	Mercer- Kollar, L. M., Peng, L., Ports, K. A., & Shen, L. (2020). Who Will be a Bystander? An Exploratory Study of First-Person Perception Effects on Campus Bystander Behavioral Intentions. *Journal of Family Violence*, *35*(6), 647–658. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-019-00054-2	Focus is not an evaluation.
24	Miller, E., Goldstein, S., McCauley, H. L., Jones, K. A., Dick, R. N., Jetton, J., Silverman, J. G., Blackburn, S., Monasterio, E., James, L., & Tancredi, D. J. (2015). A school health center intervention for abusive adolescent relationships: a cluster RCT. *Pediatrics*, *135*(1), 76–85. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2014-2471	Not an online programme
25	Moor A. (2011). The efficacy of a high school rape prevention program in Israel. *Violence and victims*, *26*(3), 283–295. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.26.3.283	Not an online programme
26	Murphy, K. A., Smith, D. I., & Xenos, S. (2012). TREAD: A promising change-target for partner abuse prevention with adolescents. *Journal of Family Violence, 27*(4), 345–356. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-012-9424-6	Focus is not an evaluation.
27	Navarro-Perez, J. J., et al. (2020). Effectiveness of a Mobile App Intervention to Prevent Dating Violence in Residential Childcare. *Psychosocial Intervention, 29*(2): 59-66. doi:10.5093/pi2020a3	Sample not from an education setting
28	Pedersen, E.R., D'Amico, E.J., LaBrie, J.W. *et al.* (2019). An online alcohol and risky sex prevention program for college students studying abroad: study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. *Addict Sci Clin Pract*,*14,* 32 https://doi.org/10.1186/s13722-019-0162-4	Protocol

29	Potter, S. J., et al. (2021). "Can video games help prevent violence? An evaluation of games promoting bystander intervention to combat sexual violence on college campuses." *Psychology of violence* *11*(2): 199-208.	Video game technology
30	Potter, S. J., Flanagan, M., Seidman, M., Hodges, H., & Stapleton, J. G. (2019). Developing and Piloting Videogames to Increase College and University Students' Awareness and Efficacy of the Bystander Role in Incidents of Sexual Violence. *Games for Health Journal*, *8*(1), 24–34. https://doi.org/10.1089/g4h.2017.0172	Videogame technology
31	Potter, S. J., Moynihan, M. M., Stapleton, J. G., & Banyard, V. L. (2009). Empowering bystanders to prevent campus violence against women: a preliminary evaluation of a poster campaign. *Violence against women*, *15*(1), 106–121. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801208327482	Not an online programme.
32	Rizzo, C. J., Houck, C., Barker, D., Collibee, C., Hood, E., & Bala, K. (2021). Project STRONG: an Online, Parent-Son Intervention for the Prevention of Dating Violence among Early Adolescent Boys. *Prevention Science: The Official Journal of the Society for Prevention Research*, *22*(2), 193–204. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-020-01168-6	Video game technology
33	Rueda, H. A., & Fawson, P. R. (2018). From state policy to school practices: Accessibility and implementation of teen dating violence awareness education. *Partner Abuse, 9*(4), 379–397. https://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.9.4.379	Focus is not an evaluation.
34	Sánchez-Jiménez, V., Muñoz-Fernández, N., & Ortega-Rivera, J. (2018). Efficacy evaluation of "Dat-e Adolescence": A dating violence prevention program in Spain. *PLOS ONE*, *13*(10), e0205802. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0205802	Mixed modes of delivery
35	Scull, T. M., Dodson, C. V., Evans-Paulson, R., Reeder, L. C., Geller, J., Stump, K. N., & Kupersmidt, J. B. (2022). Evaluating the mechanisms and long-term effects of a web-based comprehensive sexual health and media literacy education program for young adults attending community college: study protocol for a three-arm randomized controlled trial. *Trials*, *23*(1), 521. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13063-022-06414-6	Study protocol
36	Senn, C. Y., Eliasziw, M., Hobden, K. L., Newby-Clark, I. R., Barata, P. C., Radtke, H. L., & Thurston, W. E. (2017). Secondary and 2-Year Outcomes of a Sexual Assault Resistance Program for University Women. *Psychology of women quarterly*, *41*(2), 147–162. https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684317690119	Not an online programme
37	Siegel, K. R., Mobley, P.T., & Sanderson, C.A. (2023). Addressing the College Mental Health Crisis: Training Students to Become Effective Bystanders. *Psychological Services, 20*(3), 410-422. doi: 10.1037/ser0000720	The focus is not dating/sexual violence
38	Steward, J. M. (2017). *Building upon Bystander Intervention: A Multi-Component Prevention Programming Approach for University Sorority Members.* [Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Tulsa]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing. https://www.proquest.com/docview/1949775605	Focus is not an evaluation

39	Verhelle, H., Vertommen, T., & Peters, G. Y. (2022). Preventing sexual violence in sport: Determinants of positive coach-bystander behavior. *Frontiers in psychology*, *13*, 862220. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.862220	Focus is not an evaluation.
40	Vivolo-Kantor, A. M., Niolon, P. H., Estefan, L. F., Le, V. D., Tracy, A. J., Latzman, N. E., Little, T. D., Lang, K. M., DeGue, S., & Tharp, A. T. (2021). Middle School Effects of the Dating Matters® Comprehensive Teen Dating Violence Prevention Model on Physical Violence, Bullying, and Cyberbullying: A Cluster-Randomized Controlled Trial. *Prevention Science: the Official Journal of the Society for Prevention Research*, *22*(2), 151–161. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-019-01071-9	Not an online programme
41	Voth Schrag, R., Hairston, D., Brown, M. L., & Wood, L. (2022). Advocate and Survivor Perspectives on the Role of Technology in Help Seeking and Services with Emerging Adults in Higher Education. *Journal of family violence*, *37*(1), 123–136. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-021-00279-0.	Focus is not an evaluation. Commenting on the use of ICT.
42	Yount, K. M., Bergenfeld, I., Anderson, K. M., Trang, Q. T., Sales, J. M., Cheong, Y. F., & Minh, T. H. (2022). Theoretical mediators of GlobalConsent: An adapted web-based sexual violence prevention program for university men in Vietnam. *Social Science & Medicine, 313,* 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2022.115402	Focus is not an evaluation. Commenting on the theoretical mediators of the programme, but data is included in another eligible (included) study.

Appendix C
Blank RCT CASP Form

Study and citation:

Section A: Is the basic study design valid for a randomised controlled trial?

1.	**Did the study address a clearly focused research question?**
	CONSIDER:
	• *Was the study designed to assess the outcomes of an intervention?*
	• *Is the research question 'focused' in terms of:*
	  • *Population studied*
	  • *Intervention given*
	  • *Comparator chosen*
	  • *Outcomes measured?*
		Yes= 1 No= 0 Can't tell= 0
		☐ ☐ ☐
		Partially = 0.5 ☐

Rating		
2.	**Was the assignment of participants to interventions randomised?** *CONSIDER:* • *How was randomisation carried out? Was the method appropriate?* • *Was randomisation sufficient to eliminate systematic bias?* • *Was the allocation sequence concealed from investigators and participants?*	Yes= 1 No= 0 Can't tell= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐ **Partially = 0.5** ☐
Rating		
3.	**Were all participants who entered the study accounted for at its conclusion?** *CONSIDER:* • *Were losses to follow-up and exclusions after randomisation accounted for?* • *Were participants analysed in the study groups to which they were randomised (intention-to-treat analysis)?* • *Was the study stopped early? If so, what was the reason?*	Yes= 1 No= 0 Can't tell= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐ **Partially = 0.5** ☐

Rating	

Section B: Was the study methodologically sound?

4.	• Were the participants 'blind' to intervention they were given? • Were the investigators 'blind' to the intervention they were giving to participants? • Were the people assessing/analysing outcome/s 'blinded'?	Yes= 1 ☐ ☐ ☐	No= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐	Can't tell= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐
Rating out of 3				
5.	Were the study groups similar at the start of the randomised controlled trial? *CONSIDER:* • *Were the baseline characteristics of each study group (e.g. age, sex, socio-economic group) clearly set out?* • *Were there any differences between the study groups that could affect the outcome/s?*	Yes= 1 ☐ Partially = 0.5 ☐	No= 0 ☐	Can't tell= 0 ☐
Rating				

6.	Apart from the experimental intervention, did each study group receive the same level of care (that is, were they treated equally)? *CONSIDER:* • *Was there a clearly defined study protocol?* • *If any additional interventions were given (e.g. tests or treatments), were they similar between the study groups?* • *Were the follow-up intervals the same for each study group?*	Yes= 1 ☐ Partially = 0.5 ☐	No= 0 ☐	Can't tell= 0 ☐
Rating				

Section C: What are the results?		
7.	**Were the effects of intervention reported comprehensively?** *CONSIDER:* • *Was a power calculation undertaken?* • *What outcomes were measured, and were they clearly specified?* • *How were the results expressed? For binary outcomes, were relative and absolute effects reported?* • *Were the results reported for each outcome in each study group at each follow-up interval?* • *Was there any missing or incomplete data?* • *Was there differential drop-out between the study groups that could affect the results?* • *Were potential sources of bias identified?* • *Which statistical tests were used?* • *Were p values reported?*	Yes= 1 No= 0 Can't tell= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐ **Partially = 0.5** ☐
Rating		
8.	**Was the precision of the estimate of the intervention or treatment effect reported?** *CONSIDER:* • *Were confidence intervals (CIs) reported?*	Yes= 1 No= 0 Can't tell= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐ **Partially = 0.5** ☐
Rating		
9.	**Do the benefits of the experimental intervention outweigh the harms and costs?** *CONSIDER:* • *What was the size of the intervention or treatment effect?* • *Were harms or unintended effects*	Yes= 1 No= 0 Can't tell= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐ **Partially = 0.5** ☐

	reported for each study group? • *Was a cost-effectiveness analysis undertaken? (Cost-effectiveness analysis allows a comparison to be made between different interventions used in the care of the same condition or problem.)*	
Rating		

Section D: Will the results help locally?

10.	**Can the results be applied to your local population/in your context?** *CONSIDER:* • *Are the study participants similar to the people in your care?* • *Would any differences between your population and the study participants alter the outcomes reported in the study?* • *Are the outcomes important to your population?* • *Are there any outcomes you would have wanted information on that have not been studied or reported?* • *Are there any limitations of the study that would affect your decision?*	Yes= 1 No= 0 Can't tell= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐ **Partially = 0.5** ☐
Rating		
11.	**Would the experimental intervention provide greater value to the people in your care than any of the existing interventions?** *CONSIDER:* • *What resources are needed to introduce this intervention taking into account time, finances, and skills development or training needs?*	Yes= 1 No= 0 Can't tell= 0 ☐ ☐ ☐ **Partially = 0.5** ☐

• *Are you able to disinvest resources in one or more existing interventions in order to be able to re-invest in the new intervention?*	
Rating	
Total /13	Quality Rating:

APPRAISAL SUMMARY: *Record key points from your critical appraisal in this box. What is your conclusion about the paper? Would you use it to change your practice or to recommend changes to care/interventions used by your organisation? Could you judiciously implement this intervention without delay?*

Appendix D
Blank Cohort Study CASP Form

Available at https://casp-uk.b-cdn.net/wp-content/uploads/2018/01/CASP-Cohort-Study-Checklist_2018.pdf

Appendix E
Blank MMAT Appraisal Tool

Part I: Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT), version 2018
Study citation:

Category of study designs	Methodological quality criteria	Responses			
		Yes =1	No = 0	Can't tell= 0	Comments
Screening questions (for all types)	S1. Are there clear research questions?				
	S2. Do the collected data allow to address the research questions?				
	Further appraisal may not be feasible or appropriate when the answer is 'No' or 'Can't tell' to one or both screening questions.				
1. Qualitative	1.1. Is the qualitative approach appropriate to answer the research question?				
	1.2. Are the qualitative data collection methods adequate to address the research question?				
	1.3. Are the findings adequately derived from the data?				
	1.4. Is the interpretation of results sufficiently substantiated by data?				
	1.5. Is there coherence between qualitative data sources, collection, analysis and interpretation?				
2. Quantitative randomized controlled trials	2.1. Is randomization appropriately performed?				
	2.2. Are the groups comparable at baseline?				
	2.3. Are there complete outcome data?				
	2.4. Are outcome assessors blinded to the intervention provided?				
	2.5 Did the participants adhere to the assigned intervention?				
3. Quantitative non-randomized	3.1. Are the participants representative of the target population?				
	3.2. Are measurements appropriate regarding both the outcome and intervention (or exposure)?				

	3.3. Are there complete outcome data?				
	3.4. Are the confounders accounted for in the design and analysis?				
	3.5. During the study period, is the intervention administered (or exposure occurred) as intended?				
4. Quantitative descriptive	4.1. Is the sampling strategy relevant to address the research question?				
	4.2. Is the sample representative of the target population?				
	4.3. Are the measurements appropriate?				
	4.4. Is the risk of nonresponse bias low?				
	4.5. Is the statistical analysis appropriate to answer the research question?				
5. Mixed methods	5.1. Is there an adequate rationale for using a mixed methods design to address the research question?				
	5.2. Are the different components of the study effectively integrated to answer the research question?				
	5.3. Are the outputs of the integration of qualitative and quantitative components adequately interpreted?				
	5.4. Are divergences and inconsistencies between quantitative and qualitative results adequately addressed?				
	5.5. Do the different components of the study adhere to the quality criteria of each tradition of the methods involved?				
Total score /17 *Quality Score:*					

Appendix F

Blank Data Extraction Form

Data Extraction Form	
Citation	
Country:	
Study Design:	
Study Aims	
What is the aim of the study?	
Participants	
Sample size:	
Age range and mean age if provided:	
Sex (include aggregate data provided):	
Race/ethnicity information:	
Method	
What method of data collection was used?	
Was there a follow up period? (If yes, give details)	
Analysis	
How was the data analysed?	
Findings	
What were the findings/conclusions?	
What were the strengths?	
What were the limitations?	
Quality of study	
Quality Score:	

Appendix G

School Information and Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

Information Sheet & Consent Form to School

Project title: *An exploration of young peoples' experiences of attending the 'Safe and Sound' psychoeducation programme.*

My name is Kahmini Kaur, and I am a Forensic Psychology Doctorate student at the University of Birmingham. I am interested in exploring the experiences of students who attended the Safe and Sound programme delivered by Loudmouth. This is to gain insight into what works in achieving engagement and overall effectiveness of the prevention programme.

- The research will take the form of focus groups made up of a maximum of 6 students (across year groups if applicable).
- They will last around 45 minutes – 1 hour on school premises within the teaching day at a time that is most convenient for staff.
- Students will attend the programme and be given information sheets alongside a parental opt-in consent form.
- Students will have 1 week to return these forms to an allocated member of staff at the school.
- Students will not be identifiable at any stage of the data collection, analysis or write up.
- They can leave at any point during the focus group; however, their contributions cannot be removed from the recording.
- In consenting, they agree that should they disclose any information that places themselves or others at risk, the researcher has a duty of care to escalate this.
- Finally, students will be provided with a debrief which will contain researcher contact information, signposting information for wellbeing support if required, as well as an identified member of teaching staff within the school to access for additional support.

If you are happy to support the research, please provide consent by signing below. In doing so, you feel you have been provided with enough information to make this decision.

If you have additional questions, please do not hesitate to contact me [redacted] or my academic supervisor Dr Zoe Stepheson [redacted]

Thank-you for your time.
Kahmini Kaur (Doctorate Student at the University of Birmingham)

Print Name:
Sign:

Position held:
Date:

Appendix H

Participant Information Sheet and Parental Opt-in Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

Information Sheet

Project title: *An exploration of young peoples' experiences of attending the 'Safe and Sound' psychoeducation programme.*

My name is Kahmini, and I am a Doctorate student at the University of Birmingham. I am interested in finding out about young peoples' experiences of taking part in the 'Safe and Sound' prevention programme delivered by Loudmouth.

Why is this research important?
Prevention programmes are a way to educate young people about risky situations to help reduce the chance of them coming to harm or harming others. It is important to know if these programmes are designed and delivered in a way that young people think are relevant, helpful, and engaging, and if not, what could be improved? That's where your input would be appreciated. This research will allow you to share your thoughts and feelings about the specific prevention programme that was delivered to you called 'Safe and Sound'. You may have liked some parts and not others and that is helpful for Loudmouth to know so they can take this on board. Overall, it might provide useful information about what works and what doesn't work when designing and delivering prevention programmes to young people in schools.

What am I being asked to do?
I would really like to meet with you to explore your views about the Safe and Sound prevention programme. This will be a focus group of around 4-6 students lasting about 45 minutes-1 hour that will take place during school hours. You will be asked a range of questions, and I would like to hear your responses, a bit like a discussion you might have in the classroom. There are no trick questions or right answers, and you can be as honest as you like.

On the day, I'll ask for written consent from you, the focus group will be audio recorded, written up word for word and then the recording will be deleted. The word document will be saved to a secure research folder which is stored in the research centre on University Campus.

I'm concerned about confidentiality.
Your identity will be kept anonymous throughout the whole process which means that information like your name, age, school will not be made public. Only the main researcher and their supervisors(s) at the University will have access to the recording. The recording will be written up and some quotes might be used in the final write up. You can choose a fake name (a pseudonym) which I can use in the write-up of the study, or I can choose one for you. All data will be stored on password protected electronic devices as well as in the secure research centre on the University Campus for up to 10 years before being deleted.

I'd like to take part, what do I do?
That's great, but we need consent from a parent/guardian first. Please give them this information sheet to read and if your parent/guardian is happy for you take part, they can read and sign the consent form addressed to them on the back. You have 1 week in which to return it to school. You'll be informed of the day/time of the focus group by your school, and I'll meet with you on the day.

What if I say yes to taking part and then change my mind?
Not a problem. You can change your mind and leave the room/focus group at any point. However, your responses cannot be removed from the recording.
If you have any further questions, please feel free to send me an email on [redacted].

Thank-you for your time.
Remember to make sure your parent/guardian has read this information sheet first before signing the consent form.

UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

Parent/Guardian Consent Form

Project title: *An exploration of young peoples' experiences of attending the 'Safe and Sound' psychoeducation programme.*

Dear Parent/Guardian,
As you may be aware, your child has attended the 'Safe and Sound' programme as part of their PHSE Education. Following this, they have been invited to take part in a piece of research which aims to explore their experience of the programme. Details of the research are outlined on the information sheet that was given to your child; **please ensure you have read the information sheet before continuing.**

For your child to take part, your consent is required. Please read the following and mark an 'x' in the box if you give consent:

- ☐ I have enough information about the study to give my consent.
- ☐ I consent to the focus group being audio recorded; however, I am aware my child's real name will not be used and the recordings will be saved on password protected devices.
- ☐ I am aware that my child can choose to leave the focus group at any time, however their contributions are unable to be removed from the recording.
- ☐ I understand that the final project will be anonymised, and my child will not be identified in any way.
- ☐ I am aware that if during the focus group, my child discloses any information that places them or others at risk, the researcher has a duty to report this to the school.

Name of child:
Parent/Guardian (print name):
Parent/Guardian (sign):
Date:

Many thanks,
Kahmini Kaur (Doctorate Student at the University of Birmingham

Appendix I

Participant Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

Participant Consent Form

Project title: *An exploration of young peoples' experiences of attending the 'Safe and Sound' psychoeducation programme.*

Date:

Pseudonym (Fake name):
I have read and understood the information sheet and have had the opportunity to ask any questions I may have. I agree with the following statements:

- I have enough information to make this decision.
- I am aware that I do not have to answer any question that I feel uncomfortable about.
- I know the focus group will be audio recorded, however my real name will not be used, and all recordings will be stored on password protected devices.
- I am aware that once the focus group starts, I can leave at any time, but my responses will remain on the recording.
- I understand that the final project will be anonymised, and I will not be identified in any way. However, if during the focus group I disclose any information that places myself or others at risk, I am aware the researcher has a duty to report this to the school.

Participant (print): …….
Participant (sign): ……
Date: ……..

Researcher (print): Kahmini Kaur
Researcher (sign): …….
Date: ……..

Appendix J

Debrief Form

UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

Debrief Sheet

Project title: *An exploration of young peoples' experiences of attending the 'Safe and Sound' psychoeducation programme.*

Pseudonym (fake name):
Date of focus group:

Thank-you for taking part in the focus group which aimed to gather your thoughts/views about the *Safe and Sound* programme that was delivered by Loudmouth as part of your PHSE education.

If you have any questions regarding the research, then feel free to email me [redacted]. You can also contact my research supervisor Dr Zoe Stephenson [redacted].

In the event you have any worries/concerns following the discussion of any topics today, please contact the researcher who will be happy to help but you are also encouraged to speak to teaching staff at your school. You can also contact support services such as Childline (0800 1111), email help@NSPCC.org.uk if you are worried about yourself or young people around you.

The researcher will email a summary of the research to the school once it is written up, which will be sent to you.

Once again, thank you for taking part.

Appendix K

Interview Schedule

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Focus Group Schedule

1. Can you tell me what you learnt from the programme?
    - *Was this new information?*
    - *Have your views changed because of taking part? If yes, what views have been changed?*
    - **What did you think was a happy, healthy, safe relationship before? Has this changed from taking part in the programme?*

2. What did you like about the programme (if anything)?
    - *Did anything stand out to you as being good?*
    - *What made it stand out?*
    - *Can you remember any key bits of the programme that stand out for you? Why did this stand out?*
    - *Was it helpful to see both actors on stage? Their interactions?*
    - **Was it helpful for scenes to be repeated?*

3. What did you think the content/scenarios that were acted out?
    - *Were they realistic? Are they the kind of situations you could imagine happening with young people today e.g., in school, in your friendship group, in your culture? Have you heard of these sorts of things happening?*
    - *If not, what could have made it more realistic?*
    - *How did you feel towards the actors? Could you relate to them- socially, culturally?*
    - *Did the content represent your experiences?*

4. Do you think anything could have been changed/done differently? E.g., actors, content, length.
    - *What would you suggest?*
    - *Was anything missing that you think should be included?*
    - *Would you change anything about the format of delivery?*

5. After taking part in the programme, do you think it will change the way you act, speak, think about these types of situations?
    - *If so, how? E.g., would you intervene/speak up, would you give different advice to someone going through this.*

- *How is this different to what you would have said/done before?*

6. Did you feel able to ask the loudmouth people questions?

7. Overall, would you recommend the programme to other students?

    - *Why?*

8. Do you have any other thoughts, anything you would like to say about the programme?

Appendix L

Personal Reflections

Reflections on the topic

Prior to conducting the research, I reflected on my own knowledge and experiences of healthy/ unhealthy relationships as an adolescent. Most of my learning came from observing heteronormative relationships around me i.e., from family and friends and how they navigated their relationships both successfully and unsuccessfully. I thought about how this has shaped my beliefs as an adult and developed my framework for romantic relationships. I then considered how the current generation have different influences such as social media which motivated me to explore this further. When, I scrolled through social media, there was a slew of material which depicted unhealthy and "toxic" relationships which seemed to glamourise or glorify controlling/abusive behaviour and promoted this as "passion" or an attractive quality, e.g., "if he/she isn't like this, I don't want them". In this growing technological age, young people are increasingly turning to social media as an educative tool which may influence their knowledge, skills, and behaviour and be a further challenge for prevention programmes to address. I thought it would be important to know whether the content of the programme was relatable to what young people are experiencing and whether they would take home the 'expected' message. I was also keen to learn whether the content in the current prevention programme was ethno-culturally relevant for specific groups of young people. In certain cultures, dating at a young age/ before marriage can be frowned upon by elders, prohibited in religion, and therefore, young people may be less inclined to seek help if they encounter difficulties or be less aware of how to navigate relationships within these cultures. As such, prevalence may be higher in these groups which has been acknowledged in the literature Connolly et al. (2014). In this study, girls from cultural minority groups reported

higher rates of physical violence within a dating dynamic. In clinical practice, I had also encountered the views/attitudes of young people in a forensic population regarding dating relationships e.g., harmful expectations. I thought about how these attitudes may pose risk factors for perpetration/victimisation and where intervention would be most needed. Therefore, I was keen to further understand how prevention programmes can address these risk factors and whether they are effective.

Following the focus groups, I reflected on the above points and whilst some discussions were not relevant to include in the results, it was apparent that this group of young people were less influenced by social media, and they recognised the dangers of younger children having access to material that may be harmful. Of relevance, one student spoke about the content perhaps not being relatable to all groups e.g., Muslims, where dating is prohibited. This was interesting, as I considered whether this student had attended to the information in the same way as their peers or felt disconnected from the material. However, this student also acknowledged the programme could be a resource for people who "didn't know", so perhaps it could be an educative tool for future (permissible) relationships i.e., when married.

Interview Process

Prior to the current research, I had not conducted focus groups before, and I was apprehensive about my ability to manage the dynamics between young people. I had experience of working with young people and was aware that it could be difficult at times e.g., talking over each other, may disagree more openly with one another, or may be more reserved and worry about judgements from their peers. I took on board recommendations in the research (Adler et al., 2019), to be welcoming and spend time on introductions and my skillset as a therapeutic practitioner. Before starting the focus group, I allocated time to

introduce myself to each student properly, ask about their day, ensure they were comfortable with the seating arrangements etc. I was available to answer questions they had about my programme of study and some students shared their career aspirations. I felt this helped with breaking down the potential power dynamic and helped everyone to feel quickly comfortable.

I was also surprised that some students in focus group one shared personal experiences when answering the questions. I reflected that perhaps they felt safe and comfortable to do so, but perhaps also suggested that the performance had resonated with real life. I think Lily sharing an experience first, allowed Destiny to share her experience and this reinforced the safety of the space. I remember trying to approach these disclosures as a researcher and not a practitioner but wanting to show compassion and be validating. I thanked the students at the end for being open and sharing their experiences.

I reflected on the dynamics across the two focus groups and how focus group one was more talkative, they seemed more familiar with each other, and discussions felt more cohesive. In comparison, I had to prompt a lot in the second focus group which was considerably quieter. In this group, it took 9 minutes to start talking about the right programme as students had mixed up the programmes they had seen. This meant only 20 minutes of the recording was relevant and in hindsight, I could have paused the recording earlier and clarified with students. I also wondered whether having a fourth member in the first group had been a significant contributor and if I were to conduct focus groups again, I would aim for between 4-6 participants as originally planned. It was apparent that some students were more vocal than others, and I had to carefully manage this dynamic to allow room for everyone to speak and feel heard. I drew on my group delivery skills (in clinical practice) in these instances by

holding on to points and going back to students who I felt had more to say but had been unable to interject.

I also noted that in the first focus group, most students were reluctant to say the word 'sex' and/or giggled when the word/behaviour was referred to. I thought it reflected comments made about some of the audience being too "immature" for the programme. On the surface it would seem students in the focus group had separated themselves from other members of the audience and younger year groups, however, it might be they also lacked maturity, but perhaps wanted to present as more mature. Despite my apprehensions, I enjoyed conducting the focus groups and would feel more confident to use this method of data collection again. It was disappointing I was unable to carry out the additional focus groups as I am sure they would have added value to the overall discussion based on the success of the two current focus groups.

Analysis Process

I found the analysis process challenging on occasion as I felt students had gone off on tangents at times, and on reflection, there were times where I felt I could have probed further. I was also concerned I did not have enough data based on fewer focus groups and the fact the second focus group were less talkative. I managed this by seeking supervision which helped me to acknowledge the positives and encouraged me to immerse myself in the data. I spent time re-reading the transcripts several times and I found it helpful when my supervisor asked me questions based on my interview schedule and I was able to answer them (e.g., What did students learn?) by summarising the transcripts. This was vital in the familiarisation stage which allowed me to generate themes and subthemes that I feel have made sense in answering the research question.

I was also intrigued by students view about young relationships not lasting. As mentioned, it was unclear whether these were existing beliefs and perhaps they had been reinforced by watching the relationship develop in the performance. In particular, I felt the way in which Destiny expressed the view “you’re not always gonna have that man”, sounded as though it could have been something she heard from the older generation or wider society. This resonated with me as I had also heard phrases from those around me related to the idea that men may not “stick around” or relationships can be temporary, based on negative experiences in a heteronormative context. It made me consider the biases that certain students may have entered the programme with. I wondered whether they would they be more ‘on guard’ and notice warning signs sooner or conversely, be less affected by the behaviours shown based on their expectations.